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Constituted under the Imperial Bank of India Act, 1920.

BANKERS TO THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

Authorised Capital	..	Rs. 11,25,00,000
Paid-up Capital	..	" 5,62,50,000
Reserve Fund	..	" 5,12,50,000
Reserve Liability of Shareholders	..	" 5,62,50,000

LOCAL HEAD OFFICES:

Calcutta, Bombay, Madras.

London Office ... 22, Old Broad Street, E.C. 2.

BRANCHES THROUGHOUT INDIA AND BURMA.

Current Accounts Opened free of charge.

Fixed Deposits Received at Interest.

Savings Bank Deposits received and Interest allowed.

Government and other Securities Received for Safe Custody, Purchases and Sales effected, Interest and Dividends collected and credited to Account or remitted in accordance with instructions. Purchase and sale of Government Securities undertaken at all Branches for the public generally.

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792



16



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793



26



27



486



482



490



488



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Index to "Imperial Trade Guide"

AND

Advertised Businesses.

	PAGE
Account Bookmakers.	
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
Air Conditioning Machinery.	
The Liverpool Refrigeration Co., Ltd.	xiv
Banking and Insurance.	
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	xi
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	x
Imperial Bank of India	ix
National Bank of India, Ltd.	viii
The Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.	xxix
Bobbins for Textile Manufacturers.	
Wheeler Bros. Bobbin Co. Ltd.	xvii
Buttons and Studs.	
Edwards & Sons	iii
Cables Electric.	
Cable & Wire Corporation Co., Ltd.	xxii
Chemicals Manufacturers and Merchants.	
Wm. Barbour & Sons, Ltd.	xv

	PAGE
Compressors (High Pressure Gas).	
The Liverpool Refrigeration Co., Ltd.	xiv
Cover Papers and Wrappings of all descriptions.	
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xv
Diesel Oil Engines.	
J. & H. McLaren, Ltd.	vi
Electrical Equipment.	
Callender's Cable & Construction Co., Ltd.	xxi
Engine Windlasses	
J. & H. McLaren, Ltd.	xix
Envelope Makers.	
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
Fertilizers—Chemical.	
Alexander Cross & Sons, Ltd.	xviii
Fish Net Manufacturers.	
Wm. Barbour & Sons, Ltd.	xv
Galvanized Corrugated Sheets.	
Asch & Lucy, Ltd.	xvii

	PAGE		PAGE
Gas Engines		Perforated Zinc.	
Keighley Gas & Oil Engine Co.	ii	G. A. Harvey & Co. (London), Ltd.	xix
Ice-making Machinery & Plant.		Post Card Board and Boards	
The Liverpool Refrigeration Co., Ltd.	xv	of all kinds.	
Letterpress Machines.		John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi	Printers' Machinery.	
Linen Thread Manufacturers		John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
Wm. Harboure & Sons, Ltd.	xiv	Printing Machinery.	
Lithographic Machinery.		John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi	Printing Material Makers.	
Metal Perforators.		John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
G. A. Harvey & Co. (London), Ltd.	xvii	Printing Paper.	
Motor Ploughs (Cable)		John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
J. & H. McLaren, Ltd.	xix	Pumping Machinery.	
Newspaper Stereotype Machinery.		The Liverpool Refrigeration Co.	xv
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi	Railway Electrification.	
Newspaper Rotary Presses.		Callender's Cable & Construction Co., Ltd.	xvi
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi	Railway Travel.	
Newsprint Paper.		G. I. P. Railway	xiv
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi	Refrigerating Plant.	
Oil Engines.		The Liverpool Refrigeration Co., Ltd.	xv
Keighley Gas & Oil Engine Co.	ii	Rubber Boots, etc.	
Paper Makers, Merchants & Agents.		Chas. Macintosh & Co., Ltd.	xix
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi	Seed and Grain Merchants.	
Spicers (Export), Ltd.	xvii	Alexander Cross & Sons, Ltd.	xvii
Perforated Metals.		Sheet Metal Workers	
Ash & Laidlaw, Ltd.	xv	Ash & Laidlaw, Ltd.	xv
		Shoe Thread Manufacturers	
		— — — — —	xv

	PAGE
Shuttles for Weaving.	
Wilson Bros. Bobbin & Co.	xxvii
Stationery.	
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
Spicers (Exports) Ltd.	xvi
Steam Ploughs.	
J. & H. McLaren, Ltd.	xix
Steel Furniture.	
G. A. Harvey & Co. (London), Ltd. ..	xvii
Steel Lockers & Cupboards.	
G. A. Harvey & Co. (London), Ltd. ..	xvii
Stoneware "Vitrifine" Drain Pipes.	
J. Knowles & Co. (London), Ltd. ..	xx
Tractors.	
J. & H. McLaren, Ltd.	xix
Twine Manufacturers.	
Wm. Barbour & Sons, Ltd.	xix

	PAGE
Type Composing Machine.	
The Lanston Monotype Corporation Ltd. ..	xix
Upholstery Trimmings.	
George Brooke & Co., Ltd.	xxviii
Waterproof Garments, etc.	
Chas. Macintosh & Co.	xviii
Wire Weavers.	
G. A. Harvey & Co. (London), Ltd. ..	xvii
Wiring System (Electric Light).	
Callender's Cable & Construction Co. Ltd.	xviii
Writing and Printing Paper.	
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
Writing Papers	
John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.	xvi
Spicers (Exports) Ltd.	xxvi

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1928.

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THE INDIAN EMPIRE, WITH AN
EXPLANATION OF THE
PRINCIPAL TOPICS
OF THE DAY

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AND
S. T. SHEPPARD.

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CALENDAR FOR 1

January.

S.	1	8	15	22	29	...
M.	2	9	16	23	30	...
Tu.	3	10	17	24	31	...
W.	4	11	18	25
Th.	5	12	19	26
F.	6	13	20	27
S.	7	14	21	28

February.

S.	...	5	12	19	26	...
M.	...	6	13	20	27	...
Tu.	...	7	14	21	28	...
W.	1	8	15	22	29	...
Th.	2	9	16	23
F.	3	10	17	24
S.	4	11	18	25

March.

S.	...	4	11	18	25	...
M.	...	5	12	19	26	...
Tu.	...	6	13	20	27	...
W.	...	7	14	21	28	...
Th.	1	8	15	22	29	...
F.	2	9	16	23	30	...
S.	3	10	17	24	31	...

April.

S.	1	8	15	22	29	...
M.	2	9	16	23	30	...
Tu.	3	10	17	24
W.	4	11	18	25
Th.	5	12	19	26
F.	6	13	20	27
S.	7	14	21	28

May.

S.	...	6	13	20	27	...
M.	...	7	14	21	28	...
Tu.	1	8	15	22	29	...
W.	2	9	16	23	30	...
Th.	3	10	17	24	31	...
F.	4	11	18	25
S.	5	12	19	26

June.

S.	...	3	10	17	24	...
M.	...	4	11	18	25	...
Tu.	...	5	12	19	26	...
W.	...	6	13	20	27	...
Th.	...	7	14	21	28	...
F.	1	8	15	22	29	...
S.	2	9	16	23	30	...

July.

S.	1	8
M.	2	9
Tu.	3	10
W.	4	11
Th.	5	12
F.	6	13
S.	7	14

August.

S.	...	5
M.	...	6
Tu.	...	7
W.	1	8
Th.	2	9
F.	3	10
S.	4	11

September.

S.	...	2
M.	...	3
Tu.	...	4
W.	...	5
Th.	...	6
F.	...	7
S.	1	8

October.

S.	...	7
M.	1	8
Tu.	2	9
W.	3	10
Th.	4	11
F.	5	12
S.	6	13

November.

S.	...	4
M.	...	5
Tu.	...	6
W.	...	7
Th.	1	8
F.	2	9
S.	3	10

December.

S.	...	2
M.	...	3
Tu.	...	4
W.	...	5
Th.	...	6
F.	...	7
S.	1	8

Phases of the Moon—JANUARY 31 Day

☉ Full Moon.....7th, 11h. 37 .m. A.M. ● New Moon..... 23d
 ☾ Last Quarter.....15th, 2h. 43.6m. A.M. ☽ First Quarter.. 3d

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.					
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.	
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.
Sunday	1	1	7	12	6	13	0	42
Monday	2	2	7	12	6	13	0	42
Tuesday	3	3	7	13	6	14	0	43
Wednesday	4	4	7	13	6	15	0	43
Thursday	5	5	7	13	6	15	0	44
Friday	6	6	7	13	6	16	0	44
Saturday	7	7	7	14	6	16	0	43
Sunday	8	8	7	14	6	17	0	45
Monday	9	9	7	14	6	18	0	46
Tuesday	10	10	7	14	6	18	0	46
Wednesday	11	11	7	14	6	19	0	46
Thursday	12	12	7	15	6	20	0	46
Friday	13	13	7	15	6	20	0	47
Saturday	14	14	7	15	6	21	0	47
Sunday	15	15	7	15	6	22	0	48
Monday	16	16	7	15	6	22	0	48
Tuesday	17	17	7	15	6	23	0	48
Wednesday	18	18	7	15	6	24	0	49
Thursday	19	19	7	15	6	24	0	49
Friday	20	20	7	15	6	25	0	49
Saturday	21	21	7	15	6	25	0	50
Sunday	22	22	7	15	6	25	0	50
Monday	23	23	7	16	6	26	0	50
Tuesday	24	24	7	16	6	26	0	50
Wednesday	25	25	7	16	6	26	0	51
Thursday	26	26	7	15	6	27	0	51
Friday	27	27	7	15	6	28	0	51
Saturday	28	28	7	15	6	28	0	51
Sunday	29	29	7	15	6	29	0	52
Monday	30	30	7	15	6	30	0	52
Tuesday	31	31	7	14	6	31	0	52

Phases of the Moon—FEBRUARY 29 Days.

...5th, 1h. 41.0m. A.M.

● New Moon.....21st, 2h 14

..14th, 0h. 35.0m. A.M.

☾ First Quarter ..28th, 8h. 50.8r

Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.						Moon's Age at Noon
		Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon. P.M.		
		H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.
1	32	7	14	6	31	0	52	9.45
2	33	7	14	6	32	0	53	10.45
3	34	7	13	6	33	0	53	11.45
4	35	7	13	6	33	0	53	12.45
5	36	7	13	6	34	0	53	13.45
6	37	7	12	6	34	0	53	14.45
7	38	7	12	6	35	0	53	15.45
8	39	7	12	6	35	0	53	16.45
9	40	7	11	6	36	0	53	17.45
10	41	7	11	6	36	0	53	18.45
11	42	7	10	6	37	0	53	19.45
12	43	7	10	6	37	0	53	20.45
13	44	7	9	6	38	0	53	21.45
14	45	7	9	6	38	0	53	22.45
15	46	7	8	6	39	0	53	23.45
16	47	7	8	6	39	0	53	24.45
17	48	7	7	6	40	0	53	25.45
18	49	7	6	6	40	0	53	26.45
19	50	7	6	6	41	0	53	27.45
20	51	7	5	6	41	0	53	28.45
21	52	7	4	6	42	0	53	29.45
22	53	7	4	6	42	0	53	0.90
23	54	7	3	6	42	0	52	1.90
24	55	7	2	6	43	0	52	2.90
25	56	7	2	6	43	0	52	3.90
26	57	7	1	6	44	0	52	4.30
27	58	7	0	6	44	0	51	5.30
28	59	7	0	6	44	0	51	6.40
29	60	8	50	6	45	0	51	7.90

Phases of the Moon MARCH 31 Da.

☾ Full Moon 6th, 4h. 56.0m. P.M. ☽ New Moon . . .
 ☾ Last Quarter 14th, 8h. 50.0m. P.M. ☽ First Quarter -

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.					
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon P.M.	
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.
Thursday	1	61	6	59	6	45	0	51
Friday	2	62	6	58	6	45	0	51
Saturday	3	63	6	58	6	45	0	51
Sunday	4	64	6	57	6	45	0	51
Monday	5	65	6	56	6	45	0	51
Tuesday	6	66	6	55	6	46	0	50
Wednesday	7	67	6	54	6	46	0	50
Thursday	8	68	6	54	6	46	0	50
Friday	9	69	6	53	6	47	0	50
Saturday	10	70	6	52	6	47	0	49
Sunday	11	71	6	51	6	47	0	49
Monday	12	72	6	50	6	48	0	49
Tuesday	13	73	6	49	6	48	0	49
Wednesday	14	74	6	48	6	48	0	48
Thursday	15	75	6	47	6	49	0	48
Friday	16	76	6	46	6	49	0	48
Saturday	17	77	6	45	6	49	0	48
Sunday	18	78	6	44	6	49	0	48
Monday	19	79	6	43	6	50	0	47
Tuesday	20	80	6	42	6	50	0	47
Wednesday	21	81	6	42	6	50	0	47
Thursday	22	82	6	41	6	51	0	46
Friday	23	83	6	40	6	51	0	46
Saturday	24	84	6	39	6	51	0	46
Sunday	25	85	6	39	6	51	0	45
Monday	26	86	6	38	6	52	0	45
Tuesday	27	87	6	37	6	52	0	45
Wednesday	28	88	6	36	6	52	0	45
Thursday	29	89	6	36	6	52	0	44
Friday	30	90	6	35	6	53	0	44
Saturday	31	91	6	24	6	53	0	44

Phases of the Moon APRIL 30 Days

☉ Full Moon.....5th, 9h. 8-3m. A.M.

☾ New Moon20th, 10h 0

☾ Last Quarter 13th, 1h. 38-7m. A.M.

☽ First Quarter27th, 3h. 1

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the Latitude of Bombay.						Moon's Age at Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon. P.M.		
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.
Sunday	1	92	6	33	6	53	0	43	10 45
Monday	2	93	6	32	6	53	0	43	11 45
Tuesday	3	94	6	31	6	54	0	42	12 45
Wednesday	4	95	6	30	6	54	0	42	13 45
Thursday	5	96	6	30	6	54	0	42	14 45
Friday	6	97	6	29	6	54	0	42	15 45
Saturday	7	98	6	28	6	54	0	41	16 45
Sunday	8	99	6	28	6	54	0	41	17 45
Monday	9	100	6	27	6	54	0	41	18 45
Tuesday	10	101	6	26	6	55	0	40	19 45
Wednesday	11	102	6	26	6	55	0	40	20 45
Thursday	12	103	6	25	6	55	0	40	21 45
Friday	13	104	6	24	6	56	0	40	22 45
Saturday	14	105	6	23	6	56	0	39	23 45
Sunday	15	106	6	22	6	56	0	39	24 45
Monday	16	107	6	21	6	56	0	39	25 45
Tuesday	17	108	6	20	6	57	0	38	26 45
Wednesday	18	109	6	19	6	57	0	38	27 45
Thursday	19	110	6	19	6	57	0	38	28 45
Friday	20	111	6	18	6	58	0	38	29 45
Saturday	21	112	6	18	6	58	0	38	1 07
Sunday	22	113	6	17	6	58	0	37	2 07
Monday	23	114	6	16	6	59	0	37	3 07
Tuesday	24	115	6	16	6	59	0	37	4 07
Wednesday	25	116	6	15	6	59	0	37	5 07
Thursday	26	117	6	14	7	0	0	37	6 07
Friday	27	118	6	14	7	0	0	36	7 07
Saturday	28	119	6	13	7	0	0	36	8 07
Sunday	29	120	6	12	7	1	0	36	9 07
Monday	30	121	6	12	7	1	0	36	10 07

Phases of the M

Y 31 Days.

○ Full Moon

5h 11m 41.8m A.M.

● New Moon

26h 32m 4m P.M.

☾ Last Quarter 15th, 2h, 20.3m, A.M.

☽ First Quarter 28th, 2h, 41.6m P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.			
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.	N.
Tuesday	..	1	6	11	7	1	0	36	11°07'	15 2
Wednesday	..	2	6	10	7	2	0	36	12°07'	15 20
Thursday	..	3	6	10	7	2	0	36	13°07'	15 37
Friday	..	4	6	9	7	2	0	35	14°07'	15 55
Saturday	..	5	6	9	7	3	0	35	15°07'	16 12
Sunday	..	6	6	8	7	3	0	35	16°07'	16 29
Monday	..	7	6	8	7	4	0	35	17°07'	16 46
Tuesday	..	8	6	7	7	4	0	35	18°07'	17 3
Wednesday	..	9	6	7	7	4	0	36	19°07'	17 19
Thursday	..	10	6	6	7	5	0	35	20°07'	17 31
Friday	..	11	6	6	7	5	0	35	21°07'	17 50
Saturday	..	12	6	5	7	6	0	35	22°07'	18 1
Sunday	..	13	6	5	7	6	0	35	23°07'	18 21
Monday	..	14	6	4	7	6	0	35	24°07'	18 35
Tuesday	..	15	6	4	7	7	0	35	25°07'	18 50
Wednesday	..	16	6	4	7	7	0	36	26°07'	19 4
Thursday	..	17	6	3	7	7	0	35	27°07'	19 17
Friday	..	18	6	3	7	7	0	35	28°07'	19 31
Saturday	..	19	6	3	7	7	0	35	29°07'	19 44
Sunday	..	20	6	3	7	8	0	35	0°75'	19 57
Monday	..	21	6	3	7	8	0	35	1°75'	20 9
Tuesday	..	22	6	3	7	9	0	35	2°75'	20 21
Wednesday	..	23	6	2	7	9	0	35	3°75'	20 35
Thursday	..	24	6	2	7	9	0	36	4°75'	20 44
Friday	..	25	6	2	7	10	0	35	5°75'	20 53
Saturday	..	26	6	2	7	10	0	36	6°75'	21 6
Sunday	..	27	6	2	7	11	0	36	7°75'	21 16
Monday	..	28	6	1	7	11	0	36	8°75'	21 16
Tuesday	..	29	6	1	7	11	0	36	9°75'	21 36
Wednesday	..	30	6	1	7	12	0	36	10°75'	21 45
Y	31	1	6	1	7		0	36	11°75'	21 54

Phases of the Moon—JUNF 30 Days

3rd 6h. 4 m P.M.

● New Moon

18th, h 12

11th, 11h. 21m. A.M.

{ > First Quarter ..25th, 4h 17

Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.						Moon's Age at Noon
		Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.		
		H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.
						P.M.		
	153	6	1	7	12	0	36	12 51
2	154	6	1	7	13	0	36	13 75
3	155	6	1	7	13	0	37	14 75
4	156	6	1	7	14	0	37	15 75
5	157	6	1	7	14	0	37	16 75
6	158	6	1	7	14	0	37	17 75
7	159	6	1	7	15	0	37	18 75
8	160	6	1		15	0	37	19 75
9	161	6	1	7	16	0	38	20 75
10	162	6	1	7	16	0	38	21 75
11	163	6	1	7	16	0	38	22 75
12	164	6	1	7	16	0	38	23 75
13	165	6	1	7	17	0	38	24 75
14	166	6	1	7	17	0	39	25 75
15	167	6	1	7	17	0	39	26 75
16	168	6	1	7	18	0	39	27 75
17	169	6	1	7	18	0	39	28 75
18	170	6	2	7	18	0	40	0 44
19	171	6	2	7	18	0	40	1 44
20	172	6	2	7	19	0	40	2 44
21	173	6	2	7	19	0	40	3 44
22	174	6	2	7	19	0	40	4 44
23	175	6	3	7	19	0	40	5 44
24	176	6	3	7	19	0	41	6 44
25	177	6	3	7	20	0	41	7 44
26	178	6	4	7	20	0	41	8 44
27	179	6	4	7	20	0	41	9 44
28	180	6	4	7	20	0	42	10 44
29	181	6	4	7	20	0	42	11 44
30	182	6	5	7	20	0	42	12 44

Phases of the Moon—JULY 31 Day

○ Full Moonard, 8h. 18^m. A.M.

● New Moon . .

☾ Last Quarter10th, 5h. 45^m. P.M.

☽ First Quarter

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the Latitude of Bombay.					
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.	
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.
Sunday	1	188	6	5	7	20	0	42
Monday	2	184	6	5	7	20	0	42
Tuesday	3	185	6	5	7	20	0	43
Wednesday	4	186	6	6	7	20	0	43
Thursday	5	187	6	6	7	20	0	43
Friday	6	188	6	6	7	20	0	43
Saturday	7	189	6	7	7	20	0	43
Sunday	8	190	6	7	7	20	0	43
Monday	9	191	6	8	7	20	0	44
Tuesday	10	192	6	8	7	20	0	44
Wednesday	11	193	6	8	7	20	0	44
Thursday	12	194	6	9	7	20	0	44
Friday	13	195	6	9	7	20	0	44
Saturday	14	196	6	9	7	20	0	44
Sunday	15	197	6	10	7	20	0	44
Monday	16	198	6	10	7	19	0	44
Tuesday	17	199	6	10	7	19	0	45
Wednesday	18	200	6	11	7	19	0	45
Thursday	19	201	6	11	7	18	0	45
Friday	20	202	6	12	7	18	0	45
Saturday	21	203	6	12	7	18	0	45
Sunday	22	204	6	12	7	17	0	45
Monday	23	205	6	13	7	17	0	45
Tuesday	24	206	6	13	7	17	0	45
Wednesday	25	207	6	13	7	17	0	45
Thursday	26	208	6	14	7	17	0	45
Friday	27	209	6	14	7	17	0	45
Saturday	28	210	6	14	7	17	0	45
Sunday	29	211	6	14	7	16	0	45
Monday	30	212	6	14	7	16	0	45
Tuesday	31	213	6	15	7	15	0	45

Phases of the Moon AUGUST 31 Days

1st, 9h. 0am. P.M.

8th, 10h. 53-8m. P.M.

☉ New Moon 15th, 7h 18
 ☾ First Quarter..... 23rd, 1h 51
 ☾ Full Moon 31st, 8h 4 0

Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.						Moon's Age at Noon
		Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.		
		H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.
1	214	6	15	7	15	0	45	15.11
2	215	6	15	7	14	0	45	16.11
3	216	6	16	7	14	0	45	17.11
4	217	6	16	7	13	0	45	18.11
5	218	6	16	7	13	0	45	19.11
6	219	6	17	7	12	0	45	20.11
7	220	6	17	7	12	0	44	21.11
8	221	6	17	7	11	0	44	22.11
9	222	6	18	7	11	0	44	23.11
10	223	6	18	7	10	0	44	24.11
11	224	6	18	7	9	0	44	25.11
12	225	6	19	7	8	0	44	26.11
13	226	6	19	7	8	0	44	27.11
14	227	6	19	7	7	0	43	28.11
15	228	6	20	7	7	0	43	29.11
16	229	6	20	7	6	0	43	30.72
17	230	6	20	7	5	0	43	1.72
18	231	6	21	7	5	0	43	2.72
19	232	6	21	7	4	0	42	3.72
20	233	6	21	7	3	0	42	4.72
21	234	6	21	7	2	0	42	5.72
22	235	6	22	7	2	0	42	6.72
23	236	6	22	7	1	0	42	7.72
24	237	6	22	7	0	0	41	8.72
25	238	6	22	6	59	0	41	9.72
26	239	6	23	6	58	0	40	10.72
27	240	6	23	6	58	0	40	11.72
28	241	6	23	6	57	0	40	12.72
29	242	6	23	6	56	0	40	13.72
30	243	6	24	6	55	0	39	14.72
31	244	6	24	6	54	0	39	15.72

Phases of the Moon—SEPTEMBER 30 Da

☾ Last Quarter 7th, 4h. 5-0m. A.M.

☽ First Quarter. . .

● New Moon.....14th, 6h.50-7m. A.M.

○ Full Moon.... 20

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.				
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H. M. P.M.
Saturday	..	1	6	24	6	53	0 39
Sunday	..	2	6	24	6	53	0 39
Monday	..	3	6	25	6	52	0 38
Tuesday	..	4	6	25	6	51	0 38
Wednesday	..	5	6	25	6	51	0 38
Thursday	..	6	6	25	6	50	0 37
Friday	..	7	6	25	6	49	0 37
Saturday	..	8	6	25	6	48	0 37
Sunday	..	9	6	25	6	47	0 36
Monday	..	10	6	25	6	46	0 36
Tuesday	..	11	6	25	6	46	0 36
Wednesday	..	12	6	26	6	45	0 35
Thursday	..	13	6	26	6	44	0 35
Friday	..	14	6	26	6	43	0 35
Saturday	..	15	6	26	6	42	0 34
Sunday	..	16	6	26	6	41	0 34
Monday	..	17	6	27	6	40	0 33
Tuesday	..	18	6	27	6	39	0 33
Wednesday	..	19	6	27	6	38	0 32
Thursday	..	20	6	27	6	37	0 32
Friday	..	21	6	27	6	36	0 32
Saturday	..	22	6	28	6	36	0 32
Sunday	..	23	6	28	6	35	0 31
Monday	..	24	6	28	6	34	0 31
Tuesday	..	25	6	28	6	33	0 31
Wednesday	..	26	6	29	6	32	0 30
Thursday	..	27	6	29	6	31	0 30
Friday	..	28	6	29	6	30	0 30
Saturday	..	29	6	29	6	29	0 29
Sunday	..	30	6	30	6	28	0 29

of the Moon—OCTOBER 31 Days

.6th, 10h. 35-8m. A.M.

☾ First Quarter22nd, 2h. 36

13th, 9h. 26-3m. P.M.

☾ Full Moon29th, 4h. 13

Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.						Moon's Age at Noon
		Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon.		
		H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.
1	275	6	30	6	27	0	28	17-24
2	276	6	30	6	26	0	28	18-24
3	277	6	30	6	26	0	28	19-24
4	278	6	31	6	25	0	28	20-24
5	279	6	31	6	24	0	27	21-24
6	280	6	31	6	23	0	27	22-24
7	281	6	32	6	22	0	27	23-24
8	282	6	32	6	21	0	27	24-24
9	283	6	32	6	21	0	26	25-24
10	284	6	32	6	20	0	26	26-24
11	285	6	32	6	19	0	26	27-24
12	286	6	32	6	19	0	25	28-24
13	287	6	32	6	18	0	25	29-24
14	288	6	33	6	18	0	25	0-64
15	289	6	32	6	17	0	25	1-64
16	290	6	33	6	16	0	25	2-64
17	291	6	33	6	15	0	24	3-64
18	292	6	34	6	15	0	24	4-64
19	293	6	34	6	14	0	24	5-64
20	294	6	34	6	13	0	24	6-64
21	295	6	35	6	12	0	24	7-64
22	296	6	35	6	12	0	23	8-64
23	297	6	36	6	11	0	23	9-64
24	298	6	36	6	10	0	23	10-64
25	299	6	36	6	10	0	23	11-64
26	300	6	37	6	9	0	23	12-64
27	301	6	37	6	9	0	23	13-64
28	302	6	38	6	8	0	23	14-64
29	303	6	38	6	7	0	23	15-64
30	304	6	38	6	7	0	23	16-64
31	*0	6	39	6	6	0	22	1-64

Phases of the Moon—NOVEMBER 30

☾ Last Quarter 4th 7h 36.3m P.M. ☽ First Quarter

● New Moon 12th, 5h. 53m. P.M. ☾ Full Moon ..

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.					
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.	
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.
Thursday	1	306	6	59	6	6	0	22
Friday	2	307	6	40	6	6	0	22
Saturday	3	308	6	40	6	5	0	22
Sunday	4	309	6	41	6	4	0	22
Monday	5	310	6	41	6	4	0	22
Tuesday	6	311	6	42	6	3	0	22
Wednesday	7	312	6	42	6	3	0	22
Thursday	8	313	6	43	6	3	0	22
Friday	9	314	6	43	6	2	0	23
Saturday	10	315	6	44	6	2	0	23
Sunday	11	316	6	45	6	2	0	23
Monday	12	317	6	45	6	1	0	2
Tuesday	13	318	6	46	6	1	0	23
Wednesday	14	319	6	46	6	1	0	2
Thursday	15	320	6	47	6	0	0	21
Friday	16	321	6	47	6	0	0	23
Saturday	17	322	6	48	6	0	0	2
Sunday	18	323	6	49	6	0	0	23
Monday	19	324	6	49	6	0	0	24
Tuesday	20	325	6	50	6	0	0	24
Wednesday	21	326	6	50	6	0	0	24
Thursday	22	327	6	51	6	0	0	24
Friday	23	328	6	51	6	0	0	25
Saturday	24	329	6	51	6	0	0	25
Sunday	25	330	6	52	6	0	0	25
Monday	26	331	6	52	6	0	0	25
Tuesday	27	332	6	53	6	0	0	26
Wednesday	28	333	6	54	6	0	0	26
Thursday	29	334	6	54	6	0	0	26
Friday	30	335	6	55	6	0	0	26

Phases of the Moon DECEMBER 31 Days

4th, 8h. 15m. A.M. ☾ First Quarter ... 20th, 9h 13
 12th, 1 h. 36-1m. A.M. ○ Full Moon.....27th, 1h 24 S.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Mean Time in the latitude of Bombay.						Moon's age at Noon
		Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon. P.M.		
		H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D
1	336	5	56	6	0	0	28	18 90
2	337	6	56	6	1	0	28	19 90
3	338	6	57	6	1	0	28	20 90
4	339	6	58	6	1	0	29	21 90
5	340	6	58	6	1	0	29	22 90
6	341	6	59	6	1	0	30	23 90
7	342	6	59	6	1	0	30	24 90
8	343	7	0	6	2	0	30	25 90
9	344	7	1	6	2	0	31	26 90
10	345	7	1	6	2	0	31	27 90
11	346	7	2	6	3	0	32	28 90
12	347	7	2	6	3	0	32	29 90
13	348	7	3	6	3	0	33	1 09
14	349	7	4	6	4	0	33	2 09
15	350	7	4	6	4	0	34	3 09
16	351	7	5	6	5	0	35	4 09
17	352	7	5	6	5	0	35	5 09
18	353	7	6	6	5	0	36	6 09
19	354	7	6	6	6	0	36	7 09
20	355	7	7	6	6	0	37	8 09
21	356	7	7	6	7	0	37	9 09
22	357	7	8	6	7	0	38	10 09
23	358	7	9	6	8	0	38	11 09
24	359	7	9	6	8	0	39	12 09
25	360	7	10	6	9	0	39	13 09
26	361	7	10	6	10	0	40	14 09
27	362	7	11	6	10	0	40	15 09
28	363	7	11	6	11	0	41	16 09
29	364	7	11	6	11	0	41	17 09
30	365	7	11	6	12	0	41	18 09
31	366	7	12	6	12	0	42	19 09

CALENDAR FOR

January.

S	6	13	20	27	...
M.	7	14	21	28	...
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	...
W.	2	9	16	23	30	...
Th	3	10	17	24	31	...
F.	4	11	18	25
S.	5	12	19	26

S.
M.	1
Tu.	2
W.	3
Th.	4
F.	5
S.	6

February.

S	3	10	17	24	...
M	4	11	18	25	...
Tu	5	12	19	26	...
W.	6	13	20	27	...
Th	7	14	21	28	...
F.	1	8	15	22
S	2	9	16	23

S.
M.
Tu.
W.
Th.	1
F.	2
S.	3

March.

S	3	10	17	24	31
M.	4	11	18	25	...
Tu	5	12	19	26	...
W	6	13	20	27	...
Th	7	14	21	28	...
F.	1	8	15	22	29	...
S	2	9	16	23	30	...

S.	1
M.	2
Tu.	3
W.	4
Th.	5
F.	6
S.	7

April.

S	7	14	21	28	...
M.	1	8	15	22	29	...
Tu.	2	9	16	23	30	...
W.	3	10	17	24
Th	4	11	18	25
F.	5	12	19	26
S.	6	13	20	27

S.
M.
Tu.	1
W.	2
Th.	3
F.	4
S.	5

May.

S	5	12	19	26	...
M	6	13	20	27	...
Tu.	7	14	21	28	...
W	1	8	15	22	29	...
Th.	2	9	16	23	30	...
F.	3	10	17	24	31	...
S.	4	11	18	25

S.
M.
Tu.
W.
Th.
F.	1
S.	2

June.

S	2	9	16	23	30
M.	3	10	17	24	...
Tu.	4	11	18	25	...
W	5	12	19	26	...
Th	6	13	20	27	...
F.	7	14	21	28	...
S	1	8	15	22	29	...

S.	1
M.	2
Tu.	3
W.	4
Th.	5
F.	6
S	7

Preface to the XV Annual Volume

OF THE

INDIAN YEAR BOOK, 1928.

THE Editors have to thank many correspondents who during the past year have sent them suggestions for the improvement of this book. The Indian Year Book is intended above all to be a book of reference, and its completeness and convenience of arrangement must necessarily depend to a great extent on the part taken in its editing by the members of the public who most use it.

The help extended to the Editors by various officials, and more particularly by the Indian Commercial Intelligence Department, has again been readily given and is most gratefully acknowledged. Without such help it would be impossible to produce the Year Book with up-to-date statistics.

Suggestions for the improvement or correction of the Year Book may be sent to the Editors at any time, but those which reach them before October have a better chance of being adopted than later suggestions which only reach them after the work of revision has been partly completed.

The Times of India, Bombay,

January, 1928.

An Indian Glossary.

ARKARI.—Excise of liquors and drugs.

AFSUR.—A corruption of the English "officer."

ARLUWALIA.—Name of a princely family resident at the village of Ahlu, near Lahore.

AYN.—A timber tree *TERMINALIA TOMENTOSA*.

AKALI.—Originally, a Sikh devotee, one of a band founded by Guru Govind Singh (who died 1708); now, a member of the politico-religious army (*dal*) of reforming Sikhs.

AKHUNDZADA.—Son of a Head Officer.

AKHARA.—A Hindu school of gymnastics.

ALIJAE (Sindhu).—Of exalted rank.

ALIGHOL.—Literally a Mahomedan circle. A kind of athletic club formed for purposes of self defence.

ALI RAJA.—Sea King (Laccadives)

AMLA.—A name given in Sind to educated members of the Lohana community, a Hindu caste consisting principally of bankers, clerks and minor officials.

AMIR (corruptly **EMIR**)—A Mohammedan Chief often also a personal name.

ANIOUT.—A dam or weir across a river for irrigation purposes, Southern India.

ANJUMAN.—A communal gathering of Mahomedans.

APHUS.—Believed to be a corruption of **ALPHONSE**, the name of the best variety of Bombay mango.

ASAF.—A minister.

AUS.—The early rice crop, Bengal, syn. **Ahu**, Assam.

AVATAR.—An incarnation of Vishnu.

BABA.—Lit. "Father," a respectful "Mr." Irish "Your Honour."

BABU.—(1) A gentleman in Bengal, corresponding to Pant in the Deccan and Konkani. (2) Hence used by Anglo-Indians of a clerk or accountant. Strictly a 5th or still younger son of a Raja but often used of any son younger than the heir, whilst it has also grown into a term of address—Esquire. There are, however, one or two Rajas whose sons are known respectively as—1st, **Kunwar**; 2nd, **Diwan**; 3rd, **Thakur**; 4th, **Lal**; 5th **Babu**.

BABUL.—A common thorny tree, the bark of which is used for tanning, *ACACIA ARABICA*.

BADMASH.—A bad character: a rascal.

BAGHLA.—(1) A native boat (*Buggalow*). (2) The common pond heron or paddybird.

BAHADUR.—Lit. "brave" or "warrior"; a title used by both Hindus and Mohammedans, often bestowed by Government; added to other titles, it increases their honour but alone it designates an inferior ruler.

BAIRAGI.—A Hindu religious mendicant

BAJRA OR BAJRI.—The bulrush millet a common food-grain, *Pennisetum typhoides* syn. *cambu*, Madras.

BARSHI.—A revenue officer or magistrate

BAND.—A dam or embankment (*Bund*)

BANTAN.—A species of fig-tree, *Ficus bengalensis*.

BARSAT.—(1) A fall of rain, (2) the rainy season.

BASTI.—(1) A village, or collection of huts (2) A Jain temple, Kanara.

BATTA.—Lit. "discount" and hence allowances by way of compensation.

BAZAR.—(1) A street lined with shops, India proper; (2) a covered market, Burma.

BEGUM or **BEGAM.**—The feminine of "Nawab" combined in Bengali as "Nawab Begum."

BER.—A thorny shrub bearing a fruit like a small plum, *Zizyphus jujuba*.

BESAR.—Apparently a large landowner.

BEWAR.—Name in Central Provinces for shifting cultivation in jungles and hill-sides syn. *laungya*, Burma; *jhum*, North-Eastern India.

BHADOL.—Early autumn crop, Northern India reaped in the month Bhadon.

BHANG.—The dried leaves of the hemp plant, *Cannabis sativa*, a narcotic.

BHANWAR.—Light sandy soil; syn. *bhar*

BEARAL.—A Himalayan wild sheep, *Ovis montanus*.

BRENDI.—A succulent vegetable (*Himantocaulis*).

BHONSLE.—Name of a Maratha dynasty

BHEER.—Title of the ruler of Cooh Behar

BHUTLI.—Name of a Maluch tribe.

BHUSA.—Chaff, for fodder.

BHUT.—The spirit of departed persons.

BIDRI.—A class of ornamental metalwork, in which blackened pewter is inlaid with silver, named from the town of Bidar, Hyderabad.

BIGHA.—A measure of land varying widely, the standard bigha is generally five-eighths of an acre.

BIR (BID).—A grassland—North India.

BLACK COTTON SOIL.—A dark-coloured soil, very retentive of moisture, found in Central and Southern India.

BOARD OF REVENUE.—The chief controlling revenue authority in Bengal, the United Provinces and Madras.

BOB.—See **BER**.

Note.—According to the Hunterian system of transliteration here adopted the vowels have the following values:—a either long as the a in 'father' or short as the u in 'cut,' e as the e in 'gain,' i either short as the i in 'bib,' or long as the e in 'feel,' o as the o in 'bone,' u either short as the oo in 'good,' or long as the oo in 'boot' as in 'milla,' as the oo in 'grouse.' This is only a rough guide. The vowel values vary in different parts of India in a degree. The tal values are too in for here.

BRINGAL—A vegetable *Solanum Melon*
GENA syn egg plant

BUNDER or **banda**—A harbour or port

BURJ.—A bastion in a line of battlements.

CADJAN.—Palm leaves used for thatch.

CHABUTRA.—A platform of mud or plastered brick, used for social gatherings, Northern India.

CHADAR.—A sheet worn as a shawl by men and sometimes by women. (Chudder)

CHAITYA.—An ancient Buddhist chapel.

CHAMBAR (CHAMAB).—A caste whose trade is to tan leather.

CHAMPAK.—A tree with fragrant blossoms
MICHELIA CHAMPAKA.

CHAPATI.—A cake of unleavened breads
(Chappatti.)

CHAPRAHI.—An orderly or messenger, Northern India; syn. pattawala, Bombay; peon, Madras.

CHARAS.—The resin of the hemp plant—*CANNABIS SATIVA*, used for smoking.

CHARKHA.—A spinning wheel.

CHARPAI (charpoy).—A bedstead with four legs, and tape stretched across the frame for a mattress.

CHAUDHRI.—Under native rule, a subordinate revenue official; at present the term is applied to the headman or representative of a trade guild.

CHAUKIDAR.—The village watchman and rural policeman.

CHAUR.—The fourth part of the land revenue, exacted by the Marathas in subject territories.

CHELA—A pupil, usually in connexion with religious teaching.

CHHAONI.—A collection of thatched huts or barracks; hence a cantonment.

CHHAPRAPATI.—One of sufficient dignity to have an umbrella carried over him.

CHHATRI.—(1) An umbrella, (2) domed building such as a cenotaph.

CHIEF COMMISSIONER.—The administrative head of one of the lesser Provinces in British India.

CHIKOR.—A kind of partridge, *CACCABIS CHUOR*.

CHIKU.—The Bombay name for the fruit of *ACHRAS SAPOTA*, the Sapodilla plum of the West Indies.

CHINAR.—A plane tree, *PLATANUS ORIENTALIS*.

CHINKARA.—The Indian gazelle, *GAZELLA BENNETTI*, often called 'ravine deer.'

CHITAI.—The spotted deer, *CEPVUS AXIS*.

CHOLAM.—Name in Southern India for the large millet, *ANDROPOGON SORGHUM*; syn. jowar.

CHOLI.—A kind of short bodice worn by women.

CHUNAM, chuna. Lime plaster

CIRCLE—The area in charge of (1) A Conservator of Forests (2) A Postmaster or Deputy Postmaster General (3) A Superintending Engineer of the Public Works Department.

CIVIL SURGEON.—The officer in medical charge of a District.

COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit can be arrested by the police without a warrant.

COLLECTOR.—The administrative head of a District in Regulation Provinces corresponding to the Deputy Commissioner in non-regulation areas.

COMMISSIONER.—(1) The officer in charge of a Division or group of Districts; (2) the head of various departments, such as Stamps, Excise, etc.

COMPOUND.—The garden and open land attached to a house. An Anglo-Indian word perhaps derived from 'kumpan,' a hedge.

CONSERVATOR.—The Supervising Officer in charge of a Circle in the Forest Department

COUNCIL BILLS.—Bills or telegraphic transfers drawn on the Indian Government by the Secretary of State in Council.

COUNT.—Cotton yarns are described as 20's, 30's, etc., counts when not more than a like number of hanks of 840 yards go to the pound avoirdupois.

COURT OF WARDS.—An establishment for managing estates of minors and other disqualified persons.

CRORE, karor.—Ten millions.

DADA—Lit., "grandfather" (paternal), any venerable person.

DAFFADAR.—A non-commissioned native officer in the army or police.

DAH OR DAO.—A cutting instrument with no point, used as a sword, and also as an axe, Assam and Burma.

DAK (dawk).—A stage on a stage coach route. Dawk bungalow is the travellers' bungalow maintained at such stages in days before railways came.

DAKAITI, DAKOITY.—Robbery by five or more persons.

DAL.—A generic term applied to various pulses.

DAM.—An old copper coin, one-fortieth of a rupee.

DARBAR.—(1) A ceremonial assembly, especially one presided over by the Ruler of a State hence (2) the Government of a Native State.

DARGAH.—A Mahomedan shrine or tomb of a saint.

DARI, Dhurrie.—A rug or carpet, usually of cotton, but sometimes of wool.

DAROGHA.—The title of officials in various departments; now especially applied to subordinate controlling Officers in the Police and Jail Departments.

DARWAN.—A door-keeper.

DARWAZA.—A gateway.

DAULA AND DAULAT.—State, also one's office.

DNA.—A Brahminical priestly title, taken from the name of a divinity.

DEBOTTAR.—Land assigned for the upkeep of temples or maintenance of Hindu worship.

DEODAR.—A cedar, *CEDRUS LIBANI* or *C. DEODARA*.

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER.—The Administrative head of a District in non-regulation areas corresponding to the Collector in Regulation Provinces.

DEPUTY MAGISTRATE AND COLLECTOR.—A subordinate of the Collector, having executive and judicial (revenue and criminal) powers; equivalent to Extra Assistant Commissioner in non-regulation areas.

DESAT.—A revenue official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH.—(1) Native country; (2) the plains as opposed to the hills, Northern India; (3) the plateau of the Deccan above the Ghats.

DESHMUKH.—A petty official under native (Maratha) rule.

DEVA.—A deity.

DEVASTHAN.—Land assigned for the upkeep of a temple or other religious foundation.

DEWAN.—See **DIWAN**.

DHAK.—A tree, *BUTEA FRONDOSA*, with brilliant orange-scarlet flowers used for dyeing, and also producing a gum; syn. palas, Bengal and Bombay; Chhul, Central India.

DHAMANI.—A heavy shighram or tonga drawn by bullocks.

DHARMSALA.—A charitable institution provided as a resting-place for pilgrims or travellers, Northern India.

DHATURA.—A stupefying drug, *DATURA FASTUOSA*.

DHENKUL.—Name in Northern India for the lever used in raising water; syn. picottah.

DHIRAJ.—"Lord of the Lands;" added to "Raja," &c., it means "paramount."

DHORI.—A washerman.

DHOTI.—The loincloth worn by men.

DISTRICT.—The most important administrative unit of area.

DIVISION.—(1) A group of districts for administrative and revenue purposes, under a Commissioner; (2) the area in charge of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, usually corresponding with a (revenue) District; (3) the area under a Superintendent of Post Offices; (4) a group of (revenue) districts under an Executive Engineer of the Public Works Department.

DIWAN.—A Vizier or other First Minister to a native Chief, either Hindu or Mohammedan, and equal in rank with "Sardar" under which see other equivalents. The term is also used of a Council of State.

DIWANI.—Civil, especially revenue, administration; now used generally in Northern India of civil justice and Courts.

DOAB.—The tract between two rivers, especially that between the Ganges and J

DRY CROP.—A crop grown without artificial irrigation.

DRY RATE.—The rate of revenue for unirrigated land.

DUN.—A valley, Northern India.

EEKKA.—A small two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony, Northern India.

ELAYA RAJA.—Title given to the Ruler of the Maharaja of Travancore.

EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER.—See Deputy Magistrate and Collector.

FAKIR.—Properly an Islamic mendicant or a mendicant who has no creed, but often loosely used of Hindu mendicants also.

FAMINE INSURANCE GRANT.—An annual provision from revenue to meet direct famine expenditure, or the cost of certain classes of public works, or to avoid debt.

FARMAN.—An imperial (Mughal) order or grant.

FARZAN.—(with defining words added) "Favourite" or "beloved."

FATEH.—"Victory."

FATH JANAM.—"Victorious in Battle" a title of the Nizam).

FAUJARI.—Under native rule, the area under a Faujdar or subordinate governor; now used generally of Magistrates' Criminal Courts.

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER.—The chief controlling revenue authority in the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces.

FITTON GARI.—A phreton, Bombay. Deriv. from the English.

GADRI, Gudi.—The cushion or throne of (Hindu) royalty.

GADWAR.—(sometimes GADWARA, title with "Maharaja" added of the ruler of Bar in the late was once a caste name and means "a warrior," i.e., the protector of the sacred animal but later on, in common with "Holkar" and "Sindhiya," it came to be a dynastic appellation and consequently regarded as a title. Thus, a Prince becomes "Gadwar" on succeeding to the estate of Baroda; "Holkar" to that of Indore and "Sindhiya," to that of Gwalior.

GANJA.—The unfertilised flowers of the cultivated female hemp plant, *CANNABIS SATIVA* used for smoking.

GAUR.—Wild cattle, commonly called "black" or **BOE GAURUS**.

GAYAL.—A species of wild cattle, *BOE PRONALIS*, domesticated on the North-East frontier; syn. mithan.

GHADR.—Mutiny, Revolution.

GHAT, Ghaut.—(1) A landing-place on a river (2) the bathing steps on the bank of a tank (3) a pass up a mountain; (4) in European usage, a mountain range. In the last sense especially applied to the Eastern and Western Ghats.

GHATWAL.—A tenure-holder who originally held his land on the condition of guarding the neighbouring hill passes (ghats), Bengal.

GHI, Ghee.—Clarified butter.

G HOLLY "G. T. J.

- GODOWN.**—A store room or warehouse. An Anglo-Indian word derived from the Malay *gadang*.
- GOPURAM.**—A gateway, especially applied to the great temple gateways in Southern India.
- GOSAIN, Goswami.**—A (Hindu) devotee; lit. one who restrains his passions.
- GOSHA.**—Name in Southern India for 'caste women'; lit. 'one who sits in a corner'—*syn.* *parda*.
- GRAM.**—A kind of pea, *CICER ARIETINUM*. In Southern India the pulse *DOLICHOS BIFLORUS* is known as horse gram.
- GUARANTEED.**—(1) A class of Native State, in Central India; (2) A class of railways.
- GUNJ.**—The red seed with a black 'eye' of *ABRUS PRECATORIUS*, a common wild creeper; used as the official weight for minute quantities of opium 12th TOLA.
- GUR, Goor.**—Crude sugar; *syn.* *jaggery*, Southern India; *tasyet*, Burma.
- GURAL.**—A Himalayan goat antelope, *CEMAGORAL*.
- GURDWARA.**—A Sikh Shrine.
- GURU.**—(1) A Hindu religious preceptor (2) a schoolmaster, Bengal.
- HAFIZ.**—Guardian.
- HAJ.**—Pilgrimage to Mecca.
- HAIJIL.**—A Mahomedan who has performed the haj. He is entitled to dye his beard red.
- HAKIM.**—A native doctor practising the Mahomedan system of medicine.
- HAIKALKHOR.**—A sweeper or scavenger; lit. one to whom everything is lawful food.
- HALI.**—Current. Applied to coin of Native States, especially Hyderabad.
- HAMAL.**—(1) A porter or cooly, (2) a house-servant.
- HESRA (HISRAH).**—The era dating from the flight of Mahomed to Mecca. June 20th, 622 A.D.
- HILRA LIL.**—'Diamond Ruby.'
- HILSA.**—A kind of fish. *CLUPRA ILISHA*.
- HOLKAR.**—See 'Chakwar.'
- HUL.**—An iron pinnacle placed on a pagoda in Burma.
- HUKKA, HOOKAH.**—The Indian tobacco pipe.
- INDAH.**—An enclosed place outside a town where Mahomedan services are held on festivals known as the *id.*, etc.
- INAM.**—Lit. 'reward.' Hence land held revenue free or at a reduced rate, often subject to service. See *DEVASTHAN, SARAJIN, WATAN*.
- INUNDATION CANAL.**—A channel taken off from a river at a comparatively high level, which conveys water only when the river is in flood.
- JACK FRUIT.**—FRUIT of *ARTOCARPUS INTREGRIFFOLIA*, var. *PHANAS*.
- JAGGERY, jagri.**—Name in Southern India for crude sugar; *syn.* *gur*.
- JAGIR.**—An assignment of land, or of the revenue of land held by a *Jagirdar*.
- JAH** A term denoting dignity
- JAM** (Shindhi or Baluchi) Chief.
- JATHA.**—An association.
- JAZIRAT-UL-ARAB.**—The Sacred Island of Arabia, including all the countries which contain cities sacred to the Mahomedans: Arabia, Palestine and Mesopotamia.
- JENADAR.**—A native officer in the army or police.
- JHIL.**—A natural lake or swamp, Northern India; *syn.* *bil*, Eastern Bengal and Assam.
- JIHAD.**—A religious war undertaken by Muslim man.
- JIRGA.**—A council of tribal elders, North West frontier.
- JOWAR.**—The large millet, a very common food-grain, *ANDROPOGON SORGHUM*, or *SORGHUM VULGARE*; *syn.* *choiam* and *jola*, in South ern India.
- JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER.**—An officer exercising the functions of a High Court in the Central Provinces, Oudh, and Sind.
- KACHERI, kachahri.**—An office or office building, especially that of a Government official.
- KADAR, karbi.**—The straw of *jowari* (q v.)—a valuable fodder.
- KAJU, kachew.**—The nut of *ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE*, largely grown in the Konkan.
- KAKAR.**—The barking deer, *CEPVULUS MONT-JAC*.
- KALAB, kallar.**—Barren land covered with salt or alkaline efflorescences, Northern India.
- KAMARBAND, Cammerbund.**—A waistcloth, or belt.
- KANAT.**—The wall of a large tent.
- KANGAR.**—A kind of portable warming-pan, carried by persons in Kashmir to keep themselves warm.
- KANKAR.**—Nodular limestone, used for metal lling roads, as building stones or for preparation of lime.
- KANS.**—A coarse glass which spreads and prevents cultivation especially in Bundelkhand *SACCHARUM SPONTANEUM*.
- KAKUNGO.**—A revenue Inspector.
- KARAIT.**—A very venomous snake, *BUNGARUS CANDIDUS* or *CARRULEUS*.
- KARBHARI.**—A manager.
- KARIZ.**—Underground tunnels near the shafts of wells, by which water is gradually led to the surface for irrigation, especially in Baluchistan.
- KARKUN.**—A clerk or writer, Bombay.
- KARMA.**—The doctrine that existence is conditioned by the sum of the good and evil actions in past existences.
- KARNAM.**—See *PATWARI*.
- KAZI.**—Better written *Qazi*—Under native rule, a judge administering Mahomedan law. Under British rule, the *kazi* registers marriages between Mahomedans and performs other functions, but has no powers conferred by law.
- KHADI (or KHADDAR).**—Cotton cloth hand woven from hand-spun yarn.
- KU** A native of
cryman a tent-pitcher

An Indian Glossary

KHALSA.—Lit. "pure." (1) Applied especially to themselves by the Sikhs, the word Khalsa being equivalent to the Sikh community; (2) land directly under Government as opposed to land alienated to grantees, etc., Northern India.

KHAN.—Originally the ruler of a small Mohammedan State, now a nearly empty title though prized. It is very frequently used as a name, especially by Afghans and Pathans.

KHANDI, candy.—A weight especially used for cotton bales in Bombay, equivalent to 20 mds.

KHARAB—In Bombay of any portion not assessed survey No. which being uncultivable is left unassessed.

KHARIF.—Any crops sown just before or during the main S. W. monsoon.

KHAS.—Special, in Government hands. Khas tahasildar, the manager of a Government estate.

KHACADAR.—Local levies of foot soldiers, Afghanistan.

KHAS-KHAS, Kus-Kus.—A grass with scented roots, used for making screens which are placed in doorways and kept wet to cool a house by evaporation, ANDROPOGON SQUARROSUM.

KHEDDA, Kheda.—A stockade into which wild elephants are driven; also applied to the operations for catching.

KHICHADI, Kojjeree.—A dish of cooked rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specially used of rice with fish.

KHULAT.—A robe of honour.

KHUTBA.—The weekly prayer for Mohammedans in general and for the reigning sovereign in particular.

KHWAJA.—A Persian word for "master," sometimes a name.

KIKOOB, kamkhwab.—Silk textiles brocaded with gold or silver.

KIRPAN.—A Sikh religious emblem; a sword.

KODALI.—The implement like a hoe or mattock in common use for digging; syn. mamuti, Southern India.

KONKAN.—The narrow strip of low land between the Western ghats and the sea.

KOS.—A variable measure of distance usually estimated at about two miles. The distance between the kos-minars or milestones on the Mughal Imperial roads averages a little over 2 miles, 4 furlongs, 150 yards.

KOT.—Battlements.

KOTHL.—A large house.

KOTWAL.—The head of the police in a town, under native rule. The term is still used in Hyderabad and other parts of India.

KOTWALL.—The chief police station in a cad-quarters town.

KUCHA BANDI.—A barrier or gateway erected as a lane.

KUMBHAR.—A potter.

KUNWAR OR KUMAR.—The heir of a Rajah.

KURAN.—A big grass land growing grass fit for cutting.

KYARL.—Land embanked to hold water for rice cultivation.

KYAUNG.—A Buddhist monastery, which always contains a school, Burma.

LAKE, lac.—A hundred thousand.

LAL.—A younger son of a Raja (strictly 1st son, but see under "labu").

LAMBARDAR.—The representative of the co-sharers in a zamindari village, Northern India.

LINGUE.—A large monkey, SEMNOPITHECUS ENTELLUS.

LASCAR, correct lashkar.—(1) an army, (2) in English usage a native sailor.

LAT.—A monumental pillar.

LATERITE.—A vesicular material formed of disintegrated rock, used for buildings and making roads, also probably valuable for the production of aluminium. Laterite produces a deep brichord soil.

LINGAM.—The phallic emblem, worshipped as the representative of Shiva.

LITCHI.—A fruit tree grown in North India (LITCHI CHINEENSIS).

LOKAMANYA.—(lit.) Esteemed of the world or the people; a national hero.

LOKEVINDA OR LOKINATH.—"Protector of the World," title of the Chiefs of Bhopal and Datta.

LONGYI.—A waistcloth, Burma.

LOTA.—A small brass water-pot.

LUNGI, loongi.—(1) A turban; (2) a cloth worn by women.

MADRASA.—A school especially one for the higher instruction of Mohammedans.

MAHAJAN.—The guild by Hindu or Jain merchants in a city. The head of the Mahajans is the Nagarsethi (q. v.).

MAHAL.—(1) Formerly a considerable tract of country; (2) now a village or part of a village for which a separate agreement is taken for the payment of land revenue; (3) a department of revenue, e.g., right to catch elephants, or to take stone; (4) in Bombay a small Taluka under a MAHAJARI.

MAHANT.—The head of a Hindu conventual establishment.

MAHARAJA.—The highest of hereditary rule is among the Hindus, or else a personal distinction conferred by Government. It has several variations as under "Raja" with the addition of MAHARAJ RANA; its feminine is MAHARANI (MAHA=great).

MAHATMA.—(lit.) A great soul; applied to men who have transcended the limitations of the flesh and the world.

A large carp, **BALPITA**

MAHUA.—A tree, *BASSIA LATIFOLIA*, producing flowers used (when dried) as food or for distilling liquor, and seeds which furnish oil.

MAIDAN.—An open space of level ground; the park at Calcutta.

MAJOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which separate accounts are kept of capital, revenue, and interest.

MAKTAB.—An elementary Mahomedan school.

MALGUZAR (revenue payer).—(1) The term applied in the Central Provinces to a co-sharer in a village held in ordinary proprietary tenure; (2) a cultivator in the Chamba State.

MALL.—A gardener.

MALIK.—Master, proprietor.

MAMLATDAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Bombay, whose duties are both executive and magisterial: syn. tahasildar.

MANDAP, or mandapam.—A porch or pillared hall, especially of a temple.

MANGOSTEEN.—The fruit of *GARCINIA MANGOSTANA*.

MANKHORE.—A wild goat in North Western India, CAPRA BALUCHERI.

MASJID.—A mosque. Jama Masjid, the principal mosque in a town, where worshippers collect on Fridays.

MASNAD.—Seat of state or throne, Mahomedan; syn. gaddi.

MATH.—A Hindu conventual establishment.

MACHANA.—A Mahomedan skilled in Arabic and religious knowledge.

MAULVI.—A person learned in Muhammadan law.

MAUND, ver Man.—A weight varying in different localities. The Ry. maund is 30 lbs.

MAYA.—Sanskrit term for delusion.

MEHRL or MAHAL.—A palace.

MELA.—A religious festival or fair.

MIAN.—Title of the son of a Rajput Nawab resembling the Scottish "Master."

MIHRAB.—The niche in the centre of the western wall of a mosque.

MINBAR.—Steps in a mosque, used as a pulpit.

MINAR.—A pillar or tower.

MINOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which regular accounts are not kept, except, in some cases, of capital.

MIR.—A leader, an inferior title which, like "khan," has grown into a name, especially used by descendants of the Chiefs of Sind.

MIRZA.—If prefixed, "Mr." or "Esquire."

MISTRI.—(1) a foreman, (2) a cook.

MONA, MOUNG, or MAUNG (Arakanese)—Leader.

MONSOON.—Lit. 'season,' and specifically (1) the S. W. Monsoon, which is a Northward extension of the S. E. trades, which in the Northern Summer cross the equator and circulate into and around the low pressure area over North India, caused by the excessive heating of the land area, and (2) The N. E.

which is the current of cold winds blowing down during the Northern winter from the cold land areas of Central Asia, giving rain in India only in S. E. Madras and Ceylon through moisture acquired in crossing the Bay of Bengal, and passing across the equator into the low pressure areas of the Australasian Southern summit.

MOPLAN (Mappila).—A fanatical Mahomedan sect in Malabar.

MOULVI OR MAULVI.—A learned man or teacher.

MUDALIYAR OR MUD-LIAR.—A personal proper name, but implying "steward of the lands."

MUFASSAL, mofussil.—The outlying parts of a District, Province or Presidency, as distinguished from the head-quarters (Sadri).

MUKADDAM, maccadum.—A representative or headman.

MUKHTAR (corruptly mukhtiar).—(1) A legal practitioner who has not got a sanad and therefore cannot appear in court as of right; (2) any person holding a power of attorney on behalf of another person.

MUKHTIAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Sind, whose duties are both executive and magisterial; syn. tahasildar.

MUKTI, 'release.'—The perfect rest attained by the last death and the final reabsorption of the individual soul into the world—soul, syn. NIRVANA, MOKSHA.

MUMTAZ-UD-DAULA.—Distinguished in the State MULK, in the country.

MUNG, mug.—A pulse, PHASEOLUS RADICATUS: syn. mag. Gujarat.

MUNJ.—(1) A tall grass (*SACCHARUM MUNJA*) in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahmansected thread worn; (2) the said thread.

MUNSHI.—A teacher of Hindustani or any Perso-Arabian language. President or presiding official.

MUNSHI.—Judge of the lowest Court with civil jurisdiction.

MURUM, moorum.—Gravel, used for metal ling roads.

MYOWUN.—"Mr."

NAGANI-NAGLI.—See RAGI

NAGARKHANA, Nakkarkhana.—A place where drums are beaten.

NAGARSHEKH.—The head of the trading guild of Hindu and Jain Merchants in a city.

NAIB.—Assistant or Deputy.

NAIK.—A leader, hence (1) a local chieftain in Southern India; (2) a native officer of the lowest rank (corporal) in the Indian army.

NAT.—A demon or spirit, Burma.

NAWAB.—A title borne by Musalmans, corresponding roughly to that of Raja among Hindus. Originally a Viceroy under the Moghal Government, now the regular leading title of a Mha n Prince ad ng to M a of he Hindus

NAZAR, nazarana.—A due paid on succession or on certain ceremonial occasions.

NAZIM.—A ruler.

NET ASSETS.—(1) In Northern India, the rent or share of the gross produce of land taken by the landlord; (2) in Madras and Lower Burma, the difference between the assumed value of the crop and the estimate of its cost of production.

NEWAR.—Broad cockney woven across bedsteads instead of iron slats.

NGAPI.—Pressed fish or salted fish paste largely made and consumed in Burma.

NILGAI.—An antelope, *ROSELAPHUS TRAGO CAMELUS*.

NIM, neem.—A tree, *MELIA AZADIRACHTA*, the berries of which are used in dyeing.

NIRVANA.—See **MUKTI**.

NIZAM.—The title of the ruler of Hyderabad the one Mohammedan Prince superior to Nawab.

NIZAMAT.—A sub-division of a Native State, corresponding to a British District, chiefly in the Punjab and Bhopal.

NON-AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT.—Enhanced assessment imposed when land already assessed as agricultural is diverted to use as a building site or for industrial concerns.

NON-COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit cannot be arrested by the police without a warrant.

NONO (Tibetan).—The ruler of Spitta.

NON-OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with few statutory rights, except in Oudh, beyond the terms in their leases or agreements.

NON-REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain Provinces to show that the regulations of full code of legislation was not in force in them.

NULLAH, NALL.—A ravine, watercourse, or drain.

OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with special rights in Central Provinces, in United Provinces.

PADAUK.—A well known Burmese tree (*PTEROCARPUS* sp.) from the behaviour of which the arrival of the monsoon is prognosticated.

PADDY.—Unhusked rice.

PAGA.—A troop of horses among the Marathas

PAGI.—A tracker of thieves of strayed or stolen animals.

PATGAR.—A tenure in Hyderabad State.

PAIK.—(1) A foot soldier; (2) in Assam formerly applied to every free male above sixteen years.

PAIRIE.—The name of the second best variety of Bombay mango, distinguishable from the *APRUS* (q. v.) by its pointed tip and by the colour being less yellow and green and red.

P — See **DHAK**.

PAIKI.—A pauper or a soldier.

PAN.—The betel vine, **PIPE BETLE**.

PANCHAMA.—Low caste, Southern India.

PANCHAYAT.—(1) A committee for management of the affairs of a caste, village, or town (2) arbitrators. Theoretically the panchayat has five (panch) members.

PANDI OR PUNDI.—A learned man.

PANDIT.—A Hindu title, strictly speaking applied to a person versed in the Hindu scriptures, but commonly used by Brahmans. In Assam applied to a grade of inspectors of primary schools.

PANSUPARI.—Distribution of **PAN** and **SUPARI** (q. v.) as a form of ceremonial hospitality.

PABAR.—A public place for the distribution of water, maintained by charity.

PABABADI.—A platform with a smaller platform like a dove-cot on a central pole or pillar built and endowed or maintained by charity whose grain is put every day for animals and birds.

PADA, purdah.—(1) A veil or curtain (2) the practice of keeping women secluded; **syn gosha**.

PANDESI.—Foreign Used in Bombay especially of Hindu servants, syces, &c., from North India.

PARGANA.—Fiscal area or petty sub-division of a **taluk** Northern India.

PASEM.—The fine wool of the Tibetan goat

PASO.—A waistcloth.

PAT, put.—A stretch of firm, hard clay.

PATEL.—A village headman, Central and Western India; **syn. reddi**, Southern India **gaonbura**, Assam; **padhan** Northern and Eastern India; **Mukhi**, Gujarat.

PATIDAR.—A co-sharer in a village, Gujarat.

PATAWALLA.—See **CHAPRAISI**.

PATWARI.—A village accountant; **syn. karnam**, Madras; **kulkarni**, Bombay Decan. **talati**, Gujarat; **shambhog**, Mysore, Kanara and Coorg; **mandal**, Assam; **tapedar**, Sind.

PEON.—See **CHAPRAISI**.

PESHKASH.—A tribute or offering to a superior.

PESHKOP.—Manager or agent.

PHULAY, (Pillow).—A dish of rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specifically used of chicken with rice and spices.

PHULKARI.—An embroidered sheet; **lit flower-work**.

PICA, paisa.—A copper or bronze coin worth one farthing; also used as a generic term for money.

PICOOTAK.—A lever for raising water in a bucket for irrigation, Southern India; **syn. dheekni** or **dhenkuli** or **dilkli** Northern India.

PIT A sacred tree, **FICUS RELI**

PUL A religious or saint

PLEADER.—A class of legal practitioner.

PONAYI.—A Buddhist monk or priest, Burma.

POSTIN, poshteen.—A coat or rug of sheep-skin tanned with the wool on, Afghanistan.

PRANT.—An administrative sub-division in Maratha States, corresponding to a British District (Baroda) or Division (Gwalior); also in Kathawar.

PRESIDENCY.—A former Division of British India.

PRINCE.—Term used in English courtesy for "Shahzada," but specially conferred in the case of "Prince of Arcot" (called also "Armin-1 Arcot").

PROTECTED.—Forests over which a considerable degree of supervision is exercised, but less than in the case of 'reserved' forests.

PROVINCE.—One of the large Divisions of British India.

PUJA.—Worship, Hindu.

PUJARI.—The priest attached to a temple.

PUNDIT.—See Pandit.

PURANA.—Lit. 'old' Sanskrit (1) applied to certain Hindu religious books, (2) to a geological group; (3) also to 'punch-marked' coins.

PUROHIT.—A domestic chaplain or spiritual guide, Hindu.

PWE.—An entertainment, Burma.

RYAIS.—Bands of revellers who accompany the Muharram processions.

QILLA.—A Fort.

RABI.—Any crop sown after the main South West monsoon.

RAGI (ELEusine COROICANA).—A small millet used as a food-grain in Western and Southern India; syn. marua, Nagli Nachni.

RAJA.—A Hindu Prince of exalted rank, but inferior to "Maharaja." The feminine of *Rani* (Princess or Queen), and it has the variations *Raj, Rana, Rao, Rai, Rawal, Rawat, Raikwar, Raikber and Raikat*. The form *Rai* is common in Bengal, *Rao* in S. & W. India.

RAJ RAJESHWAR.—King of Kings.

RAMOSHI.—A caste whose work is watch and ward in the village lands and hence used for any *chaukidar* (q.v.).

RANA.—A title borne by some Rajput chiefs, equivalent to that of *Raja*.

RANI.—The wife or widow of a *Raja*.

RAO.—A title borne by Hindus, either equivalent to, or ranking below, that of *Raja*.

REGAR.—Name for a black soil in Central and Southern India, which is very retentive of moisture, and suitable for growing cotton.

REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain provinces to show that the Regulations or full code of legislation applied to them.

REH.—Saline or alkaline efflorescences on the surface of the soil, Northern India.

RESERVED.—in to be main-
tained

RICKSHAW.—A one or two seat vehicle on two wheels drawn by coolies, used in the hills.

RISALDAR.—Commander of a troop of horses.

ROHU.—A kind of fish, LAKE ROHITA.

RYOTWARI.—The system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on the actual occupants of holdings.

SADR, sadder.—Chief (adjective). Hence the headquarters of a District; formerly applied to the Appellate Courts.

SAFA JANG.—A long-handled battleaxe carried by Jat Sikhs.

SAFFLOWER.—A thistle which yields a yellow dye from its petals and oil from its seeds (*CARTHAMUS TINCTORIUS*), ver. *kardai*, *kushanti*.

SAHEB.—The Native Hindu term used to or of a European. "Mr. Smith" would be mentioned as "Smith Sahab," and his wife "Smith Mem-Sahab," but in addressing it would be "Sahab," fem. "Saheba," without the name), occasionally appended to a title in the same way as "Bahadur," but inferior (=master). The unusual combination "Nawab Sahab" implies a mixed population of Hindus and Mohammedans.

SAHEZADA.—Son of a person of consequence.

SAID, SAYID, SAHYID, SYDI, SYED, SYUD.—Various forms for a title adopted by those who claim direct male descent from Mohammed's grandson Husain.

SAL.—A useful timber tree in Northern India. **SHOREA ROBUSTA.**

SAMBAR.—A deer, *CERVUS UNICOLOR*; syn *satau*.

SAN.—Bombay hemp, *CROTALARIA JUNCOSA*.

SANAD.—(1) A charter or grant, giving its name to a class of States in Central India held under a *sanad*, (2) any kind of deed of grants.

SANGATHAN.—Literally tying together a movement which aims at unity and the knowledge of the art of self-defence among Hindus. Roughly similar to Fascismo.

SANNYASI.—A Hindu mendicant.

SARI.—A long piece of cloth worn by women as a shawl.

SARANJAM.—Land held revenue free or on a reduced quit-rent in consideration of political services rendered by the holder's ancestors.

SARDAR (corrupted to *SIRDAR*)—A leading Government official, either civil or military, even a Grand Vizier. Nearly all the Punjab Barons bear this title. It and "Diwan" are like in value and used by both Hindus and Mohammedans. So, but Mohammedans only, are "Wali," "Sultan," "Amir," "Mir," "Mirza," "Mian," and "Khan."

SARKAR.—(1) The Government; (2) a tract of territory under Muhammadan rule, corresponding roughly to a Division under British administration.

SARSTUBAH.—An officer in charge of a Division in the Baroda State corresponding to Commissioner of British territories.

SATI. by a widow on the pyre of her h

SATYAGRAHA.—(lit.) One possessed by the truth; one who follows the truth wherever it may lead. (Commonly used to denote the passive resistance movement.)

SAWAI.—A Hindu title implying a slight distinction (lit. one-fourth better than others).

SAWBWA.—A title borne by chiefs in the Shan states, Burma.

SEMAL or cotton tree.—A large forest tree with crimson flowers and pods containing a quantity of floss, BOMBAY MALABARIQUEM.

SEROW, sarau.—A goat antelope, NEMOR-HAEDUS RUBALINUS.

SETTLEMENT.—(1) The preparation of a cadastral record, and the fixing of the Government revenue from land; (2) the local inquiry made before Forest Reserves are created; (3) the financial arrangement between the Government of India and Local Governments

SHAHID.—A martyr.

SHAEZADA.—Son of a King.

SHAIKH or **SHEIKH** (Arabic).—A chief.

SHAMS-UL-ULAMA.—A Mohammedan title denoting "learned."

SHAMSHIR-JANG.—"Sword of Battle" (a title of the Maharaja of Travancore.)

SHANSHOG.—See PATWARI.

SHASTRAS.—The religious law-books of the Hindus.

SHEGADI, seggaree.—A pan on 3 feet with live charcoal in it.

SHER, ser, seer.—A weight, or measure varying much in size in different parts of the country. The Railway ser is about 2 lbs

SHEETH, shethia.—A Hindu or Jain merchant

SHIGURAM.—See TONGA.

SHISHAM or **sisu.**—A valuable timber tree DALBERGIA SISOO.

SHUDDH.—Literally purification. A movement started in Rajputana and Northern India for the reconversion to Hinduism of those, like the Malakhana Rajputs, who, though Mahomedans for some generations, have retained many Hindu practices.

SIDI.—A variation of "Said."

SILLADAR.—A native trooper who furnishes his own horse and equipment.

SINDHIA.—See under "Gaekwar."

SOLA.—A water-plant with a valuable pith, AESCHYNOMENE ASPERA.

SOWAR.—A mounted soldier or constable.

SRI or **SHRI.**—Lit. fortune, beauty. Sanscrit term used by Hindus in speaking of a person much respected (never addressed to him; nearly—"Revere"): used also of divinities. The two forms of spelling are occasioned by the intermediate sound of the *s* (that of *s* in the German *Stadt*).

STUPA or **tope.**—A Buddhist tumulus, usually of brick or stone, and more or less hemispherical containing relics.

SUBAR.—(1) A ruler; (2) the officer in charge of a large tract in

Baroda, corresponding to the Collector of a British District; (3) a group of Districts or Division, Hyderabad.

SUBAH DAR.—(1) The governor of a province under Mahomedan rule; (2) a native infantry officer in the Indian Army; (3) an official in Hyderabad corresponding to the Commissioner in British territory.

SUB-DIVISION.—A portion of a District in charge of a junior officer of the Indian Civil Service or a Deputy Collector.

SULTAN.—Like "Sardar."

SUPARI.—The fruit of the betel palm, ARECA CATROBU.

SUPERINTENDENT.—(1) The chief police officer in a District; (2) the official in charge of a bill station; (3) the official, usually of the Indian Medical Service, in charge of a Central Jail

SURT.—Native of Surat, specially used of persons of the Dhed or Mahar caste who work as house servants of Europeans, and whose house speech is Gujarati.

SWAMI.—A Hindu religious wanderer

SYCH, sais.—A groom.

SYED, SYUD.—More variations of "Said"

TABLIQH.—The Mahomedan conversion rite ment.

TABUT.—See TAZIAR.

TAHSIL.—A revenue sub-division of a District syn. taluka, Bombay; taluka, Madras and Mysore; township, Burma.

TAHSILDAR.—The officer in charge of a tahsil, syn. Mamlatdar, Bombay; township officer or myo-ek, Burma; Mukhtarkar, Sind; Vahi vadar, Baroda. His duties are both executive and magisterial.

TAKAVI.—Loans made to agriculturists for seed, bullocks, or agricultural improvements syn. tagai, Bombay.

TALARI.—See PATWARI.

TALAV, or talao.—A lake or tank.

TALUK, taluka.—The estate of a talukdar in Oudh. A revenue sub-division of a District, in Bombay, Madras and Mysore; syn. tahsil.

TALUKDAR.—A landholder with peculiar tenures in different parts of India. (1) An official in the Hyderabad State, corresponding to the Magistrate and Collector (First Talukdar) or Deputy Magistrates and Collectors (Second and Third Talukdars); (2) a landholder with a peculiar form of tenure in Gujarat

TALPUR.—The name of a dynasty in Sind
TAMTAM, tamtum.—A North Indian name for a light trap or cart

TANK.—In Southern, Western, and Central India, a lake formed by damming up a valley, in Northern India, an excavation holding water.

TANZIM.—Literally "organization." A movement among the Mahomedans which aims at securing better education and a closer approach to unity among in India.

T AR. See PATWARI.

TARAI.—A moist swampy tract; the term especially applied to the tract along the foot of the Himalayas.

TARI, toddy.—The sap of the date, palmyra, or coconut palm, used as a drink, either fresh or after fermentation. In Northern India the juice of the date is called Sindhii.

TASAR, Tussore.—Wild silkworms, *ANTHRAEA PAPHA*; also applied to the cloth made from their silk.

TAZIA.—Lath and paper models of the tombs of Hasan and Hussain, carried in procession at the Muharram festival; syn. tabut.

TEAK.—A valuable timber tree in Southern and Western India and Burma, *TECTONA GRANDIS*.

TELEGRAPHIC TRANSFERS.—See Council bills.

THAGI, thuggee.—Robbery after strangulation of the victim.

THAKUR.—(1) The modern equivalent of the caste name Kshattriya in some parts of Northern India; (2) a title of respect applied to Brahmans; (3) a petty chief; (4) a hill tribe in the Western Ghats.

THAMIN.—The brow-antlered deer, Burma, *CERVUS ELDI*.

THANA.—A police station, and hence the circle attached to it.

TIKA.—(1) Ceremonial anointing on the forehead; (2) vaccination.

TIKAM.—The English pickaxe (of which the word is a corruption).

TIL.—An oilseed, *SESAMUM INDICUM*; also known as gingelly in Madras.

TINDAL, tandel.—A foreman, subordinate officer of a ship.

TIPAL, Teapoy.—A table with 3 legs, and hence used of any small European style table.

TOLA.—A weight equivalent to 180 grains (troy).

TONGA.—A one or two horsed vehicle with a covered top; syn. SHIGHEAM.

TSINE.—Wild cattle found in Burma and to the southward, *BOS SONDAICUS*; syn. bealng and banteng.

TUMANDAR.—A Persian word denoting some Office.

UMARA.—Term implying the Nobles collectively.

UMBAR.—A wild pig—(*FIUS GLOMERATA*).

UNIT.—A term in famine administration denoting one person relieved for one day.

URIAL.—A wild sheep in North-Western India, *OVIS VIGNEL*.

URID, **UBID**.—A pulse, 'black grain,' (*PHASEOLUS MUNGO*).

USAR.—Soil made barren by saline efflorescence, Northern India.

VAHIVATDAR.—Officer in charge of a revenue sub-division, with both executive and magisterial functions, Baroda; syn. tahsildar.

VAID or **BAIDYA**, Bengal.—A native doctor practising the Hindu system of medicine.

WAKIL.—(1) A class of legal practitioner, (2) an agent generally.

VIHARA.—A Buddhist monastery.

VILLAGE.—Usually applied to a certain area demarcated by survey, corresponding roughly to the English parish.

VILLAGE UNION.—An area in which local affairs are administered by a small committee.

WADA or **WADI**.—(1) An enclosure with houses built round facing a central yard; (2) private enclosed land near a village.

WAKE.—A Muhammadan religious or charitable endowment.

WALI.—Like "Sardar." The Governor of Khelat is so termed, whilst the Chiefs of Cabul are both "Wali" and "Mir."

WAO.—A step well.

WATAN.—A word of many senses. In Bombay Presidency used mostly of the land or cash allowance enjoyed by the person who performs some service useful for Government or to the village community.

WAZIR.—The chief minister at a Mahomedan court.

WET RATE.—The rate of revenue for land assured of irrigation.

YOGI.—A Hindu ascetic who follows the yoga system, a cardinal part of which is that it confers complete control over the bodily functions enabling the practitioner, for instance to breathe in through one nostril and out at the other.

YUNANI.—Lit. Greek; the system of medicine practised by Mahomedans.

ZAMINDAR.—A landholder.

ZAMINDARI.—(1) An estate; (2) the right of a landholder, zamindar; (3) the system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on an individual or community occupying the position of a landlord.

ZANANA.—The women's quarters in a house hence private education of women.

ZIARAT.—A Mahomedan shrine, North-Western Frontier.

ZILA.—A District.

The Peoples of India.

It is essential to bear in mind, when dealing with the people of India, that it is a continent rather than a country. Nowhere is the complex character of Indians more clearly exemplified than in the physical type of its inhabitants. No one would confuse the main types, such as Gorkhas, Pathans, Sikhs, Lepchas, Burmans, Nagas, Tamils, etc., nor does it take long to carry the types out to their proper places.

The typical Dravidians—differs all over the North-eastern Asiatic and more of Malaya, Sumatra and Mergasaur. Whatever may be their origin, it is certain that they have settled in the country for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. They have been displaced in the North-West by successive hordes of invaders, including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the North-East by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma, which is India only in a modern political sense. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is a borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of the Indian Empire are divided by Sir Henry Risley (Caste, Tribe and Race, Indian Census Report, 1901; the Gazetteer of India, Ethnology and Caste, Volume I, Chapter 4) into seven main physical types. There would be eight if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Turko-Iranian, represented by the Baluch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Probably formed by fusion of Turki and Persian elements in which the former predominate. Stature medium; complexion fair; eyes mostly dark but occasionally grey; hair on face plentiful, head broad, nose moderately narrow, prominent, and very long. The feature in these people that strikes one most prominently is the portentous length of their noses, and it is probably this peculiarity that has given rise to the tradition of the Jewish origin of the Afghans.

The Indo-Aryan occupying the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir, and having as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattris, and Jats. This type, which is readily distinguishable from the Turko-Iranian, approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall; complexion fair; eyes dark; hair on face plentiful, head long; nose narrow, and prominent, but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian, comprising the Maratha Brahmans, the Kumbis, and the Coorgs of Western India. Probably formed by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index. All of these characters, except perhaps the last, may be due to a varying degree of intermixture with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight; in the lower Dravidian elements are more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani, found in the United Provinces, in parts of Raj

putana and in Bihar and represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Muslim and in its lower by the Chamars. Probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head-form is long with a tendency to medium; the complexion varies from lightish brown to black; the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans; the stature is lower than in the latter group, and usually shorter than in the former. The type approaches the Indo-Aryan in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is so continually mixed one, yet its characteristics are readily definable, and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type, the character which gives the real clue to its origin and stamp is the Aryo-Dravidian as usually different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportions of the nose.

The "Aryo-Dravidian" type of Bengal, representing the Medians of Eastern Bengal, and other groups peculiar to this part of India. Probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad; complexion dark; hair on face usually plentiful; stature medium, nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India, and its numbers may be reckoned as a blanket throughout the wide area where their remarkable aptitude for clerical pursuits has procured their employment. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Hindustanis on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa; the western limit coincides approximately with the holy country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam, and Burma, represented by the Kanets of Lahul and Kulu; the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim; the Lamas, Maras and Gurungs of Nepal; the Bodo of Assam; and the Burmese. The head is broad; complexion dark with a yellow tinge; hair on face scanty; stature short or below average, nose fine to broad, face characteristically flat; eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type, found in the valley of the Godavari, in the Malabar, Hyderabad, and in the most of Central India and Chota Nagpur. Its characteristic representatives are the Pariahs of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur. Probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens the stature is short or below mean; the complexion very dark, approaching black; hair plentiful, with an occasional tendency to curl; eyes dark; head long; nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear

lat. This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest-clad ranges, terraced plateaus and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking, from the Vindhya to Cape Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is continuous with the Ghats, while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravallis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original characteristics have been unchanged by contact with Indo-Aryan or Mongoloid people, the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. Labour is the birthright of the pure Dravidian whether hoeing tea in Assam, the Duars, of Ceylon, cutting rice in the swamps of Eastern Bengal or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Rangoon and Singapore, he is recognizable at a glance by his black skin, his

squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social deposit which is here treated as Dravidian these typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among them traces of the original stock survive in varying degrees.

The areas occupied by these various types do not admit of being defined as sharply as they must be shown on an ethnographic map. They melt into each other insensibly; and although at the close of a day's journey from one ethnic tract to another, an observer whose attention had been directed to the subject would realise clearly enough that the physical characteristics of the people had undergone an appreciable change, he would certainly be unable to say at what particular stage in his progress the transformation had taken place.

MAIN STATISTICS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

The Indian Empire has an area of 1,805,332 square miles, about 3,000 square miles being added at the last census owing to the enumeration by estimate of certain tracts in Burma which had been excluded from previous censuses.

Of the total area 1,094,860 square miles, or 61 per cent. lie in British Territory, while the Indian States cover an area of 711,032 square miles, or 39 per cent. The total population is 318,912,480, British Territory containing 247,003,293 persons, or 77 per cent., and the Indian States 71,939,187 persons, or 23 per cent. of the whole population. It is usual to illustrate

these figures by comparison with the countries of Europe and in respect of area and population the Indian Empire has been frequently compared to Europe without Russia. The war has however, considerably altered the national and political distribution of countries and the new political map of Europe is perhaps hardly yet sufficiently familiar to form a graphic contrast. Turning further west we find that India with an area about half that of the United States has a population almost three times as large.

The most important statistics are set out in the following table:—

	India.	British Provinces.	Indian States.
Area in Square Miles	1,805,332	1,094,860	711,032
Number of Towns and Villages	687,981	500,088	187,593
(a) Towns	2,313	1,561	755
(b) Villages	685,665	498,527	187,138
Number of Occupied Houses	85,198,389	50,441,686	14,756,738
(a) In Towns	6,765,014	5,046,820	1,718,194
(b) In Villages	58,433,375	45,394,816	13,038,544
Total Population	318,912,480	247,003,293	71,939,187
(a) In Towns	32,475,276	25,044,368	7,430,908
(b) In Villages	286,467,204	221,958,925	64,508,279
Males	163,903,551	126,872,116	37,123,438
(a) In Towns	17,845,248	13,971,136	3,874,112
(b) In Villages	146,150,306	112,900,980	33,249,326
Females	154,946,926	120,131,177	4,815,749
(a) In Towns	14,630,028	11,073,232	3,556,796
(b) In Villages	140,316,898	109,057,945	31,258,953

in India seen under the aegis of an all-India survey of diseases. The survey has been named after the disease which is the cause of the deaths so recorded may be ascribed to malaria. Recent investigations made in special areas, however, suggest that this proportion has been considerably overestimated and that malaria only accounts for from one-fifth to one-fourth of the number of reported fever cases, the remainder being cases of dysentery, pneumonia, phthisis and other diseases.

In the last few years the prevalence of an affection which is the cause of considerable mortality called *Relapsing Fever* has received considerable attention by the Health Department. This disease has been diagnosed as common in most parts of the country, specially in the northern provinces and in the Central Provinces and Berar and Bombay, but the extent of the mortality which can be ascribed to it cannot at present be estimated. Nor can figures be given of phthisis which is undoubtedly responsible for considerable mortality; especially in the towns of western India, the deaths from this disease in Ahmedabad amounting in 1918 to 5 per mille of the population. All other factors in the health of the people have been overshadowed by the influenza epidemic of 1918 and 1919 which has dominated the population figures at the 1921 census.

Influenza:—The influenza epidemic of 1918 invaded India in two distinct waves. The first infection apparently radiated from Bombay, but it is impossible to say where the more virulent virus of the second invasion came from.

The rural areas were most severely infected, the reason probably being that while villages have little advantage over towns in the matter of overcrowding, sanitation and ventilation the urban areas have the benefit of qualified medical aid and organised effort. Mortality was specially high among adults (20-40), particularly among adult females, the disease being generally fatal to women in pregnancy. At the worst period whole villages were absolutely laid desolate by the disease. There was sometimes no means of disposing of the dead, crops were left unharvested and all local official action was largely paralysed, owing to the fact that the majority of the official staff were put out of action by the epidemic. To add to the distress the disease came at a period of widespread crop failure and reached its climax in November when the cold weather had set in; and, as the price of cloth happened at the time to be at its highest, many were unable to provide themselves with the warm clothing that was essential in the case of an illness that so readily attacked the lungs. The disease lasted in most provinces well into 1919 and gave a high mortality in that year in Bengal and the United Provinces. Even after it had subsided there were in the Central Provinces, Bombay and Burma mild recrudescences later in the year, while local outbreaks continued over the country during the next two years.

There is no direct means of ascertaining the effect of the epidemic on the various

branches of the population. The only estimate of the total number of deaths which can be ascribed to the influenza epidemic of 1918, to which must be added, as the results of similar calculation, another 1½ million deaths in 1919, giving a total recorded mortality of nearly 8½ millions in the two years. Even this, however, must be a substantial under-estimate since, owing to the complete breakdown of the reporting staff, the registration of vital statistics was in many cases suspended during the progress of the epidemic in 1918.

The total influenza mortality for India is put at between 12 and 13 millions. This is a conservative estimate. Even this estimate makes the influenza mortality, a large part of which occurred in three or four months, exceed by nearly two millions the total estimated deaths from plague in twenty years. On an estimated case mortality of ten per cent the total number of persons affected was 125 millions or two-fifths of the population of India. There was a further reaction on the birth rate.

Houses and Families.—The average number of persons per house has not changed in the last decade, though there was a decline between 1881 and 1911. The trend of the figures varies in different provinces, but they do not afford substantial ground for any material inference. It would, for example, be expected that the incidence of the influenza mortality would fall fairly evenly upon the individual households and would therefore cause a reduction in the number of persons per house. It does not appear to have done so in the United Provinces, or Rajputana, while in the Punjab there was a rise in the population of the household. The figures are unsatisfactory, and though they invite a discussion on the condition of the joint family it is doubtful if they can really be held to illuminate it. The general opinion of the Provincial Superintendents is that they do not do so and that other indications do not show that the joint family system has yet undergone any radical change, at any rate in the agricultural tracts of the country.

Census.	Persons per house.	Houses per square mile
1921	4.9	34.1
1911	4.9	35.8
1901	5.2	31.6
1891	5.4	33.9
1881	5.8	31.7

The People of India

Province, State of Agency.	Actual population.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.	Natural population.	Actual population.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.	Natural population.	per cent (1911-1921) in Natural Population Increase (+) Decrease (-)
INDIA.									
Ajmer-Merwara ..	318,885,980	26	1,050,951	319,333,405	315,110,231	625,123	1,023,505	315,614	+ 1.2
Andamans & Nicobars. ..	495,271	10	42,420	427,801	501,359	96,578	84,110	495,927	+ 12.5
Assam ..	27,086	20	316	12,282	26,495	14,402	970	27,027	+ 5.7
Baluchistan ..	7,990,245	37	75,978	6,776,067	7,050,857	882,068	74,294	6,776,083	+ 8.4
Bengal ..	799,025	17	60,421	781,659	884,703	58,500	76,278	781,476	+ 8.3
Bihar ..	47,592,402	10	697,047	46,359,869	46,805,042	1,970,778	584,757	46,805,042	+ 3.2
Bombay ..	37,961,858	1	1,955,048	39,494,062	38,435,293	449,712	1,916,806	38,435,293	+ 1.0
Burma ..	26,701,148	1	592,009	26,211,508	27,038,152	995,814	622,831	26,701,148	+ 1.7
C. P. & Berar ..	13,212,192	15	20,395	13,525,702	12,115,217	590,965	11,166	12,115,217	+ 8.6
Coorg ..	15,079,660	11	407,394	15,777,450	16,033,310	710,985	315,234	15,777,450	+ 1.1
Madras ..	163,838	17	2,852	182,753	174,976	45,636	3,862	174,976	+ 0.4
N. W. F. Province ..	42,791,155	1	1,756,462	44,340,755	41,870,160	253,877	1,518,179	41,870,160	+ 2.7
Punjab ..	5,076,476	12	84,495	5,003,409	3,819,027	135,315	67,378	5,003,409	+ 33.3
United Provinces ..	488,188	0	69,350	371,768	21,137,750	660,219	517,485	21,137,750	+ 5.6
Baroda State ..	25,101,060	137	549,129	25,023,352	48,014,080	660,085	1,429,310	48,014,080	+ 3.7
Gwalior State ..	16,510,608	414	1,402,541	47,432,795	2,012,798	222,957	235,528	47,432,795	+ 3.4
Central India (Agency)	2,126,522	294	221,602	2,116,680	0,256,080	474,255	536,133	2,116,680	+ 3.1
Uchhal State ..	3,186,075	340	280,029	3,184,764	9,371,110	47,266	23,268	9,371,110	+ 8.2
Orissa State ..	5,997,023	994	486,643	5,935,572	13,371,676	260,713	356,338	5,935,572	+ 5.8
Hyderabad State ..	979,080	759	28,338	967,659	3,153,126	76,778	51,968	967,659	+ 5.6
Kashmir State ..	12,471,770	202,781	367,751	12,632,740	5,806,194	312,008	149,607	12,632,740	+ 2.3
Karnataka State ..	8,320,513	430	84,291	8,321,384	10,530,432	304,553	855,947	8,321,384	+ 6.5
Madhya Pradesh (Agency) ..	5,078,892	314,531	102,104	5,766,165	8,792,020	23,935	3,445	5,766,165	+ 2.1
Malabar State ..	9,844,884	248,002	868,117	10,469,199	3,124,979	1,166	3,111	10,469,199	+ 16.5
Sikkim State ..	84,711	22,995	1,193	82,516				84,711	
Tamil Nadu State ..	4,006,062	7,591	90,250	4,062,911				4,006,062	

AREA OF INDIA AND THE PROVINCES AND STATES.

Province, State or Agency.	AREA IN SQUARE MILES IN		Difference, Increase+, Decrease—.
	1921	1911.	
INDIA.	1,805,332	1,802,657	+2,675
Provinces.	1,091,300	1,093,074	+1,220
Ajmer-Merwara	2,711	2,711	—
Andamans and Nicobars	3,143	3,113	—
Assam	53,015	53,015	—
Baluchistan (Districts and Administered Territories)	54,223	54,228	—
Bengal	76,843	73,699	—1,856
Bihar and Orissa	83,161	83,181	—20
Bombay	121,621	123,059	+502
Burma	233,707	236,399	+2,668
Central Provinces and Berar	99,876	99,823	+53
Coorg	1,582	1,582	—
Madras	142,260	142,330	—70
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and Administered Territories)	13,419	13,418	+1
Punjab and Delhi	100,439	99,779	+660
United Provinces	106,295	107,267	—972
States and Agencies.	711,032	709,583	+1,449
Assam State (Manipur)	8,456	8,456	—
Baluchistan States	30,410	30,410	—
Baroda State	8,127	8,182	—55
Bengal States	5,424	5,393	+31
Bihar and Orissa States	28,648	28,648	—
Bombay States	63,353	63,864	—511
Central India Agency and Gwalior State	77,988	77,367	+621
Central Provinces States	31,176	31,174	+2
Hyderabad State	82,698	82,698	—
Kashmir State	84,258	84,432	—174
Madras States	10,606	10,549	+147
Mysore State	29,475	29,475	—
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal Areas)	25,500	25,500	—
Punjab States	37,059	36,551	+508
Rajputana (Agency)	128,987	128,987	—
Sikkim State	2,813	2,818	—
United Provinces States	5,919	5,079	+870

NOTE.—The difference in areas is due to the use of revised survey figures and to corrections to Survey of India. In Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Punjab and the United Provinces it is also due to inter-provincial transfers.

THE POPULATION FACTS

K

				India.	British Provinces
Total Population	{	1921	318,042,480	217,003,201
			1911	315,156,396	213,951,177
			1901	291,361,056	231,250,000
		{	1891	297,374,671	220,899,898
			1881	271,896,330	198,541,898
			1872	206,162,360	184,818,117
Males	{	1921	163,095,554	126,872,111
			1911	161,338,935	124,707,901
			1901	140,951,824	117,482,903
		{	1891	146,769,629	112,391,703
			1881	129,046,290	101,165,111
			1872	100,055,545	95,136,611
Females	{	1921	154,946,926	120,131,177
			1911	153,817,461	119,225,266
			1901	141,409,232	113,767,097
		{	1891	140,545,042	108,484,898
			1881	123,047,040	97,380,266
			1872	100,106,815	80,721,557

Future Population of India.—A study of the growth of the population of India and the problems which it presents is vitiated by the abnormal conditions of the past decade. It was pointed out in the census report of 1911 that the rate of increase of population between 1872 and 1911 was equivalent to about 19 per cent., and that at this rate the population would double itself in about a century and a half. The real increase in the last fifty years in the population of India is just over 20 per cent. At this rate the doubling will take another 190 years. But calculations of this kind, though of interest, can hardly be taken seriously. Almost every one of the last five decades has witnessed some special disaster. A severe famine in South India checked the increase in the decade 1872-1881. The decennium 1891-1901 was dominated by the great famines of the closing period. Growth in Northern and Western India was checked in the succeeding decade by plague and we have had in the past decennium an epidemic which has caused more concentrated mortality than any previous calamity. The decade 1861-1891 alone

was free from any exception usually considered a factor of progress.

Difference between the rate estimated by the provinces in cent

Province.	
Bengal	.. .
Bombay	.. .
Burma	.. .
Madras	.. .
Punjab	.. .
United Provinces	.. .
Combined Provinces	.. .

TOWN AND COUNTRY.

The progress of urbanisation in India—if there has been any progress at all—has been very slow during the past thirty years, the whole increase being less than one per cent. An examination of the statistics shows that whilst towns with populations above 50,000

by over 18 per cent in the the was by less in those

between 5,000 and 50,000 population of towns between did not keep abreast of general population of the statistics reveal the gradual medium-size country towns the larger cities under the development and develop

Population of the Chief Towns

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN GROUPS OF TOWNS ACCORDING TO SIZE AND IN RURAL TERRITORY.

Class of places	1921.	
	Places	Population
Total Population	687,935	318,017 761
Urban Territory	2,313	32,418 776
Towns having—		
I. 100,000 and over	35	8,211 704
II. 50,000 to 100,000	54	3,517 749
III. 20,000 to 50,000	199	5,925 875
IV. 10,000 to 20,000	450	6,209 583
V. 5,000 to 10,000	885	6,223 011
VI. Under 5,000	690	2,331 054
Rural Territory	685,622	283,598 975

Cities—Statistical information for the 33 largest cities of India which have 100,000 inhabitants is given in the statement below:—

CITY.	Population 1921.	Number of persons per sq. mile.	Proportion of foreign born per mille.	Percentage of population born in India.
Calcutta with suburbs and Howrah	1,937,547	21,412	623	
Bombay	1,175,914	48,996	840	
Madras and Cantonment	526,911	18,169	335	
Hyderabad and Cantonment	404,187	7,925	275	
Rangoon and Cantonment	341,962	4,500	877	
Delhi and Cantonment	304,420	4,633	450	
Lahore and Cantonment	281,781	6,715	440	
Ahmedabad and Cantonment	274,007	24,909	397	
Lucknow and Cantonment	240,566	1,350	229	
Bangalore	237,496	20,931	340	
Karachi and Cantonment	216,893	19,718	605	
Cawnpore and Cantonment	216,436	22,620	425	
Poona and Cantonment	214,796	5,369	373	
Benares and Cantonment	198,447	19,930	140	
Agra and Cantonment	185,532	11,000	119	
Amritsar and Cantonment	160,318	16,534	181	
Allahabad and Cantonment	157,220	10,250	266	
Mandalay and Cantonment	148,917	5,917	209	
Nagpur	145,193	7,259	253	
Srinagar	141,735	15,653	21	
Madura	138,894	17,105	178	
Bareilly and Cantonment	129,459	16,800	128	
Meerut and Cantonment	122,609	15,542	210	
Trichinopoly and Cantonment	120,422	13,622	176	
Jaipur	120,207	40,069	63	
Patna	119,976	7,998	160	
Snolapur	119,581	17,083	391	
Dacca	119,450	17,566	140	
Sirat and Cantonment	117,434	39,144	183	
Ajmer	113,512	6,677	537	
Jubbulpore and Cantonment	108,793	7,252	366	
Peshawar and Cantonment	104,452	34,817	349	
Raipur	101,42	11,802	532	

is taken as embracing the suburbs, and this method is apparently adopted in dealing with Calcutta only. It is not, for instance, adopted in dealing with the considerable suburbs of Bombay just outside the limits of the Island. The actual population of Calcutta within the Municipal area is 885,815.

Migration.—Of the population of the Indian Empire only 803,528 were enumerated as born in other parts of the world. Of these about four-fifths came from other Asiatic countries, such as Nepal, Afghanistan, China, Siam, Ceylon and Arabia and the remainder mostly from Great Britain and other countries of Europe. The emigration from India is approximately 1·7 million so the numbers who move between India and other countries is about two millions. Of the total immigrant population of 707,000 in Burma 573,000 are Indians, 102,000 Chinese, representing 80 and 15 per cent. respectively of the whole number. Of the Provinces which contribute most largely to the streams of migrants the most conspicuous are Bihar and Orissa, about 1½ million, the United Provinces about 1 million, Madras ½ of a million, Rajputana 3/8 of a million and Hyderabad 1/8 of a million. The number of persons resident in India who were born outside the Indian Empire is 608,528 and of these 274,000 were born in Nepal, 118,000 in the British Isles, 108,000 in China and 48,000 in Afghanistan.

The statistics of emigration outside India are far from complete.

The number of Indians belonging to regiments and labour-corps outside India at the time of the census was about 125,000. Of these the majority were probably in Mesopotamia and Palestine. According to the returns

received in 1921, 1,028,000 of about two-fifths are males. More than four-fifths are Hindus and about half of the remainder are Musalmans. The colonies which attract an appreciable number of emigrants are shown below. At least one-ninth of the emigrants failed to specify their province of birth, and of the remainder not less than 841,000 or 80 per cent. were in Madras, 21,000 from Bombay, 18,000 from the Punjab, 17,000 from the North-West Frontier Province and 11,000 from Bengal. The majority of the emigrants work as agricultural labourers on rubber, tea, coffee and other plantations. Under the Defence of India Rules indentured labour emigration was stopped in March 1917, but there had been a considerable outflow of labourers to the colonies in the previous years and more than 3·4 millions of natives of India passed through the ports of Madras and Calcutta as indentured labourers for the various colonies during the decade. Of the labourers 33,000 went from Calcutta, but the bulk were from the Madras Presidency and their destination was Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. There is very little emigration from the ports of Bombay and Karachi. Altogether about two million labourers returned to India from the colonies during the decade.

Indian emigrants to certain Colonies.

	In thousands
Ceylon	301
Straits Settlements and Malay..	401
Natal	17
Trinidad	37
Fiji	34
Mauritius	17
Kenya	17

RELIGIONS.

The subject of religion is severely controversial in India, where often it is coloured by politics and racialism. As the Year Book aims at being impartial all disputed inferences are excluded. Speaking broadly, of every hundred persons in the Indian Empire 68 are Hindus, 22 Mahomedans, 3 Buddhists, 3 follow the religion of their tribes, one is a Chris-

tian and one a Sikh. Of the remaining 2 one is equally likely to be a Buddhist or a Christian and the other most probably a Jain, much less probably a Parsi and just as possibly either a Jew, a Brahmo, or a holder of indefinite beliefs. The enumerated totals of the Indian religions are set out in the following table:—

Religion.	Actual number in 1921. (000's omitted.)	Proportion per 10,000 of population in 1921.	Variation per cent (Increase or Decrease 1911-1921)
Indo-Aryan	232,723	7,362	+ 1
Hindu	216,735	6,856	+ 1
Brahmanic	216,261	6,841	+ 5
Arya	408	15	+ 92 1
Brahmo	6	2	+ 16 1
Sikh	3,239	103	+ 7 1
Jain	1,178	37	+ 6 6
Buddhist	11,571	366	+ 7 9
Iranian [Zoroastrian (Parsi)]	102	3	+ 1 7
Semitic	73,517	2,323	+ 4 2
Muselman	68,735	2,174	+ 5 1
Christian	4,754	150	+ 22 4
Jew	22	6	+ 5 8
Primitive (Tribal)	9,775	309	+ 6 1
Miscellaneous (Minor Religions and religions not returned)	18	1	+ 51 6

The Hindus largely predominate in the centre and south of India, and in the Madras Presidency they are no less than 89 per cent. of the population. Hindus are in the majority in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Central India tracts, Rajputana and Bombay. Muhammadans monopolize the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Kashmir and are considerably in excess in the Punjab and Eastern Bengal and Sind. They form about 23 per cent. of the population of Assam, 14 per cent. in the United Provinces and 16 per cent. in Hyderabad. The Buddhists are almost entirely confined to Burma where they are 85 per cent. of the population. The Sikhs are localized in the Punjab and the Jains in Rajputana, Ajmer-Merwara and the neighbouring States. Those who were classed as following Tribal Religions are chiefly found in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam, but Bengal, Burma, Madras, Rajputana, Central India and Hyderabad also returned a considerable number under this head. More than three-fifths of the total number of Christians reside in South India including the Hyderabad State. The remainder are scattered over the continent,

the larger numbers being concentrated in the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma, Bombay, and Assam. The Parsis and Jews are chiefly residents of the Bombay Presidency.

Christians.—The Christian community now numbers just 4½ millions of persons in India or 1½ per cent. of the population. Fifty-nine per cent. of Christians are returned from the Madras Presidency and its States, and the community can claim 32 persons in every 1,000 of the population of the British districts of Madras and as large a proportion as 27 per cent. in Cochin and 29 per cent. in Travancore, where the increase during the decade was about 30 per cent. Elsewhere the Christians are scattered over the larger Provinces and States of India, the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa each having over 300 thousands. Bombay, Burma and the United Provinces between 200 and 300 thousands and Bengal and Assam between 100 and 150 thousands. Divided racially Europeans (and allied races) number 176 thousands. Anglo-Indians, 113 thousands and Indians nearly 4½ millions, so that out of every 100 Christians 93 are Indians, 4 are Europeans and 3 are Anglo-Indians.

SECTS OF CHRISTIANS.

Sect.	Total.	
	1921.	1911.
INDIA.		
Abbyssinian	1	25
Anglican Communion	533,180	492,752
Armenian	1,487	1,200
Baptist	444,479	387,228
Congregationalist	123,016	135,265
Greek	287	594
Lutheran	240,816	218,500
Methodist	208,135	171,844
Minor Protestant Denominations	26,852	12,469
Presbyterian	254,938	181,120
Protestants (Unsectarian or Sect not specified)	73,909	82,180
Quaker	1,036	1,245
Roman Catholic	1,823,079	1,490,863
Salvationist	38,922	52,467
South India United Church	65,747	..
Syrian, Chaldean	1,926	13,780
Syrian, Jacobite	252,989	225,190
Syrian, Nestorian	97	..
Syrian, Reformed	112,017	75,840
Syrian, Romo-Syrian	423,963	413,142
Syrian—Unspecified	559	344
Sect not	75,904	17,954

AGE AND SEX.

The figures of the total population of India are not tabulated by annual age-periods but the table below gives the age distribution of 10,000 males and females in the Indian population:

Age-group.	1921.		1911.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
0-5	1,202	1,316	1,327	1,433
5-10	1,471	1,494	1,383	1,383
10-15	1,245	1,081	1,105	997
15-20	842	915	848	826
20-25	775	831	822	980
25-30	805	835	806	909
30-35	825	933	829	835
35-40	636	565	622	556
40-45	621	621	634	631
45-50	892	346	380	338
50-55	484	438	432	418
55-60	185	168	177	184
60-65	266	298	257	305
65-70	81	79	83	71
70 & over	160	180	145	173
Mean age	24.8	24.7	24.7	24.7

In the whole of British India the infant death-rate amounts to about one-fifth of the total death-rate for all ages and about one-fifth of the children die before the age of one year. The ratios of deaths vary in different provinces the birth-rate being an important factor. Thus they are specially high in the United Provinces and Central Provinces where the birth-rate is high and low in Madras which has a lower general birth-rate. The recorded rates in some of the cities are phenomenally high but may, owing to the defective reporting of births, be somewhat exaggerated.

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in India. Owing to the custom of early marriage co-habitation and child-birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and thus, combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery, seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. Available statistics show that over 40 per cent. of the deaths of infants occur in the first week after birth and over 60 per cent. in the first month. If the child survives the pre-natal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child-birth, it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhoea or dysentery.

Infant mortality in Cities.

Bombay	556
Calcutta	386
Rangoon	308
Madras	282
Karachi	249
Dacca	233

Sex Ratio.—In the whole of India there is an excess of males over females, the figures being 945 females per thousand males. These results being opposed to experience in most other countries of the world have been challenged and attributed to errors in the Indian census. This reasoning is rejected by the Census authorities, who insist that the disparity between the sexes is due to special conditions in the Indian Empire. The sex ratio has fallen in the last twenty years throughout India. The statistics of birth suggest that the proportion of females born to males born has, if anything, declined during this period, and in any case there has been a marked decline in the last five years of the last decade in most provinces. The decline in the proportion of women however is chiefly due to (a) the absence of famine mortality which selects adversely to males and (b) the heavy mortality from plague and influenza which has selected adversely to females.

Marriage.—The subject of polygamy has been discussed fully in the report of 1911. Both Hindus and Muhammadans are allowed more wives than one, Muhammadans being nominally restricted to four. As a matter of practice polygamy is comparatively rare owing to domestic and economic reasons and has little effect on the statistics. The table shows the number of married women per 1,000 married men in India and the main provinces. No definite conclusions however can be drawn from these figures because (1) they probably contain a certain number of widows, divorcees and prostitutes who have wrongly returned as married and (2) it is difficult to gauge the effect of ... or the married in any ... yandry is recognized as a regular institution among some of the tribes of the Himalayas and in parts of south India. It is also practised among many of the lower castes and aboriginal tribes. Its effect is reflected in the statistics of a few small communities such as the Buddhists of Kashmir where the proportion of married women to married men is exceptionally low, but otherwise the custom is of sociological rather than of statistical interest.

Number of married females per 1,000 males.

India	1,008
Assam	970
Bengal	965
Bihar and Orissa	1,034
Bombay	987
Burma	924
C.P. and Berar	1,024
Madras	1,001
Punjab	1,021
United Provinces	1,013

Widows.—The proportion of widows in the populations, viz. 8.4 per cent. does not differ widely from the figure for ... but the ... of widows is strikingly

large. The large number of Indian widows is due partly to the early age of marriage, partly to the disparity in the ages of the husbands and wives but chiefly to the prejudice against the remarriage of widows. The higher castes of Hindus forbid it altogether and, as the custom

is held to be a mark of social respectability many of the more ambitious of the lower castes have adopted it by way of raising their social status, while Muhammadans who are closely brought into touch with their Hindu neighbours are apt to share the prejudice

Proportion of widows in the population per 1,000.

Age.			India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911	Age.			India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911
All ages	175.0	73.2	20—25	71.5	1.5
0—5	7	..	25—35	148.9	18.1
5—10	4.5	..	35—45	325.2	50.5
10—15	16.8	..	45—55	619.4	193.3
15—20	41.4	..	55 and over	834.0	565.9

Early Marriage.—The figures clearly show an increase in the numbers of those in the early age-categories who are still unmarried. The movement is most marked in the Hindu community but is shared by the other religions,

the change being less noticeable among the Buddhist and Christian communities who are not addicted to early marriage. The change is most conspicuous in the age-categories 10 to 15 for women and 10 to 20 for men.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

Literacy.—The number of persons in India literate in the sense of being able to write a letter and read the reply is 22.6 millions, amounting, if children under five years of age are excluded, to 52 in every thousand of the population. Of males 139 in every thousand at age five and above are literate, the corresponding proportion in the case of females being 21.

The Hindus have one literate person in every thirteen; for males the ratio is one in eight and for females one in sixty-three. The proportion of Sikh males who are literate is less than that of Hindus. One Mahomedan male in 11 and one female in 118 can read and write. The low position of Mussalmans is partly due to the fact that in Bengal, the Punjab, North-West Frontier Province and Sind, where they predominate, they are mostly agricultural. Where they are in a minority, as in the Central Provinces, United Provinces and Madras, they are usually town-dwellers and have a considerably higher proportion of literates. The Hindu community embraces every stratum of society and the proportion of literacy is seriously affected by the inclusion of the vast mass of the lower rural classes. Some of the higher Hindu castes have more literate males than the Parsis whilst others are on a level with or even below the aboriginal tribes.

English.—In the whole of India 2.5 million persons or 160 males and 18 females in every ten thousand persons of each sex aged five and over can read and write English.

One in thirty males in Bengal and one in forty-three in Bombay are in

In Madras, Assam and Burma the proportion is 2 per cent. while in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and the United Provinces it is below 1 per cent. Of the States Cochin and Travancore have between 3 and 4 per cent., but in others the proportions are much lower. More than half the number of Parsi males and one-fourth of their females can read and write English. Of Christians nearly all the Europeans and many of the Anglo-Indian are literate in English; but except on the southern coast English literacy is rare among the Indian Christians and the regional proportions therefore largely follow the racial distribution. Though the proportions in the other communities, taken on the total populations, are small, some of the higher castes have a fairly large number of English-knowing members. In Bengal about half of the Baidya males and a quarter of the Brahman and Kayastha males are literate in English, while in Madras more than a quarter of the Tamil Brahmans can claim this accomplishment. Of the Jain in Kathiawar nearly a tenth are literate in English though the Chaturch Jain of Kolhapur, who are cultivators, are less literate than the average of the Presidency. During the decade the number of males knowing English rose by 51 per cent. and that of females by 57 per cent. Among the main Provinces the greatest progress has been made by Bengal, Assam and Bombay and in the States by Cochin, Travancore, Mysore and Baroda.

Languages.—In the whole Indian Empire 223 languages were returned at the census, dialects as has been previously explained not having been considered. The

the population of India in 1901 was 281,000,000. The population of India in 1901 was 281,000,000. The population of India in 1901 was 281,000,000.

Language.	Number of speakers in (000's omitted).		Percentage of increase or decrease.
	1901.	1911.	
Western Hindi ..	96,714	96,041	+ 7
Bengali ..	49,291	48,368	+ 2
Pelugu ..	27,661	23,543	+ 3
Marathi ..	18,798	19,807	- 5
Tamil ..	18,780	18,128	+ 4
Panjabi ..	16,334	15,877	+ 2
Rajasthan ..	12,681	14,068	- 10
Kanarese ..	10,374	10,526	- 1
Oriya ..	10,143	10,162	- 2
Gujarati ..	9,552	9,238	+ 9
Burmese ..	8,528	7,894	+ 7
Malayalam ..	7,498	6,792	+ 10
Lahnda or Western Panjabi ..	5,652	4,779	+ 18

The necessity of a common medium of conversation and intercourse, which has given rise to bi-lingualism and the consequent displace-

ment of the language of the people of India. The population of India in 1901 was 281,000,000. The population of India in 1901 was 281,000,000. The population of India in 1901 was 281,000,000.

Infirmities.—These are classes under four main heads—insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness and leprosy. The number of persons afflicted with these infirmities in 1901 was 860,099. The number of persons afflicted with these infirmities in 1901 was 860,099.

Infirmity.

NUMBER AFFLICTED WITH RATIO PER HUNDRED THOUSAND OF THE POPULATION

	1921.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
Insane	88,805	81,006	66,205	74,279	81,137
Deaf-mutes	28	26	23	27	45
Blind	189,644	199,891	153,168	196,881	197,215
Lepers	80	84	52	75	86
	479,637	443,653	354,104	458,368	526,748
	152	142	121	187	229
	102,513	109,094	97,340	126,244	131,938
	32	35	23	46	57
TOTAL	860,099	833,644	670,317	856,252	937,064
	272	267	229	315	407

There has been a continuous decline in the total number as well as in the proportion of persons recorded as afflicted up to 1901. This fall has been ascribed, partly, to a progressive improvement in the accuracy of the diagnosis and partly, to an actual decrease in the prevalence of the infirmities, owing to the improvement in the material condition of the people to better sanitation and (especially in the case of blindness) to the increasing number of cures effected with the aid of modern medical and surgical science. In the decade ending 1901 the relatively high mortality of the afflicted in the two severe famines must have been a considerable factor in the decline shown at that census, but the method of compilation adopted in 1901 and in the previous was defective and in 1901 y of the

afflicted must have escaped notice in the course of tabulation. Compared with the year 1891 there was a slight decrease in the total number of persons recorded as afflicted in 1911, the proportion per hundred thousand persons falling from 315 to 267. The small increase in the present decade, amounting to 28,455 persons or one per 100,000 may be due to improvement in record and tabulation but is certainly unexpected.

Caste.—The enormous complexity of the caste system makes it impossible to give more than the briefest results here; the curious must be referred to the extensive literature on the subject, and to the whole chain of census reports where it is discussed in various aspects. All we can do here is to give the of the main castes, with a oo with 1911

Caste Variations

25

Variation in certain main castes.

CASTE.	PERSONS.	
	1921	1911
Ahir	9,032,861	9,481,194
Arain	1,119,486	998,222
Babhan	1,167,373	1,264,379
Bagdi	895,397	1,015,738
Baliya	1,042,097	1,041,240
Baliuch	1,324,053	1,334,756
Baniya	2,726,007	2,085,427
Banjara	651,927	866,020
Barhai	939,017	1,033,879
Bhil	1,795,808	1,590,690
Brahman	14,254,991	14,568,472
Burmese	8,370,152	7,643,742
Chamar	11,224,557	11,448,788
Chuhra	1,146,779	1,254,150
Dholi	2,020,531	2,029,495
Dosadh	1,167,686	1,189,274
Fakir	790,714	885,511
Gadaria	1,299,770	1,340,631
Golla	1,416,753	1,515,794
Gond	2,902,592	2,935,598
Gujar	2,179,485	2,195,168
Hajjam	2,905,724	2,972,928
Jat	7,374,817	6,837,655
Johana	2,696,132	2,739,623
Kachhi	1,228,590	1,281,515
Kahar	1,707,223	1,726,548
Kaibartta	2,877,758	2,711,960
Kamma	1,160,994	1,126,095
Kamnalan	1,288,711	1,047,585
Kapu	3,379,328	3,327,179
Karen	1,042,131	1,102,695
Kayastha	2,312,235	2,133,315
Kewat	1,150,427	1,129,799
Koiri	1,580,615	1,726,977
Koli	2,499,014	3,164,968
Kori.. .. .	837,025	900,062
Kumhar	4,353,020	3,423,942
Kumbi	3,194,604	4,512,182
Kurni	3,574,868	3,707,090
Lingayat	2,738,214	2,963,440
Lodha	1,616,662	1,703,556
Lohar	1,546,313	1,517,587
Kamar	779,886	736,431
Madiga	1,687,857	1,920,462
Mahar	3,002,516	3,325,712
Mal	1,986,414	2,087,521
Mali	1,875,610	1,939,869
Mappilla	1,103,385	1,044,557
Maratha	6,566,334	4,972,954
Mochi	923,714	923,426
Namasudra	2,172,823	2,082,547

Variation in certain main castes—

CASTE							1921
Nayar	1 31
Palli	2 80
Paraiyan	2 40
Pasi	1 488
Pathan	3 34
Rajbansi	1 818
Koch	361
Rajput	9 772
Saiyid	1 801
Santal	2 280
Sheikh	33,887
Sindhi	808
Sonar	1 137
Teli or Tili	4,159
Vakkaliga	1 892
Vellala	2 716

There has been much discussion of recent years of the position and numbers of "The Depressed Classes"—a term which has never been accurately defined, but which may be described as the classes outside the pale of Hindu Society. The main figures of the census as between Indians are given below

Province, State or Agency.	European and Allied Races in 1921.			Total European and Allied Races in 1911
	British Subjects.	Others.	Total	
India	163,918	10,139	174,057	197 629
Provinces	148,525	9,124	157,649	178 130
States and Agencies ..	15,393	1,015	16,408	19 509

OCCUPATIONS.

India is essentially an agricultural country and agriculture proper supports 224 millions of persons or 71 per cent. of the population of the Empire. If we add the pastoral and hunting occupations the percentage rises to 73, while a considerable proportion of the unfortunately large number of persons in the category of vague and unclassifiable occupations are probably labourers closely connected with the occupations of the land. Industries support 10 per cent. of the population, but the bulk of these are engaged in unorganised industries connected with the supply of and the simple hand

Organized industries of the people. In track which less than 6 per cent. respectively, depend and are connected with the kinds of agricultural production and protection of the 4,825,479 persons, or 1½ per cent. of the population, and the remaining domestic, miscellaneous occupations. Though the agriculture predominates there is no room for doubt that in some form or other

In spite of the trade of Calcutta and the numerous industrial and mining concerns of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the population of the Eastern provinces is overwhelmingly agricultural and contains a higher percentage of persons supported by the land than any other tract of India. Of industrial workers the largest proportions in the local population are in the Punjab, the United Provinces and Bombay. Of these three provinces, however, agriculture dominates the economic life of the first two, where the industrial occupations, though they engage a substantial number of persons, are mostly of the cottage industry type. In Bombay the development of organized industry is of some economic importance, but is at present largely confined to a few of the biggest cities. In the category of unclassified occupations the majority of persons are labourers whose particular form of labour is unspecified and the rest mostly unspecified clerks.

Compared with 1911 the agriculturists have increased a little faster than the total population, though fishermen and hunters are fewer. Miners have risen in number with the recent expansion of the industry. Industries have substantially decreased and of the principal forms of industry the textile workers have dropped considerably, as also have potters and workers in wood and metal. An increase under transport by rail is countered by a drop under transport by road. Trade has increased, trade in textiles showing a slight rise and trade in food a slight drop. The number employed in public administration is practically stationary, but the army has risen while the police has fallen heavily. Law and medicine have gained at the expense of religion, and though instruction has spread letters have fallen. Rentiers are fewer and domestic servants as many Beggars and vagrants, the raw material of crime and disease, have decreased but criminals, the finished article, have risen in numbers.

Occupation or means of livelihood.

Occupation.	Number of persons supported.
INDIA	316,055,231
Pasture and agriculture	229,045,019
Fishing and hunting	1,607,331
Mines, quarries, salt, etc.	542,033
Industry	33,167,018
Textiles	7,547,829
Dress and toilet	7,425,213
Wood	3,613,583
Food industries	3,100,361
Ceramics	2,215,041
Building industries	1,753,720
Metals	1,502,208
Chemicals, etc.	1,194,268
Hides, skins, etc.	731,124
Other industries	3,483,676
Transport (including postal, telegraph and telephone services)	4,031,054
Trade	13,114,622
Hotels, cafes, etc., and other trade in foodstuffs	6,968,933
Trade in textiles	1,286,377
Banks, exchange, insurance, etc.	903,492
Other trades	5,845,870
Army and Navy	757,954
Air force	1,032
Police	1,422,610
Public administration	2,643,882
Professions and liberal arts	5,020,571
Religion	2,457,614
Instruction	805,228
Medicine	659,533
Others	1,088,146
Domestic Service	4,570,151
All others	14,831,023

NOTE.

population was not

for 2,68,249

Collieries. Of a total of 288 the number supported by collieries is 10, and a large number of workers. The most important coal mines lie in the provinces of Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. The Jherma coal-field in Manbhum, the importance of which is due to its accessibility and the superior quality of its coal, alone produces over fifty per cent of the total annual output of coal in India. According to the Industrial census the total population employed in the coal mines of Manbhum was 82,619, of whom 347 were managers, 1,519 belonged to the supervising and technical staff and 1,482 to the clerical staff, while 32,843 were skilled and 46,428 unskilled workers.

Textiles—Cotton.—Of the industries the textile industries are by far the most important; the number of persons occupied in industries connected with cotton being returned as 5,872,000 or just three-quarters of the whole number of those supported by textile industries.

The bulk of the organized establishments are in the western tracts, where the large cities owe a considerable portion of their prosperity to the development of the textile industries and the cotton-growing country is covered with mechanically worked gins and presses for the preliminary treatment of the raw material. Of the 2,037 establishments connected with cotton manufacture, employing in all 484,000 persons, no less than 737 establishments, with 277,000 employees or 61 per cent. of the personnel, belong to the western Presidency and its States.

Jute.—The spinning, pressing and weaving of jute support a population of 498,090, as compared with 382,869 ten years ago. There are a few mills and presses in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, and Madras, but the industry is practically confined to Bengal.

Nature of Ownership.—Of the total number of 15,606 establishments 677 are owned by Government, 9,292 by registered companies and 11,037 by private persons. The Government owned concerns are mostly railway and engineering workshops and other concerns such as brick and tile factories connected with the construction of roads and building and printing presses. The tea and rubber plantations are mostly the property of companies. Out of the 792 tea plantations in Assam 632 belong to companies. On the other hand the coffee plantations of Madras, which are much smaller concerns than the tea gardens are mostly privately owned, only 23 out of 127 belonging to companies in Madras and 10 out of 242 in Mysore. The collieries are mostly company-owned, but of the 42 manganese mines of the Central Provinces half are owned by companies and half by private persons. Of the 392 cotton ginning mills in Bombay 333 are private owned, but of the cotton weaving mills 129 out of 345 are owned by companies. Similarly the jute presses are mostly private, while 60 out of the 62 jute mills of Bengal are company owned. Practically all the printing presses are private concerns, and so are a large number of the general workshops and such concerns like flour and rice mills and brick and tile works, which are mostly on a small scale. Companies own the majority of the tea gardens of

Assam and Benarsh and the dyehouses of Indian people growing in the private ventures. Indigo in Bihar and Orissa, coffee in Madras and rubber in Travancore are mostly in European hands but the coffee plantations of Mysore are largely owned by Indians. Most of the large collieries of Bengal are held by European companies, but 67 out of the 73 private concerns belong to Indians. The cotton industry of Western India is almost entirely Indian; while the jute mills of Bengal are in European hands though the small presses are mostly owned by Indians. The rice and flour mills and the brick and tile factories, with the exception of a few large concerns, are in the hands of Indians.

Women as Workers.—The adult women (unskilled) number 508 per 1,000 adult men and the proportion of the children of both sexes under 11 years old is 140 per 1,000 adults. By far the majority of women labourers, 328 out of 540 thousand, are on the plantations where their proportion per 100 men is as high as 94, the children being 100 per 1,000 adults. Women and children are also numerous in the textile and mining industries and in the former there are 408 adult women (unskilled) per 1,000 men and in the latter 521. Nearly 30 per cent of the women employed in textile industries are recorded as skilled. About 61 per cent. of the total number of children employed in organized industries are boys and the girls almost equal the boys on the plantations and in the mines and form about one-fifth of the child labour in the textile industries. In the larger industries (30 persons and above) both female and child labour has dropped since 1911 the proportion of women (unskilled) being 515 now against 561 in 1911 per 1,000 men and the proportion of children per 1,000 adults 141 against 191 in 1911. The figures vary curiously in different industries and suggest that they are not altogether trustworthy. Women have increased in the plantations and textiles and declined in the mines. Children have decreased in the plantations and textiles and increased in the mines. Both women and children find considerable employment in the establishments connected with glass, pottery, cement and building and to a less extent in those of food and dress.

Occupation of Europeans.—Of the 103,405 male Europeans, 63,538 belong in some capacity to the category of Public Force, i.e. the Army, Navy, Air Force and Police; over 9,000 to Transport, i.e., largely railway officials and about 6,000 to Public Administration, 4,500 to Mines and Industries; 5,900 to professions; 4,600 to trade, while there are about 1,200 imperfect entries, a number which together with the known deficiency in the census of Europeans generally somewhat detracts from the value of the details. The abnormal constitution of the foreign European population is exhibited by the small number of dependants etc., 62,000, as against 111,000 workers, whereas the number of Anglo-Indian dependants is just about double the number of their workers. Nearly one-third of the Anglo-Indian males are employed in the chief and the subordinate clerks and upper subordinates

Manners and Customs.

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn by their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form a Hindu's dress consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Mahomedan always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Hill men and women, who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear to-day within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the houses of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in his pictures and images.

Dress.—The next stage in the evolution of the Hindu dress brings the loincloth nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, as in Burma, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of India, they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior, or one end is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder, or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt. When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves: the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puckered from the wrist to the elbow. Before Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Mahomedan prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon, if allowed. The greatest variety is shown in the head-dress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans, may be seen in the city of Bombay. In the Punjab and the United

Provinces, in Burma and in Madras, cones and cylinders, pyramids, high and low, angles: folded brims, strips of cloth wound up in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the "parrot's beak" or the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Mahomedan or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations.—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fisherman may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a watch in his pocket; yet, as he must work for long hours in water, he would not cover his legs, but suspend only a coloured cloth from his waist in front. The cool north-west affects once baggy

trousers, a tall head-dress befitting his stature and covers his ears with its folds as if to keep off cold. The poorer people in Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable. Many well-to-do Indians wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes, notably the Indian Christians and Parsis. Most Parsis however have retained their own head-dress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs. The majority of the people do not use shoes: those who can afford them wear sandals slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots to tar the European fashion in public.

Women's Costumes.—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist, with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of India women wear a bodice: on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats or drawers, or both are worn. Many Mussalman ladies wear gowns and scarfs over them. The vast majority of Mahomedan women are *qosha* and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public: a few converts from Hinduism have not borrowed the custom. In Northern India Hindu women have generally adopted the Mussalman practice of seclusion. In the Dekhan and in Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed and parted in the middle of the head, plaited and rolled into a chignon, by most women. Among high caste Hindu widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not, as a rule, completely shave their heads, Mahomedans in most cases do. The former generally remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temples, and near the neck, and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many keep the hair cropped in the European fashion, which is also followed by Parsis and Indian Christians. Most Mussalmans grow beards, most Hindus do not, except in Bengal and elsewhere, where the Mahomedan influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow Hindu ascetics, known as *Shivis*, and generally coil the uncombed hair of the head into a crest, an imitation of the god Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than others of the corresponding grade in society. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers, the waist—until motherhood is attained, and by some even later—and the toes. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads, and flowers, like the lotus the rose, and the champaka, are among the most common objects of representation in gold or silver.

Caste Marks.—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus, especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. It may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot, and as Lakshmi is the goddess of prosperity, it is said to represent her. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of U or V, generally with the central line, sometimes without it, and represents Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the ves with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay. To smear the arms and the chest with sandalwood paste is a favourite kind of ornament especially in the hot season. Beads of tulsi or sacred Basil, and berries of Rudraksha *laucarpus ganitrus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shaivas, respectively. The Lingayats, a Shaiva sect, suspend from their necks a metallic casket containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Sauras, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha osaries round their necks and matted hair, smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, as also to deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chignon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms, and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. The choice of the same colour for different purposes cannot always be explained in the same way. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may be a substitute for the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. In many other cases this colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikh Akali is fond of blue, the Saivyas adopt orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned with any degree of certainty.

Shiva.—India is a land of temples, mosques and shrines, and the Hindu finds at every turn some supernatural power to be appeased. Shiva has the largest number of worshippers. He has three eyes, one in his forehead, a moon's crescent in his matted hair, and at the top of his head a woman's face representing the river Ganges. His abode is the Mount Kailas in the Himalayas, from which the river takes its source. Round his neck and about his ears and limbs are serpents, and he also wears a necklace of skulls. In his hands are several weapons, especially a trident, a bow, and a thunderbolt, and also a drum which he sounds while dancing for he is very fond of this exercise. He sits on a tiger's skin, and his feet are on a white bull. His wife is seated on his thigh. An

ing is attached to every part of his physical personality. The three eyes denote an insight into the past, present and future; the moon the serpents, and the skulls denote months, years and cycles, for Shiva is a personification of time, the great destroyer. He is also worshipped as a Linga or phallus which represents creative energy.

Ganpati.—Ganesh or Ganpati, the controller of all powers of evil subject to Shiva is worshipped by all sects throughout India. Every undertaking is begun with a prayer to him. He has the head of an elephant, a large abdomen, serpents about his waist and wrists, several weapons in his hands, and a piece of his tusk in one hand. He is said to have broken it off when he wanted to attack the moon for ridiculing him. The different parts of his body are also esoterically explained. His vehicle is a rat.

Parvati.—Parvati, the female energy of Shiva, is worshipped under various names and forms. She is at the head of all female supernatural powers, many of whom are her own manifestations. Some are benign and beautiful, others terrible and ugly. Kali, the tutelary deity of Calcutta or Calcutta, is one of her fierce manifestations. In this form she is black: a tongue smeared with blood projects from her gaping mouth: besides her weapons she carries corpses in her hands, and round her neck are skulls. Bombay also takes its name from a goddess, Kumbadevi. Gouri, to whom offerings are made in Indian homes at an annual festival, is benign. On the other hand the epidemic diseases like the plague and small-pox are caused by certain goddesses or "mothers."

Vishnu, the second member of the Hindu trinity, is the most popular deity next to Shiva. He is worshipped through his several incarnations as well as his original personality. His home is the ocean of milk, where he reclines on the coils of a huge, many-headed serpent. At his feet sits Lakshmi, shampooing his legs. From his navel issues a lotus, on which is seated Brahma, the third member of the trinity. In his hands are the conch, which he blows on the battlefield, and the disc, with which the heads of his enemies are severed. Round his neck are garlands of leaves and flowers, and on his breast are shining jewels. As Shiva represents destruction, Vishnu represents protection, and his son is the god of love. To carry on the work of protection, he incarnates himself from time to time, and more temples are dedicated nowadays to his most popular incarnations Rama and Krishna, than to his original personality. Rama is a human figure, with a bow in one of his hands. He is always accompanied by his wife Sita, often by his brother Lakshmana, and at his feet, or standing before him with joined hands, is Hanuman, the monkey chieftain, who assisted him in his expedition against Ravana, the abductor of his wife. Krishna is also a human figure, generally represented as playing on a flute, with which he charmed the damsels of his city, esoterically explained to mean his devotees.

is worshipped only a couple of to him have yet been in all India.

My Duties.—The gods and goddesses, the deified heroes and heroines who constitute a local reputation, and are worshipped. Some of them, though not mentioned in ancient literature, are celebrated in the works of modern saints.

The Jains in their temples, adore the sacred personages who founded and developed their sect, and venerate some of the deities common to Hinduism. But their view of Divinity is different from the Hindu conception, and in the opinion of Hindu theologians they are atheists. So also the Buddhists of Burma pay almost the same veneration to Prince Siddhartha as if he was a god, and indeed elevate him above the Hindu gods, but from the Hindu standpoint they are also atheists.

Images.—Besides invisible powers and deified persons, the Hindus venerate certain animals, trees and inanimate objects. This veneration must have originated in gratitude, fear, wonder, and belief in spirits as the cause of all good or harm. Some of the animals are vehicles of certain gods and goddesses—the eagle of Vishnu; the swan of Brahma; the peacock of Saraswati; Hanuman, the monkey of Rama; one serpent upholds the earth, another makes Vishnu's bed; elephants support the ends of the universe. Besides one such animal being Indra's vehicle: the goddess Durga or Kali rides on a tiger; one of Vishnu's incarnations was partly man and partly lion. The cow is a useful animal: to the Brahman vegetarian her milk is indispensable, and he treats her as his mother. So did the Rishi of old who often subsisted on milk and fruits and roots. To the agriculturist cattle are indispensable. The snake excites fear. Stones, on which the image of a serpent is carved, may be

seen under many trees by the roadside. The principal trees and plants worshipped are the Sacred Fig or Pipal, the Banyan, the Sacred Basil, the Bulva or Wood Apple, the Asoka, and the Acacia. They are in one way or another associated with some deity. The sun, the moon, and certain planets are among the heavenly bodies venerated. The ocean and certain great rivers are held sacred. Certain mountains, perhaps because they are the abodes of gods and Rishis, are holy. Pebbles from the Gendaki and the Narmada, which have curious lines upon them, are worshipped in many households and temples.

Worship.—Without going into a temple, one can get a fair idea of image worship by seeing how a serpent-stone is treated under a tree. It is washed, smeared with sandal, decorated with flowers: food in a vessel is placed before it, lamps are waved, and the worshipper goes round it, and bows down his head, or prostrates himself before the image. In a temple larger bells are used than the small ones that are brought to such a place: jewels are placed on the idol: and the offerings are on a larger scale. Idols are carried in public procession in palanquins or cars. The lower classes sacrifice animals before their gods and goddesses.

Domestic Life.—Of the daily domestic life of the people a tourist cannot see much. He may see a marriage or funeral procession. In the former he may notice how a bridegroom or bride is decorated: the latter may shock him, for a Hindu dead body is generally carried on a few pieces of bamboo lashed together; a thin cloth is thrown over it and the body is tied to the frame. The Mahomedan bier is more decent, and resembles the Christian coffin. Some Hindus, however, carry the dead to the burial ground in a palanquin with great pomp. The higher castes cremate the dead: others bury them. Burial is also the custom of the Muslims, and the Parsis expose the dead in Towers of Silence.

Indian Names.

The personal name of most Hindus denotes a material object, colour, or quality, an animal, a relationship, or a duty. The uneducated man who cannot correctly pronounce long Sanskrit words, is content to call his child, father, brother, uncle, or mother, or sister, as the case may be. This practice survives among the higher classes as well. Appa Sahib, Anna Rao, Babaji, Bapu Lal, Bhal Shankar, Tatcharya, Jijibhai, are names of this description, with honorific titles added. It is possible that in early society the belief in the re-birth of departed kinsmen lent popularity to this practice. Nothing could be more natural than to call a man white, black, or red: gold or silver: gem, diamond, ruby, pearl, or merely a stone: small or tall, weak or strong: a lion, a snake, or a dog and to
after a flower or a
Then, to
take a few from the epics, Pandu

white, and so does Arjuna: Krishna black Bhima terrible: Nakula a mongoose; Shunaka a dog: Shuka a parrot: Shringa a horn. Among the names prevalent at the present day Hira is a diamond: Ratna or Ratan a jewel: Sonu or Chinna gold: Veli or Belli, in the Dravid languages, means white metal or silver. Men are often called after the days of the week on which they were born, and hence they bear the names of the seven heavenly bodies concerned. When they begin to assume the names of the Hindu deities, they practically enter upon a new stage of civilisation. It is doubtful whether the Animists ever venture to assume the names of the dreaded spirits worshipped by them. To pronounce the name of a devil is to invite him to do harm. If the spirits bear the of human beings, the so be that they were

High caste practices. The high as Hindu, on the other hand, believes that the more often the name of a deity is on his lips, the more merit he earns. Therefore he deliberately names his children after his gods and goddesses, so that he may have the opportunity of pronouncing the holy names as frequently as possible. These are also sonorous and picturesque. Shiva is happy; Vishnu is a pervader; Govinda is the cowherd; Krishna; Keshava has fine hair; Rama is a delighter; Lakshmana is lucky; Narayana produced the first living being on the primeval waters; Ganesha is the Lord of Shiva's hosts; Dinakara is the luminary that makes the day; Subrahmanya is a brother of Ganesha. Sita is a furrow; Sakti a ray of light; Tara a star; Radha prosperity; Rukmini is she of golden ornaments; Bhama of the glowing heart. Shiva and Vishnu has each got at least a thousand names, and they may be freely drawn upon and paraphrased in naming one's children; and the whole Hindu pantheon is as crowded as it is large. When a mother loses several children, she begins to suspect that some evil spirit has conspired against her and in order to make her off-spring unattractive to the powers of darkness, she gives them ugly names, such as Keri, rubbish, or Ukirda, dunghill, or Martoba, the mortal. Women are named after rivers, as Sarasvati, Ganga, Bhagirathi, Godavari, or Kaveri, just as men are sometimes called after mountains. Manu counsels young men not to choose a wife with such a name, perhaps because a river is an emblem of deviousness and inconstancy, as a hill is an emblem of stability. But the names of rivers have not been discarded. The Burmans have a curious custom: if a child is born on a Monday, its name must begin with a guttural, on Tuesday with a palatal, on Thursday with a labial, on Saturday with a dental.

Family names.—When a person rises in importance, he adds to his personal name a family or caste name. It was once the rule that the title Sharma might be added to a Brahman's name, Varma to a Kshatriya's, Gupta to a Vaishya's, and Dasa to a Shudra's. This rule is fairly well observed in the case of the first two titles, but the meaning of the other two has changed. Dasa means a slave or servant, and the proudest Brahman cannot disdain to call himself the servant of some god. Thus, although Kalidas, the famous poet, was a Shudra, Ramadas, the famous guru of Shivaji, was a Brahmin. The Vaishnavas have made this fashion of calling oneself a servant of some god exceedingly popular, and in Western India high caste Hindus of this sect very commonly add Das to their names. The Brahmaus of Southern India add Aiyer or Aiyangar to their names. Shastri, Acharya, Bhat, Bhattacharya, Upadhyaya, Mukhopadhyaya, changed in Bengal into Mukerji, are among the titles indicative of the Brahmanical profession of studying and teaching the sacred books. Among warlike classes, like the Rajputs and Sikhs, the title Singh (lion) has become more popular than the ancient Varma. The Sindhi Mal, as in Gudmal, means brave and has the same force. Raja changed into Raza, Rao and Rai was a political title, and is not to any caste. The family like Bose and Ghose

Dutt and Mitra and Guha, enable one to identify the name of their ancestors. The caste of a family or clan cannot be changed. Shet, chief of a guild or a town, becomes 'Chetty,' a Vaishya title, in Southern India. Mudaliyar and Nayudu, meaning leaders, are titles which were assumed by castes of political importance under native rulers. Nayar and Menon are the titles of important castes in Malabar. Ram, Lal, Nand, Chand, are among the additions made to personal names in Northern India. Suffixes like Ji, as in Ramji or Jamsheджи, the Kannarese Appa, the Telugu Gannu, the feminine Bai or Devi, are honorific. Prefixes like Babu, Baba, Lala, Sodha, Pandit, Raja, and the Burmese Maung are also honorific.

Professional names.—Family names sometimes denote a profession: in some cases they might have been conferred by the old rulers. Mehta, Kulkarni, Deshpande, Chitnavis, Mahanavis are the names of offices held in former times. One family name may mean a flour seller, another a cane-seller, and a third a liquor-seller. To insert the father's name between one's personal and the family name is a common practice in Western India. It is rare elsewhere. When a family comes from a certain place, the suffix 'kar' or 'wallah' is added to the name of the place and it makes a family surname in Western India. Thus we may have Chiplunkars and Surewallahs or without these affixes we may have Bhavnagris, Malabaris and Bihmorias, as among Parsis. Thus Vasudev Pandurang Chiplunkar would be a Hindu, whose personal name is Vasudev's father's name Pandurang, and family name derived from the village of Chiplun, is Chiplunkar. In Southern India the village name precedes the personal name. The evolution of Musalman names follows the same lines as Hindu names. But Muslims have no god or goddesses, and their names are derived from their religious and secular history. These names and titles are often as long and picturesque as Hindu names. Bakhsh, Din, Kazi, Mushi, Sheikh, and others, as well as honours, have meanings which denote customs and institutions. The Parsis also have no gods and goddesses, and their personal names are generally borrowed from their sacred and secular history. Their surnames frequently indicate a profession or a place as in the case of Hindus in Western India. Bath wallah, Readymoney, Contractor, Saklatwallah, Adenwallah and others like them are tell tale names.

Conversions.—As a rule, a child is named soon after it is born, and in the case of males the appellation is not changed. The higher Hindu castes have a separate ceremony called the name-giving ceremony performed on the twelfth day after birth. When a girl is married in these castes, the husband's family give her a new personal name. When a boy is invested with the sacred thread and is made a twice born, his name is not changed, but when a man joins an order of ascetics, his lay name is dropped, and he assumes a new name. So also when a Burman joins an order of monks or nuns, the lay name is dropped and a Buddhist name is given. Converts change their original names when they are

Indian Art.

has never been so marked as between what are now known as handicrafts and those applied to industry in Europe during the nineteenth century. However, Industrial art forms a special article in this book, and Art will here be confined to sculpture and painting.

The degree of proficiency attained by Indians prior to B. C. 250, as evidenced by their advancement and by the indirect evidences shown by the works of the period to those which preceded them; and the artistic work of an earlier period, B. C. 250 do not exist. The chief characteristics of architecture are as follows:—

Dates.	Locality of the best Examples.
B. C. 250—	Ellora, Ajanta, Kailash.
A. D. 750.	Sanchi.
D. 1000—	Ellora, Mount Abu, Palitana.
D. 500 to the present day	Ellora, Elephanta, Orissa, Bhuvaneshwar, Dharwar.
D. 1000—	Umbur, Somnathpur, Ballur.
D. 1350—	Ellora, Tanjore, Madurai, Tinnevely.
D. 1200—	Delhi, Mandu, Jaunpore.
A. D. 1520—	Lahore, Delhi, Agra, Amboor, Bijapur.
1760	

Architecture is mainly exemplified in temples and monasteries found in India and in the *Topes* or sacred interior decorations, and exterior the former and the rails and railing the latter point unmistakably derived from wooden structure of earlier period. The characteristic of the temples are horse-shoe openings to admit light, and columns with richly ornamented capitals. In Jaina Architecture is found a well-developed form in the Dilwara at Mount Abu. The ground plan of a shrine for the god or saint: a walled courtyard with niches and a portico is characteristic of the style. The whole interior, executed with care and detail. Constructional details that original types in wood are used in marble.

Chalukyan and Dravidian temples in essential plan, all having a god preceded by pillared porches. The forms vary. The northern temples have a curved pyramidal roof, which in the southern ones are crowned by a horizontal tiered towers, and each story, decorated with a central high relief. The Chalukyan temples are named after the king who founded them. The great Trimurti in the Hoysaleswara temple is named after the deity.

losing its own special characteristics of which the star-shaped plan of the shrine, with the five fold bands of external ornament, is the principal feature. Pathan Architecture was introduced into India by the Mahomedan invasion of the thirteenth century. At old Delhi are fine examples in the Kutub Mosque and Minar. The characteristics of the style are severity of outline, which is sometimes combined with elaborate decoration due, it is stated, to the employment of Hindu craftsmen. The mosques and tombs at Ahmedabad already show Hindu influence: but purer examples are to be found at Jaunpore and Mandu. Indo-Saracenic Architecture reached the climax of its development during the reigns of the Moghul Emperors Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. It eclipsed in richness of material and refinement of taste the building efforts of previous periods, its crowning example being the Taj Mahal at Agra. The buildings erected during the Adil Shahi dynasty at Bijapur at a slightly later date exhibit a certain Turkish influence, especially in the great tomb of Mahmoud. Though less refined and lacking the attraction of precious materials in their decoration, these splendid edifices are held in higher esteem by some critics than those of the Moghals, on account of their simplicity, grandeur and fine proportions. The era of great civil architecture in India was revived by the Mahomedan powers. Splendid palaces and fortresses were built at Madras, Delhi, Agra, Fattahpore-Sikri and Bijapur, and the example thus set was copied by the Hindu princes at Jaipur, Udaipur and elsewhere in India. The application of great architectural treatment, unequalled in extent elsewhere, is to be seen in the Ghats or steps enclosing lakes and on the banks of rivers. The most notable constructional contribution of the Mahomedans to Indian architecture was the introduction of the true arch and dome.

Sculpture.—The use of sculpture and painting in isolated works of art was practically non-existent in India until modern times. One or two reliefs and certain gigantic figures may be quoted as exceptions, but taken generally it may be stated that these arts were employed as the decorative adjuncts of architecture. No civil statuary, such as is now understood by the term, was executed; for no contemporary portrait figures, or busts in marble, or bronze, have come down to us from the ruins of ancient India, as they have from those of Egypt, Greece and Rome. Sculpture has been used exclusively as the handmaid of religion, and to this fact may be attributed the stereotyped forms to which it became bound. The lavish use of sculpture on Indian temples often exceeds good taste, and mars the symmetry and dignity of their mass and outline; but for exuberance of imagination, industrious elaboration and vivid expression of movement Indian sculpture is perhaps without its equal elsewhere in the world. The most impressive are the earliest, found in the Buddhas of Gandhara. The great Trimurti in the Hoysaleswara temple is named after the deity.

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characteristics of Hindu sculpture are the power displayed in suggesting movement; the fine sense of decorative arrangements of line and mass, and an overpowering ingenuity in intricate design. Mahomedan sculpture in India, though not exclusively confined to geometric forms as is that of the more severe Arabian school, is very restrained as compared with that of the Hindus. Floral motifs are often used in the ornaments to tombs and palaces, but rarely in those of mosques. Their geometric ornament shows great ingenuity and invention; and wonderful decorative use is made of Persian, Arabic and Urdu lettering in panels, and their borders. The representation of human or animal figures is rarely to be met with. Sculptured and modelled relief is, as a rule, kept very low; and is mainly confined to the decoration of moldings, architraves, lintels, or the bands of ornament which relieve large exterior wall spaces. Buildings of purely Mahomedan design and workmanship show greater restraint than those upon which Hindu workmen have been employed and are more satisfactory; but at Ahmedabad the two celebrated windows are striking examples of a happy combination of the two styles.

Painting.—Much of the carved stonework upon ancient Indian buildings was first plastered and then decorated with colour, but the only paintings, in the modern acceptation of the term, now existing, which were executed prior to the Moghul period, are those upon the walls of the cave temples at Ajanta. These remarkable works were produced at intervals during the first 600 years of the Christian era. They exhibit all the finer characteristics of the best Indian sculpture, but with an added freedom of expression due to the more tractable vehicle employed. They remained hidden in the Deccan jungles for nearly twelve hundred years, until accidentally discovered in 1816. They are painted in a species of fresco; and when first brought to light were well preserved, but they have greatly deteriorated owing to the well meant, but misguided action of copyists, and the neglect of the authorities. Their origin is as wrapped in mystery as is that of the artists who painted them; for no other paintings of similar power and character are known to exist; and the artists, so far as is known, left no successors. Nine hundred years elapsed between the completion of the Ajanta paintings and the commencement of the second period of Indian painting. This owed its origin to the introduction of Persian artists by the Moghul Emperor Akbar; and the establishment of the indigenous Moghul school was due to the encouragement and fostering care of his successors, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. Unlike the works of the Ajanta painters, which were designed upon a large scale, the pictures of the Moghul school were miniatures. They were executed in a species of opaque water-colour upon paper or vellum, resembling in technique the illuminated missals produced by the monks in Europe during the middle ages. Some of the finest of the early specimens in India are of a religious character, this phase of development being closely allied to the a

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notable for assumed but extremely accurate drawing, keen insight into character, harmonious colour, fine decorative feeling, and extraordinary delicacy and finish in the painting of detail. The artists of a Hindu off-shoot of this movement, known as the Rajput school, were less fully endowed with the technical and purely aesthetic qualities than were the Moghul painters; but they brought to their work poetry and sentiment which are not to be found in that of the Mahomedans. The pictures of both branches of the Moghul school although highly decorative in character, were not intended for exhibition upon the walls of rooms, according to Western practice, and, when not used as illustrations or decorations to manuscript books were preserved in portfolios. As this school of painting was the last expression of traditional art in India, in the restricted sense here applied to the term, and, as the question has a distinct bearing upon the modern development of painting, a few words may be added regarding the difference between the conventions followed by Eastern and Western painters. Until the middle of the fourteenth century the conventions of both East and West were practically the same, though the use of them differed according to environment and national temperament. These conventions the artists of the East have retained; and development has been upon the line of decorative fitness, harmony of colour, and expressive action. Their art has throughout been decorative, and when natural objects have been depicted, their treatment has been that of a flat pattern. The European painters, after the period above mentioned on the contrary, sought to attain the appearance of actuality in the objects depicted by the study of the science of light and shade and perspective; and in achieving this end, and developing it into the realisation of atmosphere and light, they sacrificed a large measure of the decorative quality which characterised the work of the earlier school. Eastern artists have ignored or been blind to light and shade and in works entirely free from European influence one will look in vain for any suggestion of it in their figures or for shadows of objects cast upon the ground. During the last fifty years there has been a strong movement toward a return to decorative conventions, on the part of European artists who have assimilated much that the East has to teach them, without thereby affecting the distinctively Western character of their work. Indian and Japanese artists have been less successful when attempting the reverse of this practice, and appear to lose whatever is best in their traditional practice, without acquiring the finer qualities of that of the West.

Modern Painting.—As the reign of Shah Jahan exhibits the high tide of artistic development in India, so the reign of his successor Aurangzeb marks the period of its rapid decline. The causes of this are attributable to the absence of encouragement by this Emperor to his long periods of absence from the court at Delhi or Agra, entailed by the continuous wars he waged in his efforts to bring the whole of the empire under his rule, and partly to the tendency strongly to the Indian artist

to become a stereotyped in his practice. A foreign designers, painters and craftsmen who had been attracted to India by the great works carried out by Akbar, Jehangir and Shah-Jahan left the country, and their places were taken by no successors. The indigenous artists left to themselves in the isolated courts of small Indian princes, or collected in schools in remote districts, employed themselves mainly upon repeating the works of a previous age, instead of seeking new motifs for artistic treatment. So purely mechanical did the work become that in some of the schools or guilds of painters, the execution of a single picture was subdivided; one craftsman painting the face, a second the drapery, and a third the background. Such methods could only lead to deterioration and decay. At the time when the British East India Company ceased to be only a guild of merchants and became a great administrative power in 1757, very little vitality survived in the ancient art of the country. During the century of its administrative history between the battle of Plassey and the Indian Mutiny, the "Company" was too fully occupied in fighting for its existence, extending its borders and settling the internal economy of its ever increasing territories, to be able to give much attention to conserving any remnant of artistic practice which had survived. Without any deliberate intention of introducing western art into the country, Greek and its derivative styles of architecture were adopted for public and private buildings in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras because these were found to be more suitable for their purpose than buildings of indigenous pattern. The practical result was the same: for the Indian craftsmen employed upon their erection were confronted with styles affording no scope for the application of their traditional ornament and concerning which they had no knowledge or sympathy. As there were no sculptors in India capable of modelling or carving civil sculpture, the monuments to distinguish public servants were all imported from England; and the portraits, or other paintings which decorated the interior walls of the buildings, were furnished by European painters who visited India or by artists in England. Although a considerable amount of research work of a voluntary nature was done by Archaeologists, no official interest was taken in artistic education until the Government of India was transferred to the British Crown in 1858. In England itself, the first fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of gross commercialism and artistic degradation; but with the advent of the International Exhibition of 1851 the eyes of the nation were opened to the value of art as applied to industry.

The Schools of Art then instituted throughout England were imitated in a timid and tentative manner in India and were attached to the educational system, which had been previously modelled upon a definitely European basis. These schools of art, it should be remembered, were specially established to assist the artistic industries of the country, and not to provide instruction in architecture, sculpture and painting. In fact at a subsequent period they narrowly escaped extinction by the Secretary of State upon the ground that they had become a waste of money and had thus

been a detriment to the progress of the nation for which they were established. The work of the Schools of Art in regard to industrial art is referred to elsewhere; and as two of them, that at Madras and that at Lahore, have confined their activities almost exclusively to this branch of the subject it is necessary to mention only the work of the Schools at Calcutta and Bombay in the present article. The Calcutta school, except for occasional experiments in the application of the graphic arts to lithography, engraving and stained glass, has become a school of painting and drawing. That at Bombay covers a wider field: for in addition to classes for modelling, painting and design it possesses a special school of architecture; a range of technical workshops, in which instruction is given in the applied arts, and research laboratories and studios devoted solely to the improvement of the Pottery industry. It is in the principles underlying the instruction in painting that the schools at Calcutta and Bombay have taken almost diametrically opposite roads to reach the end they both have in view namely, the revival of the art of painting in India by means of the "revival of Indian painters." Mr. ... years ago was the President of the School banished from within its walls every vestige of European art; and claimed that the traditional art of India, in its old forms, is not dead, but merely sleeping or smothered by the blanket of European culture laid upon it for the last 150 years, and needed but to be released from this incubus to regain its pristine vigour. Well equipped with literary ability; backed by intense enthusiasm for the views he held, which he advocated with admirable persistence he imposed upon his students an exclusive and severe study of the Moghul and Rajput schools of painting. He was fortunate in finding a willing and equally enthusiastic disciple in Mr. Abanindranath Tagore, an artist of fine imagination and fancy, endowed with technical ability of a high order, combined with a serious devotion to his art. He with other Bengal painters, inspired by Mr. Havell's precepts, founded, about fifteen years ago, what has since become known as the Calcutta School of painting. In their early work the painters of this school closely adhered to the conventions of Moghul and Rajput artists, whom they took as their models; and these early examples made a great impression upon all European critics who saw them. They were welcomed as the first sign of a genuine revival of Indian painting based upon traditional lines, and it was confidently hoped that the movement would meet with the support it merited from Indians of all classes. Interesting as many individual works of the school are, the anticipations which have scarcely been fulfilled by the school. The painters themselves have never reached the high technical standard of the artists who produced the best works of the Moghul or Rajput school, and, as time has passed, their outlook appears to have shifted, and, while stemming the flood of western influence, they appear to have drifted into a backwater of Japanese conventions. The Indian public has failed to give the school the support it was hoped they would afford and has thus had to depend upon the

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Bombay School of Art.—The attitude towards the development of art in modern India taken by Mr. Cecil Burns, who long guided the policy of the Bombay school, was diametrically opposite to that favoured by Mr. Ravell. He yielding to no one in his admiration for the ancient art of India, and giving every encouragement to his students to study its masterpieces, the view he takes is that with European culture dominating the system under which educated classes in India are trained; with European ideas, and science permeating the professional, commercial, industrial, and social life of the country, it is not possible for modern Indians now to recapture the spirit which alone gave vitality to the great works of the past; that without this spirit, the conceptions the ancient artists adopted are mere dead husks; and that to copy these would be as profitable as it would be for the artists of the present to harness themselves to the conventions of the Greek and Roman sculptors or to those of the mediæval painters; that with European pictures, often of inferior quality illustrating every educational text book, and sold in the shops of every large city, it is essential for the proper education of art students that they should see before them the masterpieces of European art, and that, with the wide adoption of European styles of architecture in India, it is necessary for a school of art to possess the best examples of ornament applicable to the various historic styles, for the purpose of study and reference. There are certain basic principles common to the technique of all great art, such as proportion and accurate drawing in its widest sense, composition and design, and the science of colour harmony. By means of these an artist can express his individuality and emotions, and Mr. Burns held that the main function of a school of Art is to equip its students with the power of expression, untrammelled by any set conventions, so that when they leave the school, they do so with the capacity to employ their faculties in any direction their sympathies and tastes may impel them to take. Which of the two very divergent theories will produce the best result both these gentlemen unite in wishing to see brought to pass, time alone will show. It is that the driving force of any artistic impulse must come from within the nation, and that India, like every other country, in its art as in other matters, must work out its own salvation.

One striking success of hopeful augury has been achieved by the Bombay School in recent years. This is the establishment of a flourishing school of architecture in which the study of Indian architecture takes an important place.

Connected with this school is a students' architectural association designed to keep past students in touch with the school and with one another. As architecture embraces and influences every branch of decorative and industrial art, it is to be hoped that this school may be the means whereby the ancient glories of Indian architecture will be some day revived in new forms, bringing in its train a vitalising influence upon every other form of artistic activity.

Mural Painting.—Mr. W. E. Gladstone Solomon, the present Principal, has studiously avoided any dogmatic theories as to the ultimate end which Indian art is destined to attain, though he has consistently pointed out the Indian's pre-eminence in the decoration of wall spaces. The guiding principle with Mr. Solomon has been to teach the students to draw and to paint what they see; and further to encourage by all possible means their natural progress in the direction towards which their inherent instinct most obviously urges them. He has always maintained that theory in regard to the training of Indian Art students is in itself unproductive and can only be proven by practice; and as Mr. Solomon has now held the post of Principal for several years it is possible to gauge the results achieved by his system of training. The Life Classes which were started at the end of 1919 have recently been pronounced by competent judges as well up to the level of the Life Classes of the European Schools of Art. But proficiency in technique forms only one side of the present system of training; for even in Europe, too much of the study from Life is quite capable of negating its own object. In India, where the decorative instinct is inherent, and where the possibilities of freehand drawing are still understood, the danger of overdoing the Life Class is even more palpable. So side by side with these realistic aids to study, and at the same period, a Class of Indian Decorative Painting was inaugurated in the Bombay School of Art. As this class specialises in Mural Painting, it has long been popularly known as the Class of Mural Painting. This class has executed the decorations for many public and private buildings, and painted the ceiling and panels of a specially constructed Indian Room which was exhibited at Wembley in 1924. A great deal of controversy, which has been characterised by its academic rather than its practical note, has centred round these new movements in art training in India; but the Bombay School of Art has retained the patronage and support of the public, and the increase in the numbers of its students has been large and continuous since it took its present hue. It is significant that the widespread revival of public interest in Art in Western India has synchronised with these activities.

Indian Architecture.

I. ANCIENT.

The architecture of India has proceeded on lines of its own, and its monuments are unique among those of the nations of the world. An natural bent on the part of religious fervour of the than of the fanatical sort, combined with the richness of the country in the sterner building materials—these are a few of the factors that contributed to making it what it was, while a stirring history gave it both variety and glamour. Indian architecture is a subject which at the best has been studied only imperfectly, and a really comprehensive treatise on it has yet to be written. The subject is a vast and varied one, and it may be such a treatise never will be written in the form of one work at any rate. The spirit of Indian art is so foreign to the European of art culture that it is only one European in a hundred who can entirely understand it, while art criticism and analysis is a branch of study that the modern Indian has not as yet ventured upon to any appreciable extent. Hitherto the one, and with a few exceptions the only recognized authority on the subject has been Fergusson, whose compendious work is that which will find most ready acceptance by the general reader. But Fergusson attempted the nearly impossible task of covering the ground in one volume of moderate dimensions, and it is sometimes held that he was a man of too purely European a culture, albeit wide and eclectic, to admit of sufficient depth of insight in this particular direction. Fergusson's classification by races and religions is, however, the one that has been generally accepted hitherto. He asserts that there is no stone architecture in India of an earlier date than two and a half centuries before the Christian era, and that "India owes the introduction of the use of stone for architectural purposes, as she does that of Buddhism as a state religion, to the great Asoka, who reigned B.C. 272 to 236."

Buddhist Work.

Fergusson's first architectural period is then the Buddhist, of which the great tope at Sanchi with its famous Northern gateway is perhaps the most noted example. Then we have the Gandharan topes and monasteries. Perhaps the examples of Buddhist architecture of greatest interest and most ready access to the general student are to be found in the Chaitya halls or rock-cut caves of Karli, Ajunta, Nasik, Ellora and Kanheri. A point with relation to the Gandhara work may be alluded to in passing. This is the strong European tendency, variously recognized as Roman, Byzantine but most frequently as Greek, to be observed in the details. The plage seen in the capitals of columns bears strong resemblance to the Greek acanthus, while the sculptures have a distinct trace of Greek influence, particularly in the treatment of drapery, but also of hair and facial expression. From this it has been a fairly common assumption amongst some authorities that Indian art owed much of its best to European influence, on that is strenuously combated by those as will be pointed out later.

The architecture of the Jains comes next in order. Of this rich and beautiful style the most noted examples are perhaps the Dilwara temples near Mount Abu, and the unique "Tower of Victory" at Chittore.

Other Hindu Styles.

The Dravidian style is the generic title usually applied to the characteristic work of the Madras Presidency and the South of India. It is seen in many rock-cut temples as at Ellora, where the remarkable "Kylas" is an instance of a temple cut out of the solid rock, complete, not only with respect to its interior (as in the case of mere caves) but also as to its exterior. It is, as it were, a life-size model of a complete building or group of buildings, several hundred feet in length, not built, but sculptured in solid stone, an undertaking of vast and, to our modern ideas, unprofitable industry. The Pagoda of Tanjore, the temples at Srirangam, Chidambaram, Vellore, Vijayanagar, &c., and the palaces at Madura and Tanjore are among the best known examples of the style.

The writer finds some difficulty in following Fergusson's two next divisions of classification, the "Chalukyan" of South-central India, and the "Northern or Indo-Aryan style." The differences and the similarities are apparently so intermixed and confusing that he is fain to fall back on the broad generic title of "Hindu"—however unscientific he may thereby stand confessed. Amongst a vast number of Hindu temples the following may be mentioned as particularly worthy of study:—Those at Mukteswara and Bhuvaneswar in Orissa at Khajuraho, Bindraban, Udaipur, Benares, Gwalior, &c. The palace of the Hindu Raja Man Singh at Gwalior is one of the most beautiful architectural examples in India. So also are the palaces of Amber, Datliya, Ureha, Dig and Udaipur.

Indo-Saracenic.

Among all the periods and styles in India the characteristics of none are more easily recognizable than those of what is generally called the "Indo-Saracenic" which developed after the Mahomedan conquest. Under the new influences now brought to bear on it the architecture of India took on a fresh lease of activity and underwent remarkable modifications. The dome, not entirely an unknown feature hitherto, became a special object of development, while the arch, at no time a favourite constructional form of the Hindu builders, was now forced on their attention by the predilections of the ruling class. The minaret also became a distinctive feature. The requirements of the new religion,—the mosque with its wide spaces to meet the needs of organized congregational acts of worship—gave opportunities for broad and spacious treatments that had hitherto been to some extent denied. The Moslem hatred of idolatry set a taboo on the use of sculptured representations of deities in the adornment of the buildings, and led to the develop-

of other decorative forms. Great ingenuity came to be displayed in the use of pattern and of geometrical and foliated ornament. This Moslem trait further turned the attention of the builders to a greater extent than before to proportion, scale and mass as means of giving beauty, mere richness of sculptured surface and the aesthetic and symbolic interest of detail being no longer to be depended on to the same degree.

The art was thus the gainer by the new conditions. It gained in power and variety much as "Classic" architecture gained under the Romans. But it equally lost something too. The Indo-Saracenic is apt to appear cold and hard. The writer was impressed by this on his first view of the Gwalior palace already mentioned. Though a Hindu building that palace has yet much of what might be called the more sophisticated quality of the Indo-Saracenic work as well as some similarity of detail. It has, being Hindu, a certain amount of sculptured ornament of animated forms, and the general effect of roundness, richness and interest thereby imparted seemed eloquent in suggestion as to what is lacking in so many of the Mahometan buildings.

Foreign Influence.

There would appear to be a conflict between archaeologists as to the extent of the effect on Indian art produced by foreign influence under the Mahometans. The extreme view on the one hand is to regard all the best of the art as having been due to foreign importation. The Gandharan sculptures with their Greek tendency, the development of new forms and modes of treatment to which allusion has been made, the similarities to be found between the Mahometan buildings of India and those of North Africa and Europe, the introduction of the minaret and, above all, the historical evidences that exist of the presence in India of Europeans during Mogul times, are cited in support of the theory. On the other hand those of the opposite school hold the foregoing view to be due to the prevailing European preconception that all light and leading must come by way of Europe, and the best things in art by way of Greece. To them the Gandharan sculpture, instead of being the best, is the worst in India even because of its Greek tincture. They find in the truly indigenous work beauties and significances not to be seen in the Græco-Bactrian sculptures, and point to those of Borobudur in Java, the work of Buddhist colonists from India, wonderfully preserved by reason of an immunity from destructive influences given by the insular position, as showing the best examples of the art extant. It is probable that a just estimate of the merits of the controversy, with respect to sculpture at any rate, cannot be formed till time has obliterated some of the differences of taste that exist between East and West.

To the adherents of the newer school the undisputed similarities between Indo-Mahometan and Hindu buildings outweigh those between Indian and Western Mahometan work especially in the light of the dissimilarity between the latter. They admit the influence produced by the advent of Islam but contend that the art, though modified

yet remained in its essence what it had always been, indigenous Indian. The minaret, the dome, the arch, they contended, though developed under the Moslem influence, were yet so far as their detailed treatment and craftsmanship are concerned, rendered in a manner distinctively Indian. Fergusson is usually regarded as the leader of the former school, while the latter and comparatively recent school has at present found an eager champion in Mr. E. B. Havell, whose works, on the subject are recommended for study side by side with those of the former writer. Mr. Havell practically discards Fergusson's racial method of classification into styles in favour of a chronological review of what he regards to a greater extent than did Fergusson as being one continuous mode or architectural subject to variations from one to bear upon it and from the varied purposes to which it was applied.

Agra and Delhi.

Agra and Delhi may be regarded as the principal centres of the Indo-Saracenic style—the former for the renowned Taj Mahal for Akbar's deserted capital of Fatehpur Sikri, his tomb at Secundra, the Moti Masjid and palace buildings at the Agra fort. At Delhi we have the great Jumma Masjid, the Fort the tombs of Humayun, Sukkar Jung, &c., and the unique Quth Minar. Two other great centres may be mentioned, because in each there appeared certain strongly marked individualities that differentiated the varieties of the style there found from the variety seen at Delhi and Agra, as well as that of one from that of the other. These are Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Bijapur on the Dekhan, both in the Bombay Presidency.

Ahmedabad.

At Ahmedabad with its neighbours Sirkhej and Champanir there seems to be less of a departure from the older Hindu forms, a tendency to adhere to the lintel and bracket rather than to have recourse to the arch, while the dome though constantly employed, was there never developed to its full extent as elsewhere, or carried to its logical structural conclusion. The Ahmedabad work is probably most famous for the extraordinary beauty of its stone "jali"—or pierced lattice-work, as in the palm tree windows of the Sidi Sayyid Masjid.

Bijapur.

The characteristics of the Bijapur variety of the style are equally striking. They are perhaps more distinctively Mahometan than those of the Ahmedabad buildings in that here the dome is developed to a remarkable degree. Indeed the tomb of Mahmud—the well-known "Gol Gumbaz"—is cited as shewing the greatest space of floor in any building in the world roofed by a single dome, not even excepting the Pantheon. The lintel also was here practically discarded in favour of the arch. The Bijapur style shows a bold masculine quality and a largeness of structural conception that is unequalled elsewhere in India though in and it does not attempt to rival the work of the North. In this we recognise among other

that the prevailing material the hard un-
compromising Dekhan basalt. In a slim a
manner the characteristics of the Ahmedabad
work with its greater richness of ornamentation
are bound up with the nature of the Gujarat
freestone, while at Delhi and Agra the freer

choice of a more available local material
and white sandstones combined with access
to marble and other more costly materials—
was no doubt largely responsible for the many
easily recognizable characteristics of the archi-
tecture of these centres.

II. MODERN.

The modern architectural work of India
divides itself sharply into two classes. There
is first that of the indigenous Indian "Master-
builder" to be found chiefly in the Native
States, particularly those in Rajputana.
Second there is that of British India, or of
all those parts of the peninsula wherever
Western ideas and methods have most strongly
spread their influence, chiefly, in the case of
architecture, through the medium of the De-
partment of Public Works. The work of that
department has been much undervalued
upon as being all that building should not be,
but considering it has been produced by men
of whom it was admittedly not the metier, and
who were necessarily contending with lack of
expert training on the one hand and with de-
partmental methods on the other, it must be
conceded that it can show many notable build-
ings. Of recent years there has been a tend-
ency on the part of professional architects
to turn their attention to India, and a number
of these have even been drafted into the service
of Government as the result of a policy ini-
tiated in Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. In time,
therefore, and with the growth of the influence
of these men, such of the reproach against
the building of the British in India as was just
and was not merely thoughtlessly maintained
as a corollary to the popular jepe against every-
thing official, may gradually be removed. If
this is so as to Government work progress should
be even more assured in the freer atmosphere
outside of official life. Already in certain of
the greater cities, where the trained modern
architect has established himself, in private
practice, there are signs that his influence is
beginning to be felt. He still complains, how-
ever, that the general public of India needs
much educating up to a recognition of his
value, both in a pecuniary sense and other-
wise. It is also to be observed that the sur-
vival of a relic of the popular idea of the time
before his advent, to the effect that though
an architect might occasionally "design"
a building it was always an engineer who built
it, is still indicated by the architect in some
cases deeming it advisable to style himself
architect and engineer."

assumed some years ago the form of a mild
controversy centring round the question of the
then much discussed project of the Government
of India's new capital at Delhi. It was urged
that this project should be utilised to give the
required impetus to Indian art rather than
that it should be made a means of fostering
European art which needed no such encourage-
ment at India's expense. The advocates of
this view appear for the most part to have been
adherents of the "indigenous Indian" school
of archaeologists already mentioned, and to
have based their ideas on their own reading of
the past. They still muster a considerable
following not only amongst the artistic public
of England and India, but even within the
Government services. Their opponents, holding
what appears to be the more official view both
as to archaeology and art, have pointed to the
"death" of all the arts of the past in other
countries as an indication of a natural law, and
deprecate as waste of energy all efforts to resist
this law, or to institute what they have termed
"another futile revival." The British in India,
they contend, should do as did the ancient
Romans in every country on which they planted
their conquering foot. As those were wont to
replace indigenous art with that of Rome, so
should we set our seal of conquest permanently
on India by the erection of examples of the best
of British art. This is the view which, as we have
indicated, appears to have obtained for the
moment the more influential hearing, and the
task of designing and directing the construction
of the principal buildings in the new Capital has
accordingly been entrusted jointly to a London
and to a South African architect, neither of
whom can be unduly influenced by either past
or recent architectural practice so far as India
is concerned.

But this controversy, however vital to
the interests of the country's architecture, is
too purely technical and academic for its merits
to be estimated by the general reader or dis-
cussed here. Its chief claim on our attention
lies in the fact that it affords an added interest
to the tourist, who may see the fruits of both
schools of thought in the various modern build-
ings of British India as well as examples of the
"master builders" work in nearly every native
town and bazaar. The town of Lashkar in
Gwalior State may be cited as peculiarly rich
in instances of picturesque modern Indian
street architecture, while at Jaipur, Udaipur,
Benares, etc., this class of work may be studied
in many different forms both civil and religious.
The extent to which the "unbroken tradition
from the past" exists may there be gauged
by the traveller who is architect and engineer for
the

To the work of the indigenous "master-
builder" public attention has of recent years
been drawn with some insistence, and the sug-
gestion has been pressed that efforts should be
directed towards devising means for the pre-
servation of what is pointed out—and now
universally acknowledged—to be a remarkable
survival—almost the only one left in the world—
of "living art," but which is threatened with
gradual extinction by reason of the spread of
W. Kloss and The

Industrial Arts.

The ancient industrial arts of India formed two distinct groups. The first included those allied to, and dependent upon, architecture; the second comprise those applied to articles devoted to religious ritual; military weapons and trappings, domestic accessories; and to personal adornment.

The articles of the first group were intended for some fixed and definite position, and the style of their design and the character of their workmanship were dictated by that of the building with which they were incorporated. Those of the second group were movable, and the range of their design was less constricted and their workmanship was more varied. Examples of work in both groups are so numerous and the arts comprise such a diversity of application, that only a cursory survey can be attempted within the limits of a short review. Although the design and treatment differ in the two groups, the materials used were often the same. These materials cover a very wide range but space only permits of reference to work applied to the four materials upon which the Indian craftsman's skill has been most extensively displayed. These are stone, wood, metal and textiles.

Before dealing separately with each of these materials a few words upon the principal Indian styles are necessary. The two distinctive styles are Hindu and Mahomedan. The former may be termed indigenous, dating as it does from remote antiquity; the latter was a variation of the great Arabian style, which was brought into India in the fourteenth century, and has since developed features essentially Indian in character. The art of both Hindus and Mahomedans is based upon religion and the requirements of religious ritual. The obvious expression of this is shown in the different motifs used for their ornament. In Hindu art all natural forms are accepted and employed for decorative purposes; but in that of the Mahomedans, nearly all natural forms are rejected and forbidden. The basis of Mahomedan decoration is therefore mainly geometrical. In each of them, racial characteristics are strikingly exhibited. The keynote of Hindu work is exuberance, imagination and poetry; that of Mahomedan, reticence, intellect and good taste. The Hindus are lavish, and often indiscriminating in their employment of ornament; the Mahomedans use more restraint. In fact the two styles may be compared, without straining the analogy, to the Gothic and classic styles in Europe. In both styles the fecundity of ideas and invention in design are marvellous, and the craftsmanship often reaches a very high standard. Hindu art had been subjected throughout the ages to many foreign influences, but the artistic instincts of the people have proved so conservative that, whether these alien ideas came from the east or the west, they have been absorbed, and are now stamped with a definite Indian character. Recognition of this fact alone should relieve the anxiety of those critics who fear that the penetration of Western art and
into India at the
present time will rob
the art of

Stone Work.—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration employed in Hindu temples. In variety and scope it ranges from the massive figures in the Buddhist and Brahminical Cave Temples, and the detached sculpture of the temples of Southern India, to the delicately incised reliefs and elaborately fretted ornament of the Jain temples at Mount Abu. A curious fact in relation to Hindu work is that priority of date appears to have no relation to artistic development. It is not possible to trace as in the case of Greek, Roman and Medieval craftwork, the regular progressive steps from art in its primitive state to its culminating point and its subsequent decay. Styles in India seem to spring into existence fully developed; the earlier examples often exhibiting finer craftsmanship than those of a later date. There can be little doubt that stone carving in India was simply the application of the wood carvers' art to another material. The treatment of stone by the Hindu craftsmen, even in the constructive principles of their buildings, bears a closer resemblance to the practice of the wood-worker than to that of the stone mason. The earlier wooden examples from which the stone buildings and their decorations were derived have long since disappeared, but their influence is apparent. The keynote of Hindu design is rhythmic rather than symmetrical, that of their craftsmanship, vigour rather than refinement. In the carving of the human figure and of animals great power of expressing action is shown, and this spontaneous feeling is preserved despite the greatest elaboration and detail. The industry displayed is amazing; no amount of labour appears to have daunted the Hindu craftsmen in carrying out their huge and intricate schemes of decoration.

The stone carving on Mahomedan buildings except where Hindu carvers have been allowed a free hand, is much more restrained than that on Hindu temples. The fact that geometrical forms were almost exclusively used, dictated lower relief and greater refinement in the carving; while the innate good taste of the designers prompted them to concentrate the ornament upon certain prominent features, where its effect was heightened by the simplicity of the rest of the building. The invention displayed in working out geometrical patterns for work screens, inlay, and other ornamental details appears to be inexhaustible; while wonderful decorative use has been made of Arabic and Persian lettering in panels and their framing. To obtain a rich effect the Hindus relied upon the play of light and shade upon broken surfaces, the Mahomedans to attain the same end used precious materials; veneering the surfaces of their buildings with polished marble which they decorated with patterns of mosaic composed of jade, agate, onyx and other costly stones. Although the art of inlaying and working in hard stones was of Italian origin, it proved to be so eminently suited to the genius of the Indian craftsman; and many wonderful examples of their skill in the form of book rests, tables, and sword handles, are extant to show the height of proficiency they attained. The art of precious

stones by Indian jewellers may here be referred to. Sir George Birdwood states that "the Indian jeweller thinks of producing the sumptuous, imposing effect of dazzling variety of rich and brilliant colours and nothing of the purity of his gems." This is true in a general sense and "full many a gem of purest ray serene" was utterly ruined by crude cutting and piercing. But although as early as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries diamonds and precious stones from the Indian mines were taken to Europe to be cut, many of the finest jewels found their way back to the treasure houses of Indian princes.

Wood Work.—With a fine range of timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has played a great part in the construction and decoration of Indian buildings. Unfortunately, most of the ancient wood work has been destroyed by the action of the climate and the teeming insectivorous life of India; and that which escaped these enemies was wiped out by fire and the sword. It is therefore only possible to conjecture the height of artistic development these buildings and their decorations displayed by the copies in stone which have been preserved. Few if any examples of a date earlier than the sixteenth century are to be found. Many of these and specimens of a later date to be seen in towns and cities throughout the country, are masterpieces of design and craftsmanship. The carved timber fronts and inner courtyards of houses in Ahmedabad, Nasik, and other parts of Western India are notable for their picturesqueness and beauty—the structural beams, the overhanging balconies, with their screens and supporting brackets, being carved in a manner which unites richness of effect with good taste and propriety. Of furniture, as the term is now understood, few examples were in use in India before Europeans introduced their own fashions. These were confined to small tables and stools, book rests, clothes chests and screens, the designs of which conformed somewhat closely to the architectural style of the period. Many of these were decorated with inlays of coloured woods, ivory and metal; while in some cases the wooden basis was entirely plated with copper, brass or silver. In Southern India, where close grained sandalwood is grown, jewel cases and boxes are enriched with carving executed with the attention to detail and the finish generally associated with the carving of ivory. Coloured lac was freely used to decorate many articles of furniture, especially those turned on the lathe; and rich colour effects were obtained in this, perhaps the most distinctive and typically Indian development of decoration as applied to woodwork.

Metal Work.—With the exception of weaving, the metal working industry employed and still employs the greatest number of artistic craftsmen in India. Copper and brass have always been the two metals most widely used for domestic purposes by Mahomedans and Hindus. The shapes of many of these humble vessels are among the most beautiful to be found in the country. They exhibit that sense of variety and touch of personality which are only given by the work of the human hand; and the shapes are those which grow naturally from the working of the material with the simplest

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brass and copper Indian craftsmen have shown a taste and skill unsurpassed by those of other nations, except in the department of fine casting. In this, and in the working of gold and silver, a higher standard of technical and constructive exactness has been reached by the metal workers of Europe and Japan. It may be taken as an axiom that the more beautiful the shape of an article is, and thus especially applies to metal work, the less need exists for the decoration of its surface. It is equally true that the highest test of craftsmanship is the production of a perfect article without any decoration. The reason being that the slightest technical fault is apparent on a plain surface, but can be hidden or disguised of one which is covered with ornament. The goldsmiths and silversmiths of India were extremely skilful and industrious, but judged by this test their works often exhibit a lack of care and exactness in the structural portion and a completely satisfactory example of perfectly plain work from the hands of the gold and silversmiths of India is rarely to be met with. Much of the excessive and often inappropriate ornamentation of the articles that they produced owed its application as much to the necessity of hiding defective construction as it did to any purely decorative purpose. For many generations, ornaments of gold and silver were regarded in the light of portable wealth—a practice which naturally made for massiveness. These solid ornaments are most effective and picturesque; and, despite an enormous outpour of elaborate and delicate work from their hands, the most valuable contribution of the Indian metal workers to the sum total of man's artistic use of the precious metals will probably be found to lie in a certain barbaric note which distinguishes these pieces—a note not present in the craft work of other countries. In the design of Hindu gold and silver ornaments religious symbols have been extensively used. The ornaments which bedeck the early sculptured figures, and those depicted in the paintings at the Cave Temples of Ajanta are precisely the same in design and use as similar articles made at the present time, thus affording a striking evidence of the inherent conservatism of the Hindu people and its effect upon an industrial art that makes a closer personal appeal than any other.

Textiles.—The textile industry is the widest in extent in India and is that in which her craftsmen have shown their highest achievements. Other countries, east and west of India have produced work equal, if not superior in stone, wood, and metal; but none has ever matched that of her weavers in cotton and wool, or excelled them in the weaving of silk and fabrics. Some of the products of the looms of Bengal are marvels of technical skill and perfect taste, while the plum blossom quality of the old Cashmere shawls is an artistic achievement which places them in a class by themselves. Weaving being essentially a process of repetition, was the first to which machinery was applied, and modern science has brought power loom weaving to such a state of perfection that filaments of a substance finer even than those of Daeca, which astonished our ancestors are now produced in the mills of Lancashire. But for beauty of surface and variety of texture no machine-made fabrics have ever equaled

the finest handwork of the ancient weavers of India. Many of the most beautiful varieties of Indian textile work have disappeared, killed by the competition of the power loom; and it is to be feared that under modern conditions they are never likely to be revived. In other branches of art as applied to textiles India does not hold so pre-eminent a position as in that of weaving. The printed silks and calicoes of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries deservedly held a high place in the estimation of Western nations, whose craftsmen learnt many valuable lessons from the technical skill, and artistic taste they display. In embroidery and fine needlework the West and the Far East have more than held their own, while nothing approaching the tapestries made in Europe in the middle ages has been produced in India. The nearest approach to these is in carpets and rugs. This art was introduced from Persia; but Indian craftsmen have never succeeded in equalling the finest work of their instructors either in colour or design.

Modern Conditions.—In the foregoing sketch of the ancient industrial art of India, as applied to the four principal materials employed, only a general indication of its more striking characteristics has been possible. A volume would be required to give a detailed description of any one of them, and would leave many other minor arts to be considered. All these branches of art came into existence, were developed and flourished in India when social and economic conditions were vastly different from those of the present day. Like similar artistic crafts carried on in Europe up to the end of the eighteenth century, they were executed by hand labour. The processes involved had not been discovered by scientific inquiry, such as is now understood by the phrase, but were the outcome of generations of slowly built up experience. We now come to the effect upon them of the changed conditions which have revolutionised industrial art in Europe during the last century.

The invention of the steam engine, and the application of mechanical power and scientific research to industry in Europe, mark the dividing line between ancient and modern industrial art. Not only on its technical side is this so, but the effect of these changes has been to alter the character of the work itself and the spirit which animated the craftsmen. In place of the ancient ideal of variety in design and treatment, which meant a limited output, the modern one of uniformity and unlimited output has been substituted. The capitalist has displaced the master craftsman; the organised factory, the small workshop; specialisation and division of labour have taken the place of general proficiency among the artisans; the function of the designer has been separated from that of the craftsman; local markets have been extended to serve the whole world, and the skilled handicraftsman has, in a great measure, become a machine-minder. It took about one hundred years of gradual change for the craftsmen of Europe fully to adjust themselves to these altered conditions; and during the greater portion of that period India protected by the difficulties of transport, continued its immemorial practice. Fifty years ago this was maintained by the

opening of the Suez Canal and the handicraftsmen of India have since been struggling to avoid the same fate which overtook those of Europe half a century before. With less time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions the Indian craftsmen have had to meet the competition of European rivals already fully equipped with new and unknown weapons. Even before this period of intense competition observers interested in Indian craftwork had noticed evidences of its deterioration. The falling off, both in design and workmanship, was attributed to the conservative practice of the craftsmen; to the gradual loss of foreign markets, and to the long period of internal disorder which had deprived them of both the patronage of the rulers of an earlier age and the stimulating contact with foreign craftsmen who had previously been attracted to the splendid courts at Delhi and Agra. During the same period, an even greater degradation in design had overtaken the craftwork of Europe. This was due to entirely different causes namely to the introduction of machinery. Attention had been so concentrated upon speedy production, mechanical accuracy and commercial organisation that beauty of design had been almost entirely neglected. This was so forcibly demonstrated at the International Exhibition of 1851 that efforts were at once made to bring art and industry together once more. Schools of Art and Museums were founded throughout England and the same system was copied in a tentative and timid fashion in India. The function of these institutions was accurately estimated in England, where the artistic industries were already highly organised and were commercially successful, and whose products were to be found in every market of the world. Their business was to assist these industries by training a body of efficient designers capable of furnishing the factories with suitable designs, new or old, and in any style, to satisfy the requirements of customers in any country. It was never supposed for an instant that a School of Art could lead an industry in India their function was as completely misunderstood as were the causes of the depression in Indian craftwork. The schools were not only expected to lead the industries which were living, but to revive those which were moribund, and resurrect those which were dead. In the report of the Indian Industrial Commission the need for some State-aided system of industrial and commercial organisation of the industrial arts with an expanded scheme of technical and artistic instruction for the craftsman has been recognised; and valuable suggestions were made by experts who gave their evidence when the Commission visited the different Provinces. The success of the scheme recommended by the Commission will depend entirely upon the energy with which it is applied, and the practical knowledge and the assistance required by each of the different crafts on the part of those who control it. If in addition, the same financial assistance and encouragement are given by the Imperial and Local Governments to the Indian craftsmen that have been bestowed by their own Government upon the art workers of Japan, industrial art in India will quickly emerge from the cloud of depression which has hung over it for a century past, into the

Archæology.

The ancient monuments of India are as varied as they are numerous. Until a few years ago, the earliest known were the brick and stone erections of the Maurya period, a group of mounds at Lauriya Nandangarh, illustrative of the Vedic funeral customs and assignable roughly to the 7th or 8th century B.C., and some rough stone walls at the ancient city of Rajagriha of about the same period. The absence of structures of an earlier period was then supposed to be due to the fact that all previous architecture has been of wood and had completely perished. The recent excavations, however, at Mohenjodaro, in Sind and at Harappa in the Punjab, have completely revolutionised ideas on this subject and proved that as far back as the 3rd or 4th millennia B.C. and probably much earlier still, India was in possession of a highly developed civilization with large and populous cities, well built houses, temples and public buildings of brick and many other amenities enjoyed at that period by the peoples of Mesopotamia and Egypt. Both at Mohenjodaro and Harappa there are the remains of some 5 or 6 cities superimposed one upon the ruins of another.

The structures that have so far been exposed at Mohenjodaro belong to the three latest cities on the site. Those of the third or earliest are the best in style; those of the first the poorest. Most of the structures are dwelling houses or shops, but there are others which appear to have been temples and one—of particularly name—bath, surrounded by halls. All were built of baked bricks. Most of them were of two or more storeys with staircases giving access to the upper rooms. In and around the ruins have been found many minor antiquities including gold and silver jewellery engraved seals of stone and ivory and paste, copper implements and vessels, terracotta figurines and toys, shell ornaments and potteries both painted and plain.

These discoveries establish the existence in Sind and the Punjab during the 4th and 3rd millennia B.C. of a highly developed city life, and the presence, in many of the houses, of wells and bathrooms as well as an elaborate drainage system betoken a social condition of the citizens at least equal to that found in Sumer and superior to that prevailing in contemporary Babylon and Egypt. The inhabitants of these cities lived largely no doubt by agriculture and it is a point of interest that the specimens of wheat found at Mohenjodaro resemble the common variety grown in the Punjab to-day. Besides bread, their food appears to have included beef, mutton, and pork, the flesh of tortoises, turtles and gharial, fresh fish from the Indus and dried fish from the sea coast. Among their domesticated animals were the humped Indian bull, the buffalo, a short horned bull, the sheep, pig, dog, horse and elephant. Besides gold and silver they used copper, tin, and lead they carried on with the arts of spinning and weaving and with the cultivation of cotton had a high degree

of proficiency in the jeweller's and potter's arts.

That they possessed a well developed system of writing is evidenced by the discovery of over a thousand tablets engraved with well-executed animal devices and pictographic legends in an unknown script. The usual method of disposal of the dead appears to have been to cremate the body and then to bury a part of the burnt bones in large earthen jars or in small brick structures resembling the modern Hindu *samadhis*. Of the long period of more than 2,000 years that separates the pre-historic monuments referred to above from the historic period of India, little or nothing is yet known but there is every hope that this gap in our knowledge may be filled in by further excavations. From the time of the Mauryas, i.e., 3rd century B.C. the history of architecture and the formative arts of India is clear and can be traced with relative precision.

Monumental Pillars.—The monuments, which have come down to us from the Maurya period, include, besides the caves to be referred to below, the wooden palisade (4th century B.C.) which surrounded the ancient city of Patnā (modern Patna), and of which a large section has been exposed, the rock and pillar edicts of Asoka (circa 250 B.C.), the remains of a large pillared hall constructed by the same emperor at Pataliputra, a number of brick stupas and a monolithic rail which originally surmounted an Asoka *stupa* at Sarnath near Benares. Altogether twelve pillars of Asoka are known. Ten of them bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandangarh column in the Champaran District, Tirhut, is practically uninjured. The capital of each column, like the shaft, was monolithic, and comprised three members, viz., a Persepolitan bell, abacus, and crowning sculpture in the round. By far the best capital of Asoka's time was that exhumed at Sarnath near Benares. The four lions standing back to back on the abacus are carved with extraordinary precision and accuracy, and originally supported a wheel symbolizing the law of piety preached by the Buddha. Several pieces of this wheel were found and are now preserved in the Archaeological Museum at Sarnath. Of the post-Asoka period one pillar (B.C. 150) stands to the north-east of Benares in the Oudh State, another in front of the cave of Karli (A.D. 70), and a third at Eran in Central Province belonging to the 6th Century A.D. All these are of stone; but there is one of iron also. It is near the Qutb Minar at Delhi, and an inscription on it speaks of its having been erected by a king called Chandra, identified with Chandragupta II. (A.D. 375-413) of the Gupta dynasty. It is wonderful "to find the Hindus at that age forging a bar of iron larger than any that have been forged even in Europe to a very late date, and not frequently even now." Pillars of later style are found all over the country in the Madras Presidency. No less than twenty exist in the South Kanara A J

egant example faces a Jaina temple at Mudabidri, not far from Mangalore.

Topes.—*Stupas*, known as *dagubas* in Ceylon and commonly called *stupas* in North India, were constructed either for the safe custody of relics hidden in a chamber often near the base or to mark the scene of notable events in Buddhist or Jaina legends. Though we know that the ancient Jains built *stupas*, no specimen of Jaina *stupas* is now extant. A notable structure of this kind which existed until recent times, was the Jaina *stupa* which stood on the Kankali Tila site at Murtara and yielded a large number of Jaina sculptures now deposited in the Provincial Museum at Lucknow. Of those belonging to the Buddhists, the great *Stupa* of Sanchi in Bhagal is the most intact and entire of its class. It consists of a low circular drum supporting a hemispherical dome of less diameter. Round the drum is an open passage for circumambulation, and the whole is enclosed by a massive stone railing with lofty gates facing the cardinal points. The gates are essentially wooden in character, and are carved, inside and out, with elaborate sculptures. The original *stupa*, which was of brick and not more than half the present dimensions, was apparently erected by Asoka at the same time as his lion-crowned pillar near the south gate, but as Sir John Marshall's recent explorations have conclusively shown, its outer casing of stone, the railing and the gateways were at least 150 and 200 years later, respectively. Other famous Buddhist *stupas* that have been found are those of Sarnath, Bharhut between Allahabad and Jubbulpore, Amaravati in the Madras Presidency, and Piprahwa on the Nepalese frontier. The *stupa* proper at Bharhut has entirely disappeared, having been utilised for building villages, and what remained of the rail has been removed to the Calcutta Museum. The bas-reliefs on this rail which contain short inscriptions and thus enable one to identify the scenes sculptured with the *Jatakas* or birth stories of the Buddha give it a unique value. The *stupa* at Amaravati also no longer exists, and portions of its rail, which is unsurpassed in point of elaboration and artistic merit, are now in the British and Madras Museums. The *stupa* at Piprahwa was opened by Mr. W. C. Peppe in 1898, and a steatite or soap-stone reliquary with an inscription on it was unearthed. The inscription, according to many scholars, speaks of the relics being of the Buddha himself and enshrined by his kinsmen, the Sakyas. If this interpretation is correct, we have here one of the *stupas* that were erected over the ashes or Buddha immediately after his demise.

Caves.—Of the rock excavations which are one of the wonders of India, *nine-tenths* belong to Western India. The most important groups of caves are situated in Bhaja, Bedsa, Karh, Kanheri, Junnar, and Nasik in the Bombay Presidency, Ellora and Ajanta in Nizam's Dominions, Barabar and Nagarjuni 16 miles north of Gaya, and Udayagiri and Khandagiri 20 miles from Cuttack in Orissa. The caves belong to the three principal sects into which ancient India was divided, *i.e.*, the Buddhists, Hindus and Jains. The earliest caves so far discovered are those of Barabar and Nagarjuni which were excavated by Asoka and his grand-

son Dasaratha, and dedicated to Ajivikas a naked sect founded by Malinkhali putta Gosala. The next earliest caves are those of Bhaja, Pitalkhora and cave No. 9 at Ajanta and No. 19 at Nasik. They have been assigned to 200 B.C. by Fergusson and Dr. Burgess. But there is good reason to suppose from Sir John Marshall's recent researches and from epigraphic considerations that they are considerably more modern. The Buddhist caves are of two types—the *chaityas* or chapel caves and *viharas* or monasteries for the residence of monks. The first are with vaulted roofs and horse-shoe shaped windows over the entrance and have interiors consisting of a nave and side aisles with a small *stupa* at the inner circular end. They are thus remarkably similar to Christian churches. The second class consist of a hall surrounded by a number of cells. In the later *viharas* there was a sanctum in the centre of the back wall containing a large image of Buddha. Hardly a *chaitya* is found without one or more *mantras* adorning it. Of the Hindu cave temples that at Elephanta near Bombay is perhaps the most frequented. It is dedicated to Siva and is not earlier than the 7th century A.D. But by far the most renowned cave-temple of the Hindus is that known as Kailasa at Ellora. It is on the model of a complete structural temple but carved out of solid rock. It also is dedicated to Siva and was excavated by the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna I, (A. D. 768) who may still be seen in the paintings in the ceiling of the upper porch of the main shrine. Of the Jaina caves the earliest are at Khandagiri and Udayagiri, those of the mediæval type, in Indra Sabha at Ellora; and those of the latest period, at Ankai in Nasik. The ceilings of many of these caves were once adorned with fresco paintings. Perhaps, the best preserved among these are those at Ajanta, which were executed at various periods between 350-650 A.D. and have elicited high praise as works of art. Copies were first made by Major Gill, but most of them perished by fire at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The lost ones were again copied by John Griffiths of the Arts School, Bombay, half of whose work was similarly destroyed by a fire at South Kensington. They were last copied by Lady Herrington during 1900-11. Her pictures, which are in full scale, are at present exhibited at the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington, and have been reproduced in a volume brought out by the India Society.

Gandhara Monuments.—On the north-west frontier of India, anciently known as Gandhara, are found a class of remains, ruined monasteries and buried *stupas*, among which we notice for the first time representations of Buddha and the Buddhist pantheon. The free use of Corinthian capitals, friezes of nude Erotes bearing a long garland, winged Atlantes without number, and a host of individual motifs clearly establish the influence of Hellenistic art. The mound at Peshawar, locally known as Shah-jik-dheri which was explored in 1904, brought to light several interesting sculptures of this school together with a reliquary casket, the most remarkable bronze object of the Gandhara period. The inscription on the casket left no doubt as to the mound being the *stupa* raised over the bones of Buddha by the Indo-Scythians.

han kung Ka hka. They weep and
by Lord Minto's Government of the Buddha
of Burma and are now enshrined at Mandalay.
To about the same age belong the stupas at
Marikyal in the Punjab opened by Ranjit
Singh's French Generals, Ventura and Court,
in 1830. Some of them contained coins of
Kanishka.

Structural Temples.—Of this class the
earliest examples are the Varaha temple at
Deogarh, District Jhansi, another temple at
Sanchi the brick temples at Bhitaragan in the
district of Cawnpore, all of which belong to the
 Gupta period and a later one at Tigowa in the
Central Provinces. In South India we have
two more examples, viz., Lad Khan and Durga
temples at Aihole in Bijapur, the latter of which
cannot be later than the eighth century A.D.
The only common characteristic is flat roofs
without spires of any kind. In other respects
they are entirely different and already here we
mark the beginning of the two styles, Indo-
Aryan and Dravidian, whose differences become
more and more pronounced from the 7th cen-
tury onwards. In the Indo-Aryan style the
most prominent ones tend to the perpendicular,
and in the Dravidian to the horizontal. The
salient feature of the former again is the cur-
vilinear steeple and of the latter, the pyramidal
tower. The most notable examples of the first
kind are to be found among the temples of Shiva-
nagar in Orissa, Khajuraho in Bundelkhand,
Osia in Jodhpur, and Dilwara on Mount Abu.
One of the best known groups in the Dravidian
style is that of the Mamallapuram Rathas, or
'Seven Pagodas,' on the seashore to the south
of Madras. They are each hewn out of a block
of granite, and are rather models of temples
than raths. They are the earliest examples of
typical Dravidian architecture, and belong to
the 7th century. To the same age has to be
assigned the temple of Kailasanath at Conje-
voram, and to the following century some of the
temples at Aihole and Pattadakal of the Bijapur
District, Bombay Presidency, and the mono-
lithic temple of Kailasa at Ellora, referred to
above. Of the later Dravidian style the great
temple at Tanjore and the Srirangam temple
of Trichinopoly are the best examples.

Intermediate between these two main styles
comes the architecture of the Deccan, called
Chalukyan by Fergusson. In this style the
plan becomes polygonal and star-shaped instead
of quadrangular; and the high-storeyed spire
is converted into a low pyramid in which
the horizontal treatment of the Dravidian is
combined with the perpendicular of the Indo-
Aryan. Some fine examples of this type exist
at Dambal, Rattihalli, Tiliwalli and Bangal in
Dharwar, Bombay Presidency, and at Ittagi
and Warangal in Nizam's Dominions. But
it is in Mysore among the temples at Halebidu,
Belur, and Somnathpur that the style is found
in its full perfection.

Inscriptions.—We now come to inscrip-
tions, of which numbers have been brought to
light in India. They have been engraved on
varieties of materials, but principally on stone
and copper. The earliest of these are found
incised in "two distinct kinds of alphabet, known
as B and K. The B was
read from left to right, and from it have been

India. The Khasi h mod n ve na u a s pts o
to et and was a modified form of an ancient
Aramaic alphabet introduced into the Punjab
during the period of the Persian domination
in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to
the 4th century A.D., and was supplanted by
the Brahmi. The earliest dateable inscription
are the celebrated edicts of Asoka to which
reference has been made above. One group of
these has been engraved on rocks, and another
on pillars. They have been found from
Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar
to Nigruva in the Nepal Terai, from Girnar in
Kathiawar to Dhauli in Orissa, from Kalsi in the
Lower Himalayas to Siddapur in Mysore, show-
ing by the way the vast extent of territory held
by him. The reference in his Rock Edicts to
the five contemporary Greek Princes, Antio-
chus II. of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and
so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes
B.C. 269 as the date of his coronation. Hu-
Ramanides pillar inscription, again, discovered
in Nepal Terai, now settles, beyond all doubt,
the birth-place of Buddha which was for long
disputed. Another noteworthy record is the
inscription of the Besnagar pillar. The pillar
had been known for a long time but Sir John
Marshall was the first to notice the inscription
on it. It records the erection of this column
which was a Garuda pillar, in honour of the
god Vasudeva by one Heliodorus, son of Dion
who is described as an envoy of King Antial-
kidas of Taxila. Heliodorus is herein called
a *Bhagavata*, which shows that though a Greek
he had become a Hindu and presumably a
Vaishnava. Another inscription worth notice,
and especially in this connection is that of
Cave No. 10 at Nasik. The donor of this cave
Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka and was
thus an Indo-Scythian, is therein spoken of as
having granted three hundred thousand kins
and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmins
and as having annually fed one hundred thou-
sand Brahmins. Here is another instance of a
foreigner having embraced Hinduism. Thus for
the political, social, economical and religious
history of India at the different periods the
inscriptions are invaluable records, and are the
only light but for which we are 'forlorn and
blind.'

Saracenic Architecture.—This begins in
India with the 13th century after the per-
manent occupation of the Muhammadans.
Their first mosques were constructed of the
materials of Hindu and Jain temples, and some-
times with comparatively slight alterations. The
mosque called *Adhai-din-ka-jhompri* at Ajmer
and that near the Qutb Minar are instances of
this kind. The Muhammadan architecture
of India varied at different periods and under
the various dynasties, imperial and local. The
early Pathan architecture of Delhi was massive
and at the same time was characterised by
elaborate richness of ornamentation. The Qutb
Minar and tombs of Altamash and Ala-ud-din
Kiliji are typical examples. Of the Sharqi
style we have three mosques in Jaunpur with
several tombs. At Mandu in the Dhar State, a
third form of Saracenic architecture sprang up
and we have here the Jami Masjid, 'Bohag'
tomb Jahaz Mahal and Hindola Mahal as
the most notable ones of the secular ar-

ecclesiastical styles of the Malwa Pathans. The Muhammadans of Bengal again developed their own style, and Pandita, Malda, and other towns with the ruins of the buildings of this type, the important of which are the Anna Masjid of Sikandar Shah, the Risshi mosque, Kadam Rasul Masjid, and so forth. The Bahmani dynasty of Gulbarga and Bidar were also great builders, and adorned their capitals with important buildings. The most striking of these is the great mosque of Gulbarga, which differs from all mosques in India in having the whole central area covered over so that what in others would be an open court is here roofed by sixty-three small domes. "Of the various forms which the Saracenic architecture assumed," says Fergusson, "that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant." It is notable for its carved stone work; and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved niches of the minars of many other mosques, the sculptured *Mihrabs* and domed and panelled roofs is so exquisite that it will rival anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindu. In complete contrast with this was the form of architecture employed by the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur. There is here relatively little trace of Hindu forms or details. The principal buildings now left at Bijapur are the Jamu Masjid, Gagan Mahal, Miftar Mahal, Ibrahim Razza and mosque and the Gol Gumbaz. Like their predecessors, the Pathans of Delhi, the Moghuls were a great building race. Their style first began to evolve itself during the reign of Akbar in a combination of Hindu and Muhammadan features. Noteworthy among the emperor's buildings are the tomb of Humayun, and the palaces at Fatehpur Sikri and Agra. Of Jehangir's time his mosque at Lahore and the tomb of Itimad-ud-daula are the most typical structures. "The force and originality of the style gave way under Shah Jahan to a delicate elegance and refinement of detail." And it was during his reign that the most splendid of the Moghul tombs, the Taj Mahal at Agra, the tomb of his wife Mumtaz Mahal, was constructed. The Moti Masjid in Agra Fort is another surpassingly pure and elegant monument of his time.

Archæological Department.—As the archæological monuments of India must attract the attention of all intelligent visitors, they would naturally feel desirous to know something of the Archæological Department. The work of this Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. None but spasmodic efforts appear to have been made by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards

Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The next advance was the initiation of the local surveys in Bombay and Madras three years after. The work of these Surveys, however, was restricted to antiquarian research and description of monuments, and the task of conserving old buildings was left to the pitiful efforts of the local Governments, often without expert guidance or control. It was only in 1878 that the Government of India under Lord Lytton awoke to this deplorable condition, and sanctioned a sum of 3½ lakhs to the repair of monuments in United Provinces, and soon after appointed a conservator Major Cole, who did useful work for three years. Then a reaction set in, and his post and that of the Director-General were abolished. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government, who established the seven Archæological Circles that now obtain, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of a Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of Imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities. Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., Director-General of Archæology, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair and excavation has been prosecuted, and the result of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the scientific excavation of buried sites such as Taxila, Patali putra, Saucy in the Bhopal State, Sarmathi in Burens, and in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab and Mohenjo Daro in Sind. Of all these works those of most general interest are the Mohenjo Daro excavations for here the Archæological Department have unearthed remains of pre-historic cities dating back to 3000 B.C. and further. The Finance Department of the Government of India invited the Legislative Assembly in March 1926, to allocate half a crore of rupees from a non-recurring surplus to form an endowment fund for excavation, so that there should be a regular income of two and a half lakhs of rupees for the purpose. Strong Brahmin opposition was advanced against the proposal and it fell through, but other measures have been taken to ensure that the researches in the Indus Valley shall be pursued in the best possible manner on the revenue grants available. The Secretary of State recently sanctioned the appointment of an eminent Orientalist and explorer to take charge of the Mohenjo Daro excavations. He arrived in India in November, 1926.

Indian Time.

For many years Indian time was in a state of chaotic confusion. What was called Madras or Railway time was kept on all the railways and each great centre of population kept its own local time, which was not based on any common scientific principle and was divorced from the standards of all other countries. It was with a view to remedying this confusion that the Government of India took the matter up in 1904, and addressed to the Local Governments, and through them to all local bodies, a long letter which reviewed the situation and made suggestions for the future. The essential points in this letter are indicated below.

In India we have already a standard time, which is very generally, though by no means universally, recognised. It is the Madras local time, which is kept on all railway and telegraph lines throughout India and which is 5h. 21m. 10s. in advance of Greenwich. Similarly, Rangoon local time is used upon the railways and telegraphs of Burma, and is 6h. 24m. 47s. ahead of Greenwich. But neither of these standards bears a simple and easily remembered relation to Greenwich time.

"The Government of India have several times been addressed by Scientific Societies, both in India and in England, and urged to fall into line with the rest of the civilised world. And now the Royal Society has once more returned to the attack. The Committee of that Society which advises the Government of India upon matters connected with its observatories writes:—The Committee think that a change from Madras time to that corresponding to a longitude exactly 5½ hours east of Greenwich would be an improvement upon the existing arrangements; but that for international scientific purposes the hourly zone system, making the time 5 hours in advance of Greenwich in the west, and 11 hours in advance in the east of India, would be preferable."

"Now if India were connected with Europe by a continuous series of civilised nations with the continuous railway systems all of which had adopted the European hour-zone system, it would be imperative upon India to conform and to adopt the second suggestion. But as she is not, and as she is as much isolated by uncivilised States as Cape Colony is by the ocean, it is open to her to follow the example of that and some other similarly situated colonies and to adopt the first suggestion.

"It is believed that this will be the better solution. There are obvious objections to drawing an arbitrary line right across the richest and most populous portions of India, and so as to bisect all the main lines of communication, and keeping times differing by an hour on opposite sides of that line. India has become accustomed to a uniform standard in the Madras time of the railways, and the substitution for it of a double standard would appear to be a step while it would, in all probability be strongly opposed by the railway

authorities. Moreover, it is very desirable that whatever system is adopted should be followed by all Europeans and Indians alike, and it is certain that the double standard would puzzle the latter greatly; while by emphasising the fact that railway differed from local time it might postpone or even altogether prevent the acceptance of the former instead of the latter by people generally over a large part of India. The one great advantage which the second possesses over the first alternative is, that under the former, the difference between local and standard time can never exceed half an hour whereas under the latter it will even exceed an hour in the extreme cases of Karamiah and Quetta. But this inconvenience is believed to be smaller than that of keeping two different times on the Indian system of railways and telegraphs.

"It is proposed, therefore to put on all the railway and telegraph clocks in India by 3m. 50s. They would then represent a time 5½ hours faster than that of Greenwich, which would be known as Indian Standard Time, and the difference between standard and local time at the places mentioned below would be approximately as follows, the figures representing minutes, and E. and S. meaning that the standard time is in advance of or behind local time respectively:—Dibrugarh 51 S., Shillong 38 S., Calcutta 24 S., Allahabad 2 E., Madras 9 E., Lahore 33 E., Bombay 39 E., Peshawar 44 E., Karachi 62 E., Quetta 62 E.

"Thus standard time would be as much as 4½ and 5½ minutes behind local time at Maudslayi and Rangoon, respectively; and since the railway system of Burma is not connected with that of India, and already keeps a time of its own, namely, Rangoon local time, it is not suggested that Indian Standard Time should be adopted in Burma. It is proposed, however, that instead of using Rangoon Standard Time as at present, which is 6h. 24m. 47s. in advance of Greenwich, a Burma Standard Time should be adopted on all the Burmese railways and telegraphs, which would be one hour in advance of Indian Standard Time, or 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time, and would correspond with 97° 20' E. longitude. The change would bring Burma time into simple relation both with European and with Indian time, and would (among other things) simplify telegraphic communication with other countries.

"Standard time will thus have been fixed for railways and telegraphs for the whole of the Indian Empire. Its general adoption for all purposes, while eminently advisable, is a matter which must be left to the local community in each case."

It is difficult to recall, without a sense of bewilderment, the reception of this proposal by various local bodies. I read now that the same were entertained. Standard Time was adopted is a study in the possibilities of human

error. The Government's measure was adopted to decide whether or not they would adopt it. Calcutta decided to retain its own local time, and to-day Calcutta time is still twenty-four minutes in advance of Standard Time. In Bombay the first reception of the proposal was hostile; but on reconsideration the Chamber of Commerce decided in favour of it and so did the Municipality. Subsequently the opposing element in the Municipality brought in a side resolution, by which the Municipal clocks

were put a Bombay time which is the same as the Standard Time. On 1 January 1906 all the railway and telegraph clocks in India were put at Indian Standard Time; in Burma the Burma Standard Time became universal. Calcutta retains its former Calcutta time; but in Bombay local time is retained only in the clocks which are maintained by the Municipality and in the establishments of some orthodox Hindus. Elsewhere standard time is universal.

TIDAL CONSTANTS.

The approximate standard time of High Water may be found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of High Water at London Bridge, given in the calendar, the correction given as below:—

	H. M.		H. M.
Gibraltar	sub. 0 32	Rangoon River Entrance ..	add 1 35
Malta	add 1 34	Penang	sub. 1 39
Karachi	sub. 2 38	Singapore	;; 3 25
Bombay 1 44	Hongkong	;; 4 27
Goa 2 44	Shanghai	;; 0 34
Point de Galle	add 0 12	Yokohama	add 3 6
Madras	sub. 5 6	Valparaiso	sub. 4 40
Calcutta 0 18	Buenos Ayres	add 4 0
Rangoon Town	add 2 41	Monte Video	;; 0 32

Coinage, Weights and Measures

As the currency of India is based upon the rupee, statements with regard to money are generally expressed in rupees, nor has it been found possible in all cases to add a conversion into sterling. Down to about 1873 the gold value of the rupee (containing 165 grains of pure silver) was approximately equal to 2s., or one-tenth of a £, and for that period it is easy to convert rupees into sterling by striking off the final cipher (Rs. 1,000=£100). But after 1873, owing to the depreciation of silver as compared with gold throughout the world, there came a serious and progressive fall in the exchange, until at one time the gold value of the rupee dropped as low as 1s. In order to provide a remedy for the heavy loss caused to the Government of India in respect of its gold payments to be made in England, and also to relieve foreign trade and finance from the inconvenience due to constant and unforeseen fluctuations in exchange, it was resolved in 1893 to close the mints to the free coinage of silver, and thus force up the value of the rupee by restricting the circulation. The intention was to raise the exchange value of the rupee to 1s. 4d., and then introduce a gold standard at the rate of Rs. 15=£1. From 1899 onwards the value of the rupee was maintained, with insignificant fluctuations, at the proposed rate of 1s. 4d until February 1926 when the recommendation of the Committee appointed in the previous year that the rupee should be linked with gold and not with sterling at 2s. instead of 1s. 4d. was adopted. This was followed by great fluctuations (See article on Currency System).

Notation.—Another matter in connection with the expression of money statements in terms of rupees requires to be explained. The method of numerical notation in India differs from that which prevails throughout Europe. Large numbers are not punctuated in hundreds of thousands and millions, but in lakhs and crores. A **lakh** is one hundred thousand (written out as 1,00,000), and a **crore** is one hundred lakhs or ten millions (written out as 1,00,00,000). Consequently, according to the exchange value of the rupee, a lakh of rupees (Rs. 1,00,000) may be read as the equivalent of £10,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £8,667 after 1899, while a crore of rupees (Rs. 1,00,00,000) may similarly be read as the equivalent of £1,000,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £866,667 after 1899. With the rupee at 1s. 6d. a lakh is equivalent to £7,500 and a crore is equivalent to £75,000.

Coinage.—Finally, it should be mentioned that the rupee is divided into 16 annas, a fraction commonly used for many purposes by both Indians and Europeans. The anna was formerly reckoned as 1/4d., it may now be considered as exactly corresponding to 1d. The anna is again sub-divided into 12 pies.

Weights.—The various systems of weights used in India combine uniformity of scale with im one to the weight of units. The scale used is y thro Northern India, and less in and

Bombay, may be thus expressed one maund=40 seers, one seer=16 chittaks or 80 tolas. The actual weight of a seer varies greatly from district to district, and even from village to village, but in the standard system the tola is 180 grains Troy (the exact weight of the rupee), and the seer thus weighs 2.057 lb., and the maund 32.28 lb. The standard is used in official reports.

Retail.—For calculating retail prices, the universal custom in India is to express them in terms of seers to the rupee. Thus, when prices change what varies is not the amount of money to be paid for the same quantity, but the quantity to be obtained for the same amount of money. In other words, prices in India are quantity prices, not money prices. When the figure of quantity goes up, this of course means that the price has gone down, which is at first sight perplexing to an English reader. It may, however, be mentioned that quantity prices are not altogether unknown in England, especially at small shops where pennyworths of many groceries can be bought. Eggs, likewise, are commonly sold at a varying number for the shilling. If it be desired to convert quantity prices from Indian into English denominations without having recourse to money prices (which would often be misleading), the following scale may be adopted—based upon the assumption that a seer is exactly 2 lb., and that the value of the rupee remains constant at 1s. 4d., 1 seer per rupee=(about) 3 lb. for 2s., 2 seers per rupee=(about) 6 lb. for 2s., and so on.

The name of the unit for square measurement in India generally is the *bagha*, which varies greatly in different parts of the country. But areas have been expressed in this work either in square miles or in acres.

Proposed reforms.—Indian weights and measures have never been settled upon an organised basis suitable for commerce and trade characteristic of the modern age. They vary from town to town and village to village in a way that could only work satisfactorily so long as the dealings of towns and villages were self-contained and before roads and railways opened up trade between one and the other. It is pointed out that in England a hogshead of wine contains 63 gallons and a hogshead of beer only 54 gallons; that a bushel of corn weighs 46 lbs. in Sunderland and 240 lbs. in Cornwall; that the English stone weight represents 14 lbs. in popular estimation, but only 5 lbs., if we are weighing glass, and eight for meat, but 6 lbs. for cheese. Similar instances are multiplied in India by at least as many times as India is bigger than England. If we take, for instance, the maund denomination of weight common all over India, we shall find that in a given city there are nearly as many maunds as there are articles to weigh. If we consider the maund as between district and district the state of affairs is worse. Thus in the United Provinces alone the maund of sugar weighs 48½ seers in Cawnpore, 40 in Muttra, 72½ in Gorakhpur, 40 in Agra, 50 in Moradabad, 43½ in Baharapur, 50 in Bareilly 46 in 48½ in Shah-jehanpur 51 in Goharganj. The

varies throughout all India from the Bengal or railway maund of 82.27 lbs. to the Factory maund of 74 lbs. 10 oz. 12 drs., the Bombay maund of 48 lbs., which apparently answers to the Forest Department maund in use at the Fuel Depot, and the Madras maund, which some authorities estimate at 25 lbs. and others at 24 lbs. and so on.

Committees of Inquiry.—These are merely typical instances which are multiplied indefinitely. There are variations of every detail of weights and measures in every part of India. The losses to trade arising from the confusion and the trouble which this state of things causes are heavy. Municipal and commercial bodies are continually engaged with the problem with a view to the reform of the system. The Governments have made various attempts during 40 years past to solve the problem of universal units of weights and measures and commerce and trade have agitated about the question for the past century. The Indian railways and Government departments adopted a standard tola (180 grains), seer (80 tolas) and maund (40 seers) and it was hoped that this would act as a successful "lead" which would gradually be followed by trade throughout the empire, but the expectation has not been realised.

The Government of India considered the whole question in consultation with the provincial Governments in 1890-1894 and various special steps have at different times been taken in different parts of India. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee in 1911 to make proposals for reform for the Bombay Presidency. Their final report has not been published, but they presented in 1912 an *ad interim* report which has been issued for public discussion. In brief, it points out the practical impossibility of proceeding by compulsory measures affecting the whole of India. The Committee stated that over the greater part of the Bombay Presidency a standard of weights and measures would be heartily welcome by the people. They thought that legislation compulsorily applied over large areas subject to many diverse conditions of trade and social life would not result in bringing about the desired reform so successfully as a "lead" supplied by local legislation based on practical experience. The want of coherence, *savoir faire*, or the means of co-operation among the people at large pointed to this conclusion. The Committee pointed out that a good example of the results that will follow a good lead is apparent in the East Khondesh District of the Presidency, where the District Officer, Mr. Simcox, gradually, during the course of three years, induced the people to adopt throughout the district uniform weights and measures, the unit of weight in this case being a tola of 180 grains. But the committee abstained from recommending that the same weights and measures should be adopted over the whole Presidency, preferring that a new system started in any area should be as nearly as possible similar to the best system already prevailing there.

of 1912. The whole problem was again brought under special consideration by the Government of India in October 1913.

when the following committee was appointed to inquire into the entire subject and report—

Mr. C. A. Silberrard (President).
Mr. A. Y. G. Campbell.
Mr. Bustomji Farooqui.

This Committee reported, in August, 1915, in favour of a uniform system of weights to be adopted in India based on the 180 grain tola. The report says:—Of all such systems there is no doubt that the most widespread and best known is that known as the Bengal or Indian Railway weights. The introduction of this system involves a more or less considerable change of system in parts of the United Provinces (Gorakhpur, Bareilly and neighbouring areas), practically the whole of Madras, parts of the Punjab (rural portions of Amritsar and neighbouring districts), of Bombay (South Bombay, Bombay city and Gujarat), and the North-West Frontier Province. Burma has at present a separate system of its own which the committee think it should be permitted to retain. The systems recommended are:—

FOR INDIA.

8 khasakas	= 1 chawala
8 chawals	= 1 ratti
8 rattis	= 1 masha
12 mashes or 4 tanks	= 1 tola
5 tolas	= 1 chatak
16 chataks	= 1 seer
40 seers	= 1 maund

FOR BURMA

2 small ywes	= 1 large ywe
4 large ywes	= 1 pe
2 pes	= 1 mu
3 pes or 2½ mus	= 1 mat
1 mat	= 1 ngamu
2 ngamus	= 1 tikal
100 tikals	= 1 peiktha or viss.

The tola is the tola of 180 grains, equal to the rupee weight. The viss has recently been fixed at 3.60 lbs. or 140 tolas.

Government Action.—The Government of India at first approved the principles of the Report and left the Provincial Governments to take action, but they passed more detailed orders in January, 1922. In these they again, for the present and subject to the restrictions imposed by the Government of India Act and the devolution rules, left it entirely to local Governments to take such action as they think advisable to standardise dry and liquid measures of capacity within their provinces. Similarly they announced their decision not to adopt all India standards of length or area.

As regards weights they decided in favour of the standard mentioned under the heading "Weights", near the commencement of this article, this having been recommended by a majority of the Weights and Measures Committee and having received the unanimous support of the Local Governments. At the same time they provisionally undertook to assist provincial legislation or standardisation and stated that "if subsequently, opinion develops strongly in favour of the 'imperial' standardisation of weights, the Government of India will be prepared to take such action as may be necessary, but at present they consider that any such step would be

No history of India can be proportionate, and the briefest summary must suffer from the same defect. Even a wholesale acceptance as history of mythology, tradition, and folklore will not make good, though it makes picturesque, the many gaps that exist in the early history of India: and, though the labours of modern geographers and archaeologists have been amazingly fruitful, it cannot be expected that these gaps will ever be filled to any appreciable extent. Approximate accuracy in chronology and an outline of dynastic facts are all that the student can look for up to the time of Alexander, though the briefest excursion into the by-ways of history will reveal to him many alluring and mysterious fields for speculation. There are, for example, to this day castes that believe they sprang originally from the loins of a being who landed "from an impossible boat on the shores or a highly improbable sea"; and the great epic poems contain plentiful statements equally difficult of reconciliation with modern notions of history as a science. But from the Jataka stories and the Puranas, much valuable information is to be obtained, and, for the benefit of those unable to go to these and other original sources, it has been distilled by a number of writers.

The orthodox Hindu begins the political history of India more than 8,000 years before Christ, with the war waged on the banks of the Jamna between the sons of Kuru and the sons of Pandu. Recent excavations by the Archaeological Department in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab, but more particularly at Mohenjo Daro in Sind, carry us back even further. They have uncovered sites of cities bearing the marks and containing the relics of a high civilisation stated by the Department to be Sumerian. The excavations are proceeding under special direction and have excited the keenest interest in scientific circles throughout the world, but the general critical omits several of these remote centuries and takes 600 B.C. or thereabouts as his starting point. At that time much of the country was covered with forest, but the Aryan races, who had entered India from the north, had established in parts a form of civilization far superior to that of the aboriginal savages and to this day there survive cities, like Benares, founded by those invaders. In like manner the Dravidian invaders from an unknown land, who overran the Deccan and the Southern part of the Peninsula, crushed the aborigines, and at a much later period, were themselves subdued by the Aryans. Of these two civilizing forces, the Aryan is the better known, and of the Aryan kingdoms the first of which there is authentic record is that of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. It was in, or near, this powerful kingdom that Jainism and Buddhism had their origin, and the fifth King of Magadha, Bimbisara by name, was the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha. The King mentioned was a contemporary of Darius, autocrat of Persia (521 to 485 B.C.) who annexed the Indus valley and formed from his conquest an Indian satrapy which paid as tribute the equivalent of about one million sterling. Detailed history, however, does not become possible until the invasion of Alexander in 326 B.C.

Alexander the Great.

This great soldier had crossed the Hindu Kush in the previous year and had crossed the

on the Upper Indus. In the spring of 326 he crossed the river at Ohind, received the submission of the King of Taxila, and marched against Porus who ruled the fertile country between the rivers Hydaspes (Jhelum) and Acesines (Chenab). The Macedonians carried all before him, defeating Porus at the battle of the Hydaspes, and crossing the Chenab and Ravi. But at the River Hyphasis (Bias) his weary troops mutinied, and Alexander was forced to turn back and retire to the Jhelum where he fleet to sail down the rivers to the sea was nearly ready. The wonderful story of Alexander's march through Mekran and Persia to Babylon, and of the voyage of Nearchus up the Persian Gulf is the climax to the narrative of the invasion but is not part of the history of India. Alexander had stayed nineteen months in India and left behind him officer to carry on the Government of the kingdoms he had conquered; but his death at Babylon in 323, destroyed the fruits of what has to be regarded as nothing but a brilliant raid, and within two years his successors were obliged to leave the Indian provinces, heavily scarred by war but not hellenized.

The leader of the revolt against Alexander's generals was a young Hindu, Chandragupta, who was an illegitimate member of the Koyal Family of Magadha. He dethroned the ruler of that kingdom, and became so powerful that he is said to have been able to placate 600,000 troops in the field against Seleucus to whom Babylon had passed on the death of Alexander. This was too formidable an opposition to be faced, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the Syrian and Indian monarchs which left the latter the first paramount Sovereign of India (321 B.C.) with his capital at Pataliputra, the modern Patna and Bankipore. Of Chandragupta's court and administration a very full account is preserved in the fragments that remain of the history compiled by Megasthenes, the ambassador sent to India by Seleucus. His memorable reign ended in 297 B.C. when he was succeeded by his son Bindusara, who in his turn was succeeded by Asoka (269—231 B.C.) who recorded the events of his reign in numerous inscriptions. This king, in an unusually bloody war, added to his dominions the kingdom of Kalinga (the Northern Orissas) and then becoming a convert to Buddhism, resolved for the future to abstain from conquest by force of arms. The consequences of the conversion of Asoka were amazing. He was not intolerant of other religions, and did not endeavour to force his creed on his "children." But he initiated measures for the propagation of his doctrine with the result that "Buddhism, which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the greatest religions of the world—the greatest, probably, it measured by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered; this it is which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but in that of the world." The wording of his edicts reveal him as a great king as well as a great missionary, and it is to be hoped that the excavations now being carried on in the ruins of his palace may throw yet more light on his reign and times. On his death the Maurya kingdom fell to pieces. Even during his

sign there had been signs of new forces at work on the borderland of India, where the independent kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia had been formed, and subsequent to it there were frequent Greek raids into India. The Greek in Bactria, however, could not withstand the overwhelming force of the westward migration of the Yueh-chi horde, which, in the first century A.D., also ousted the Indo-Parthian kings from Afghanistan and North-Western India.

The first of these Yueh-chi kings to annex a part of India was Kadphises II (A.D. 85-125), who had been defeated in a war with China, but crossed the Indus and consolidated his power eastward as far as Benares. His son Kanishka (whose date is much disputed) left a name which to Buddhists stands second only to that of Asoka. He greatly extended the boundaries of his empire in the North, and made Peshawar his capital. Under him the power of the Kushan clan of the Yueh-chi reached its zenith and did not begin to decay until the end of the second century, concurrently with the rise in middle India of the Andhra dynasty which constructed the Amaravati stupa, "one of the most elaborate and precious monuments of petty ever raised by man."

The Gupta Dynasty.

Early in the fourth century there arose, at Pataliputra, the Gupta dynasty which proved of great importance. Its founder was a local chief, his son Samudragupta, who ruled for some fifty years from A.D. 326, was a king of the greatest distinction. His aim of subduing all India was not indeed fulfilled but he was able to exact tribute from the kingdoms of the South and even from Ceylon, and, in addition to being a warrior, he was a patron of the arts and of Sanskrit literature. The rule of his son, Chandragupta, was equally distinguished and is commemorated in an inscription on the famous iron pillar near Delhi, as well as in the writings of the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien who pays a great tribute to the equitable administration of the country. It was not until the middle of the fifth century that the fortunes of the Gupta dynasty began to wane—in face of the onset of the White Huns from Central Asia—and by 480 the dynasty had disappeared. The following century all over India was one of great confusion, apparently marked only by the rise and fall of petty kingdoms, until a monarch arose, in A.D. 606, capable of consolidating an Empire. This was the Emperor Harsha who, from Thanagar near Ambala, conquered Northern India and extended his territory South to the Nerbudda, imitating Asoka in many ways, this Emperor yet "felt no embarrassment in paying adoration in turn to Siva, the Sun, and Buddha at a great public ceremonial." Of his times a graphic picture has been handed down in the work of a Chinese "Master of the Law," Hsien Tsang by name. Harsha was the last native paramount sovereign of Northern India: on his death in 648 his throne was usurped by a Minister, whose treacherous conduct towards an embassy from China was quickly avenged, and the kingdom so laboriously established lapsed into a state of internecine strife which lasted for a century and a half.

The Andhras and Rajputs.

In the ----- in Southern India the Andhras had ----- to great ----- and

carried on a considerable trade with Greece, Egypt and Rome, as well as with the East. Their domination ended in the fifth century A.D. and a number of new dynasties of which the Pallavas were the most important, began to appear. The Pallavas made way in turn for the Chalukyas, who for two centuries remained the most important Deccan dynasty, one branch uniting with the Cholas. But the fortunes of the Southern dynasties are so involved, and in many cases so little known, that to recount them briefly is impossible. Few names of note stand out from the record except those of Vikramaditya (11th century) and a few of the later Hindu rulers who made a stand against the growing power of Islam, of the rise of which an account is given below. In fact the history of medieval India is singularly devoid of unity. Northern India was in a state of chaos from about 650 to 950 A.D. not unlike that which prevailed in Europe of that time, and materials for the history of these centuries are very scanty. In the absence of any powerful rulers the jungle began to gain back what had been wrested from it; ancient capitals fell into ruins from which in some cases they have not even yet been disturbed, and the aborigines and various foreign tribes began to assert themselves so successfully that the Aryan element was chiefly confined to the Doab and the Eastern Punjab. It is not therefore so much for the political as for the religious and social history of this anarchical period that one must look. And the greatest event—if a slow process may be called an event—of the middle ages was the transition from tribe to caste, the final disappearance of the old four-fold division of Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and the formation of the new division of pure and impure largely resting upon a classification of occupations. But this social change was only a part of the development of the Hindu religion into a form which would include in its embrace the many barbarians and foreigners in the country who were outside it. The great political event of the period was the rise of the Rajputs as warriors in the place of the Kshatriyas. Their origin is obscure but they appeared in the 8th century and spread, from their two original homes in Rajputana and Oudh, into the Punjab, Kashmir, and the Central Himalayas, assimilating a number of fighting clans and binding them together with a common code. At this time Kashmir was a small kingdom which exercised an influence on India wholly disproportionate to its size. The only other kingdom of importance was that of Kanauj—in the Doab and Southern Oudh—which still retained some of the power to which it had reached in the days of Harsha, and of which the renown extended to China and Arabia.

With the end of the period of anarchy, the political history of India centres round the Rajputs. One clan founded the kingdom of Gujarat, another held Malwa, another (the Chauhans) founded a kingdom of which Ajmer was the capital, and so on. Kanauj fell into the hands of the Rathors (c. 1040 A.D.) and the dynasty then founded by that branch of the Gaharwaras of Benares became one of the most powerful in India. Later in the same century the Chauhans united, and by

One of them could boast that he had conquered all he counted from the Indhyas to the Himalayas, including Delhi already a fortress a hundred years old. The son of this conqueror was Prithwi Raj, the champion of the Hindus against the Mahomedans. With his death in battle (1192) ends the golden age of the new civilization that had been evolved out of chaos, and of the greatness of that age there is a splendid memorial in the temples and forts of the Rajput states and in the two great philosophical systems of Sankaracharya (ninth century) and Ramanuja (twelfth century). The triumph of Hinduism had been achieved, it must be added, at the expense of Buddhism, which survived only in Magadha at the time of the Mahomedan conquest and speedily disappeared there before the new faith.

Mahomedan India.

The wave of Mahomedan invaders that eventually swept over the country first touched India, in Sind, less than a hundred years after the death of the Prophet in 632. But the first real contact was in the tenth century when a Turkish slave of a Persian ruler founded a kingdom at Ghazni, between Kabul and Kandahar. A descendant of his, Mahmud (967-1030) made repeated raids into the heart of India, capturing places so far apart as Multan, Kanauj, Gwalior, and Sonmuth in Kathiawar, but permanently occupying only a part of the Punjab. Enduring Mahomedan rule was not established until the end of the twelfth century, by which time, from the little territory of Ghor, there had arisen one Mahomed Ghori capable of carving out a kingdom stretching from Peshawar to the Bay of Bengal. Prithwi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer, made a brave stand against, and once defeated, one of the armies of this ruler, but was himself defeated in the following year. Mahomed Ghori was murdered at Lahore (1206) and his vast kingdom, which had been governed by satraps, was split up into what were practically independent sovereignties. Of these satraps, Qutb-ud-din, the slave ruler of Delhi and Lahore, was the most famous, and is remembered by the great mosque he built near the modern Delhi. Between his rule and that of the Mughals, which began in 1526, only a few of the many Kings who governed and fought and built beautiful buildings, stand out with distinction. One of these was Alau-d-din (1296-1316), whose many expeditions to the south much weakened the Hindu Kings, and who proved himself to be a capable administrator. Another was Firoz Shah, of the house of Tughlaq, whose administration was in many respects admirable, but which ended, on his abdication, in confusion. In the reign of his successor, Mahmud (1398-1413), the kingdom of Delhi went to pieces and India was for seven months at the mercy of the Turkish conqueror Taimur. It was the end of the fifteenth century before the kingdom, under Sikandar Lodi, began to recover. His son, Ibrahim, still further extended the kingdom that had been recreated, but was defeated by Babar, King of Kabul, at Panipat, near Delhi, in 1526, and there was then established in India the Mughal dynasty.

The Mughal that had ruled in capital other than Delhi up to this date

we of a mpa at e untpo tan ough
ome grea men appea ed among hem in
Gujarat, for example, Anmad Shah, the founder
of Ahmedabad, showed himself a good ruler
and builder as well as a good soldier, though
his grandson, Mahmud Shah Begara, was a
greater ruler--acquiring fame at sea as well
as on land. In the South various kings of the
Dahmani dynasty made names for themselves
especially in the long wars they waged on the
new Hindu kingdom that had arisen which had
its capital at Vijayanagar. Of importance
also was Adil Khan, a Turk, who founded (1490)
the Bijapur dynasty of Adil Shahs. It was
one of his successors who crushed the Vijaya-
nagar dynasty, and built the great mosque for
which Bijapur is famous.

The Mughal Empire.

As one draws near to modern times it becomes impossible to present anything like a coherent and consecutive account of the growth of India as a whole. Detached threads in the story have to be picked up one by one and followed to their ending, and although the sixteenth century saw the first European settlements in India, it will be convenient here to continue the narrative of Mahomedan India almost to the end of the Mughal Empire. How Babar gained Delhi has already been told. His son, Humayun, greatly extended his kingdom, but was eventually defeated (1540) and driven into exile by Sher Khan, an Afghan of great capabilities, whose short reign ended in 1545. The Sur dynasty thus founded by Sher Khan lasted another ten years when Humayun, having snatched Kabul from one of his brothers, was strong enough to win back part of his old kingdom. When Humayun died (1556) his eldest son, Akbar, was only 13 years old and was confronted by many rivals. Nor was Akbar well served, but his career of conquest was almost uninterrupted and by 1594 the whole of India North of the Nerbudda had bowed to his authority, and he subsequently entered the Deccan and captured Ahmednagar. This great ruler, who was as remarkable for his religious tolerance as for his military prowess, died in 1605, leaving behind him a record that has been surpassed by few. His son, Jehangir, who married the Persian lady Nur Jehan, ruled until 1627. admiring posterity some tomb of his father at palace of Agra, and the palace and fortress of Lahore. His son, Shahjahan, was for many years occupied with wars in the Deccan, but found time to make his court of incredible magnificence and to build the most famous and beautiful of all tombs, the Taj Mahal, as well as the fort, palace and Juma Masjid at Delhi. The quarrels of his sons led to the deposition of Shahjahan by one of them, Aurangzeb, in 1658. This Emperor's rule was one of constant intrigue and fighting in every direction, the most important of his wars being a twenty five years' struggle against the Marathas of the Deccan who, under the leadership of Sivaji, became a very powerful faction in Indian politics. His bigoted attitude towards Hinduism made Aurangzeb all the more anxious to establish his Empire on a firm basis in the south, but he was unable to boid his many conquests, and on his death (1707) the

Empire for which the sons were fighting could not be had. The danger appeared in the person of Aurangzeb, the Persian conqueror, who carried all before him. On his withdrawal, leaving Mahomed Shah on the throne, the old intrigues recommenced and the Marathas began to make the most of the opportunity offered to them by puppet rulers at Delhi and by almost universal discord throughout what had been the Mughal Empire. There is little to add to the history of Mahomedan India. Emperors continued to reign in name at Delhi up to the middle of the 18th century, but their territory and power had long since disappeared, being swallowed up either by the Marathas or by the British.

European Settlements.

The voyage of Vasco da Gama to India in 1498 was what turned the thoughts of the Portuguese to the formation of a great Empire in the East. That idea was soon realized, for from 1500 onwards, constant expeditions were sent to India and the first two Viceroy's in India—Almeida and Albuquerque—laid the foundations of a great Empire and of a great trade monopoly. Goa, taken in 1510, became the capital of Portuguese India and remained to this day in the hands of its captors, and the countless ruins of churches and forts on the shores of Western India, as also farther East at Malacca, testify to the zeal with which the Portuguese endeavoured to propagate their religion and to the care they took to defend their settlements. There were great soldiers and great missionaries among them—Albuquerque, da Cunha, da Castro in the former class, St. Francis Xavier in the latter. But the glory of Empire loses something of its lustre when it has to be paid for, and the constant drain of men and money from Portugal, necessitated by the attacks made on their possessions in India and Malaya, was found almost intolerable. The junction of Portugal with Spain, which lasted from 1580 to 1640, also tended to the downfall of the Eastern Empire and when Portugal became independent again, it was unequal to the task of competing in the East with the Dutch and English. The Dutch had little difficulty in wresting the greater part of their territory from the Portuguese, but the seventeenth century naval wars with England forced them to relax their hold upon the coast of India, and during the French wars between 1795 and 1811 England took all Holland's Eastern possessions, and the Dutch have left in India but few traces of their civilisation and of the once powerful East India Company of the Netherlands.

The first English attempt to reach India date from 1498 when Cabot tried to find the North-West passage, and these attempts were repeated all through the sixteenth century. The first Englishman to land in India is said to have been one Thomas Stephens (1579) who was followed by a number of merchant adventurers, but trade between the two countries really dates from 1600 when Elizabeth incorporated the East India Company which had been formed in 1600. Factories in India were founded only after the English and Dutch position had been established in the

a fight off Swallow Bay in 1612. The factory at Surat was many years the most important English foothold in the East. Its establishment was followed by others, including Fort St. George, Madras, (1640) and Hughli (1651). In the history of these early years of British enterprise in India the cession of Bombay (1661) as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza stands out as a landmark. It also illustrates the weakness of the Portuguese at that date, since in return the King of England undertook to protect the Portuguese in India against their foes—the Marathas and the Dutch. Cromwell, by his treaty of 1651, had already obtained from the Portuguese an acknowledgment of England's right to trade in the East; and that right was now threatened, not by the Portuguese, but by Shivaji and by the general disorder prevalent in India. Accordingly, in 1686, the Company turned its attention to acquiring territorial power, and announced its intention to establish such a policy of civil and military power, and create and secure such a large revenue... as may be the foundation of a large, well-grounded, sure English dominion in India for all time to come. Not much came of this announcement for some time, and no stand could be made in Bengal against the depredations of Aurangzeb. The foundations of Calcutta (1690) could not be laid by Job Charnock until after a humiliating peace had been concluded with that Emperor, and, owing to the difficulties in which the Company found itself in England, there was little chance of any immediate change for the better. The union of the old East India Company with the new one which had been formed in rivalry to it took place in 1708, and for some years peaceful development followed, though Bombay was always exposed by sea to attacks from the pirates, who had many strongholds within easy reach of that port, and on land to attacks from the Marathas. The latter danger was felt also in Calcutta. Internal dangers were numerous and still more to be feared. More than one mutiny took place among the troops sent out from England, and rebellions like that led by Kaimur in Bombay threatened to stifle the infant settlements. The public health was bad and the rate of mortality was at times appalling. To cope with such conditions strong men were needed, and the Company was in this respect peculiarly fortunate; the long list of its servants, from Oxenden and Angier to Hastings and Raffles, contains many names of men who proved themselves good rulers and far-sighted statesmen, the finest Empire-builders the world has known.

Attempts to compete with the English were made of course. But the schemes of the Emperor Charles VI to secure a share of the Indian trade were not much more successful than those made by Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. By the French, who founded Pondicherry and Chandernagore towards the end of the 17th century, much more was achieved, as will be seen from the following outline of the development of British rule.

The French Wars.

When war broke out in 1744, the had and

strong post on a Southern India which had become independent of Delhi and was divided into three large States—Hyderabad, Tanjore, and Mysore—and a number of petty states under local chieftains. In the affairs of these States Dupleix, when Governor of Pondicherry, had intervened with success, and when Madras was captured by a French squadron, under La Bourdonnais (1746) Dupleix wished to hand it over to the Nawab of Arcot—a deputy of the Nizam's who ruled in the Carnatic. The French, however, kept Madras, repelling an attack by the disappointed Nawab as well as the British attempts to recapture it. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the English. The fighting had shown the Indian powers the value of European troops, and this was again shown in the next French war (1750-54) when Clive achieved enduring fame by his capture and subsequent defence of Arcot. This war arose from Duplex supporting candidates for the disputed successions at Arcot and Hyderabad while the English at Madras put forward their own nominees. One of Duplex's officers, the Marquis de Bussy, persuaded the Nizam to take into his pay the army which had established his power, and in return the Northern Circars, between Orissa and Madras, was granted to the French. This territory, however, was captured by the English in the seven years' war (1756-63). Dupleix had by then been recalled to France. Lally, who had been sent to drive the English out of India, captured Fort St. David and invested Madras. But the victory which Colonel (Sir Eyre) Coote won at Wandiwash (1760) and the surrender of Pondicherry and Gingee put an end to the French ambitious of Empire in Southern India. Pondicherry passed more than once from the one nation to the other before settling down to its present existence as a French colony in miniature.

Battle of Plassey.

While the English were fighting the third French war in the South they became involved in grave difficulties in Bengal, where Siraj-ud-Daula had acceded to power. The headquarters of the English at Calcutta were threatened by that ruler who demanded they should surrender a refuge and should cease building fortifications. They refused and he marched against them with a large army. Some of the English took to their ships and made off down the river, the rest surrendered and were cast into the jail known as the "Black Hole." From this small and stifling room 23 persons, out of 146, came out alive the next day. Clive who was at Madras, immediately sailed for Calcutta with Admiral Watson's squadron, recaptured the town (1757), and, as war with the French had been proclaimed, proceeded to take Chandernagore. The Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula then took the side of the French, and Clive, putting forward Mir Jafar as candidate for the Nawab's throne, marched out with an army consisting of 900 Europeans, 2,000 sepoy and 8 pieces of artillery against the Nawab's host of over 50,000. The result was the historic battle of Plassey (June 23) to which Clive after hesitating on the point to be pursued, routed the Nawab. Mir Jafar was put on the throne

a Munadabad and the price of this honour was put at £2,340,000 in addition to the grant to the Company of the land round Calcutta now known as the District of the twenty four Parganas. In the year after Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of Bengal and in that capacity sent troops against the French in Madras and in person led a force against the Oudh army that was threatening Mir Jafar, in each case with success. From 1760 to 1765 Clive was in England. During his absence the Council at Calcutta deposed Mir Jafar and, for a price, put Mir Kasim in his place. This ruler moved his capital to Monghyr, organized an army, and began to intrigue with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. He soon found, in a dispute over customs dues, an opportunity of quarrelling with the English and the first shots fired by his followers were the signal for a general rising in Bengal. About 200 Englishmen and a number of sepoy were massacred, but his trained regiments were defeated at Gheria and Oodeynullah, and Mir Kasim sought protection from the Nawab of Oudh. But in 1764, after quelling a sepoy mutiny in his own camp by blowing 24 ring leaders from the guns, Major (Sir Hector) Munro defeated the joint forces of Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor, and the Nawab of Oudh in the battle of Buxar. In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned as Governor. "Two landmarks stand out in his policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and by guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But our efforts towards a sound administration date from this second Governorship of Clive as our military supremacy dates from his victory at Plassey." Before Clive left India in 1767, he had readjusted the divisions of Northern India and had set up a system of Government in Bengal by which the English received the revenues and maintained the army while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. The performance of his second task, the purification of the Company's service, was hotly opposed but carried out. He died in 1774 by his own hand, the House of Commons having in the previous year censured him, though admitting that he did render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Warren Hastings.

The dual system of government that Clive had set up proved a failure and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, in 1772, to carry out the reforms settled by the Court of Directors which were to give them the entire care and administration of the revenues. Thus Hastings had to undertake the administrative organization of India, and, in spite of the factious attitude of Philip Francis, with whom he fought a duel and of other members of his Council, he reorganized the civil service, reformed the system of revenue collection, greatly improved the financial position of the Company and set up courts of justice and some semblance of a police force. From 1772 to 1774 he was Governor and from 1774 to 1775

he was the first Governor-General nominated under an Act of Parliament in the previous year. His financial reforms, and the forced contributions he enacted from the rebellious Chet Singh and the Begam of Oudh, were interpreted in England as acts of oppression and formed, together with his action in the trial of Nuncomar for forgery, the basis of his seven years' trial before the House of Lords which ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. But there is much more for which his administration is justly famous. The recovery of the Marathas from their defeat at Panipat was the cardinal factor that influenced his policy towards the native states. One frontier was closed against Maratha invasion by the loan of a British brigade to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, for his war against the Rohillas, who were intriguing with the Marathas. In Western India he found himself committed to the two Maratha wars (1775-82) owing to the ambition of the Bombay Government to place its own nominee on the throne of the Peshwa at Poona, and the Bengal troops that he sent over made amends, by the conquest of Gujrat and the capture of Gwalior, for the disgrace of Wadsraon where the Marathas overpowered a Bombay army. In the South—where interference from Madras had already led (1769) to what is known as the first Mysore war—a disastrous campaign against Hyder Ali and the Nizam—he found the Madras Government again in conflict with those two potentates. The Nizam he won over by diplomacy, but against Hyder Ali he had to despatch a Bengal army under Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder Ali died in 1782 and two years later a treaty was made with his son Tipu. It was in these acts of intervention in distant provinces that Hastings showed to best advantage as a great and courageous man, cautious, but swift in action when required. He was succeeded, after an interregnum, by Lord Cornwallis (1783-93) who built on the foundations of civil administration laid by Hastings, by entrusting criminal jurisdiction to Europeans and establishing an Appellate Court of Criminal Jurisdiction at Calcutta. In the Civil Service he separated the functions of the District Collector and Judge and organized the "writers" and "merchants" of the Company into an administrative Civil Service. This system was subsequently extended to Madras and Bombay. Lord Cornwallis is better known for his introduction, on orders from England, of the Permanent Settlement in Bengal. (See article on Land Revenue). A third Mysore war was waged during his tenure of office which ended in the submission of Tipu Sultan. Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), an experienced Civil Servant, succeeded Lord Cornwallis, and, in 1793, was followed by Lord Wellesley, the friend of Pitt, whose projects were to change the map of India.

Lord Wellesley's Policy.

The French in general, and "the Corsican" in particular, were the enemy most to be dreaded for a few years before Lord Wellesley took up his duties in India, and he formed the scheme of definitively ending French schemes in Asia by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. He started by obtaining from the Nawab of Oudh the

age of the territory of the Peshwa in return for payment of a subsidy to British troops. He then won over the Nizam to the British side, and, after exposing the intrigues of Tipu Sultan with the French, embarked on the fourth Mysore war which ended (1799) in the fall of Seringapatam and the gallant death of Tipu. Part of Mysore, the Carnatic, and Tanjore roughly constituting the Madras Presidency of to-day then passed to British rule. The five Maratha powers—the Peshwa of Poona, the Gaekwar of Baroda, Sindhia of Gwalior, Holkar of Indore and the Raja of Nagpur—had still to be brought into the British net. The Peshwa, after being defeated by Holkar, fled to British territory and signed the Treaty of Bassein which led to the third Maratha war (1802-04) as it was regarded by Sindhia and the Raja of Nagpur as a betrayal of Maratha independence. In this the most successful of British campaigns in India, Sir Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington) and General (Lord) Lake carried all before them, the one by his victories of Assaye and Argaum and the other at Asand and Laswari. Later operations, such as Colonel Monson's retreat through Central India were less fortunate. The great acquisitions of territory made under Lord Wellesley proved so expensive that the Court of Directors, becoming impatient, sent out Lord Cornwallis a second time to make peace at any price. He, however, died soon after his arrival in India and Sir George Barlow carried on the government (1805-7) until the arrival of a stronger ruler, Lord Minto. He managed to keep the peace in India for six years, and to add to British dominions by the conquest of Java and Mauritius. His foreign policy was marked by another new departure, inasmuch as he opened relations with the Punjab, Persia, and Afghanistan, and concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh at Lahore, which made that Sikh ruler the loyal ally of the British for life.

The successor of Lord Minto was Lord Mordaunt who found himself obliged almost at once to declare war on the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on British territory. After initial reverses, the English, under General Ochterlony, were successful and the Treaty of Sagauli (1816) was drawn up which defines British relations with Nepal to the present day. For this success Lord Mordaunt was made Marquis of Hastings. In the same year he made preparations for the last Maratha war (1817-18) which was made necessary by the lawless conduct of the Pindaris, gangs of Pathan or Rohilla origin, whose chief patrons were the rulers of Native States. The large number of 120,000 that he collected for this purpose destroyed the Pindaris, annexed the dominions of the rebellious Peshwa of Poona, protected the Rajput States made Sindhia enter upon a new treaty, and compelled Holkar to give up part of his territory. Thus Lord Hastings established the British power more firmly than ever, and when he resigned, in 1823, all the Native States outside the Punjab had become parts of the political system and British interests were permanently secured from the Persian Gulf to Singapore. Lord Amherst followed Lord Hastings, and his five years' rule (1823-28) are memorable for the first war and the capture of Bharatpur. The first opera

tion was undertaken owing to the insolent demands and raids of the Burmese, and resulted in the Burmese ceding Assam, Arakan, and the coast of Martaban and their claims to the lower provinces. The capture of Bharatpur by Lord Combermere (1826) wiped out the repulse which General Lake had received there twenty years earlier. A disputed succession on this occasion led to the British intervention.

Social Reform.

A former Governor of Madras, Lord William Bentinck, was the next Governor-General. His epitaph by Macaulay, says: "He abolished cruel rites; he effaced humiliating distinctions; he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion; his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nations committed to his charge."

Some of his financial reforms, forced on him from England, and his widening of the gates by which educated Indians could enter the service of the Company, were most unpopular at the time, but were eclipsed by the acts he took for the abolition of *Sati*, or widow-burnings, and the suppression—with the help of Captain Slesman—of the professional hereditary assassins known as *Thugs*. In 1832 he annexed Cacher, and, two years later, Coorg. The incompetence of the ruler of Mysore forced him to take that State also under British administration—where it remained until 1881. His rule was marked in other ways by the despatch of the first steamship that made the passage from Bombay to Suez, and by his settlement of the long educational controversy in favour of the advocates of instruction in English and the vernaculars. Lord William Bentinck left India (1835) with his programme of reforms unfinished. The new Charter Act of 1833 had brought to a close the commercial business of the Company and emphasised their position as rulers of an Indian Empire in trust for the Crown. By it the whole administration, as well as the legislation of the country, was placed in the hands of the Governor-General in Council, and authority was given to create a Presidency of Agra. Before his retirement Bentinck assumed the statutory title of Governor-General of India (1834), thus marking the progress of consolidation since Warren Hastings in 1774 became the first Governor-General of Fort William. Sir Charles Metcalfe, being senior member of Council, succeeded Lord William Bentinck, and during his short tenure of office carried into execution his predecessor's measures for giving entire liberty to the press.

Afghan Wars.

With the appointment of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (1836-42) there began a new era of war and conquest. Before leaving London he announced that he looked with exultation to the prospect of "promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good Government and happiness to millions in India;" but his administration was almost exclusively comprised in a fatal expedition to Afghanistan, which dragged in its train the annexation of Sind, the Sikh wars, and the

Central Asia and partly to place on the throne at Kabul the deposed ruler Shah Shuja in place of Dost Mahomed. The latter object was easily attained (1839) and for two years Afghanistan remained in the military occupation of the British. In 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated in Kabul and Sir William Macnaghten suffered the same fate in an interview with the son of Dost Mahomed. The British Commander in Kabul, Gen. Elphinstone, was old and feeble, and after two months' delay he led his army of 4,500 and 12,000 camp followers back towards India in the depth of winter. Between Kabul and Jallalabad the whole force perished, either at the hands of the Afghans or from cold, and Dr. Brydon was the only survivor who reached the latter city. Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland and was persuaded to send an army of retribution to relieve Jallalabad. One force under Gen. Pollock relieved Jallalabad and marched on Kabul, while Gen. Nott, advancing from Kandahar, captured Ghazni and joined Pollock at Kabul (1842). The bazaar at Kabul was blown up, the prisoners rescued, and the army returned to India leaving Dost Mahomed to take undisputed possession of his throne. The drama ended with a bombastic proclamation from Lord Ellenborough and the parade through the Punjab of the (spurious) gates of Somnath taken from the tomb of Mahmud of Ghazni.

Sikh Wars.

Lord Ellenborough's other wars—the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the suppression of an outbreak in Gwalior—were followed by his recall, and the appointment of Sir Henry (1st Lord) Harcourt to be Governor-General. A soldier Governor-General was not unacceptable, for it was felt that a trial of strength was imminent between the British and the remaining Hindu power in India, the Sikhs. Ranjit Singh, the founder of the Sikh Kingdom, had died in 1839, loyal to the end to the treaty he had made with Metcalfe thirty years earlier. He left no son capable of ruling, and the *Khalsa*, or central council of the Sikh army, was burning to measure its strength with the British sepoys. The intrigues of two men, Lal Singh and Faj Singh, to obtain the supreme power led to their crossing the Sutlej and invading British territory. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, and the Governor-General hurried to the frontier, and within three weeks four pitched battles were fought—at Mudki, Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobroon. The Sikhs were driven across the Sutlej and Lahore surrendered to the British but the province was not annexed. By the terms of peace the infant Duleep Singh was recognised as Rajah, Major Henry Lawrence was appointed Resident, to assist the Sikh Council of Regency, at Lahore; the Jullundur Doab was added to British territory; the Sikh army was limited; and a British force was sent to garrison the Punjab on behalf of the child Rajah. Lord Hardinge returned to England (1848) and was succeeded by Lord Dalhousie, the greatest of Indian proconsuls.

Dalhousie had only been in India a few months when the Sikh war broke out. In the attack on the Sikh capital, the British lost 2,400 men and men

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ments - but before reinforcements could arrive from England, bringing Sir Charles Napier as Commander-in-Chief, Lord Gough had restored his reputation by the victory of Gujrat which absolutely destroyed the Sikh army. As a consequence the Punjab was annexed and became a British province (1849), its pacification being so well carried out, under the two Lawrences that on the outbreak of the Mutiny eight years later it remained not only quiet but loyal. In 1852 Lord Dalhousie had again to embark on war, this time in Burma, owing to the ill treatment of British merchants in Rangoon. The lower valley of the Irrawaddy was occupied from Rangoon to Prome and annexed, under the name of Pegu, to those provinces that had been acquired in the first Burmese war. British territories were enlarged in many other directions during Lord Dalhousie's tenure of office. His "doctrine of lapse" by which British rule was substituted for Indian in States where continued misrule on the failure of a dynasty made this change possible, came into practice in the cases of Satara, Jhansi, and Nagpur (which last-named State became the Central Provinces) where the rulers died without leaving male heirs. Oudh was annexed on account of its misrule Dalhousie left many other marks on India. He reformed the administration from top to bottom, founded the Public Works Department, initiated the railways, telegraphs and postal system, and completed the great Ganges canal. He also detached the Government of Bengal from the charge of the Governor-General, and summoned representatives of the local Governments to the deliberations of the Government of India. Finally, in education he laid down the lines of a department of public instruction and initiated more practical measures than those devised by his predecessors. It was his misfortune that the mutiny, which so swiftly followed his resignation, was by many critics in England attributed to his passion for change.

The Sepoy Mutiny.

Dalhousie was succeeded by Lord Canning in 1858, and in the following year the sepoys of the Bengal army mutinied and all the valley of the Ganges from Delhi to Patna rose in rebellion. The causes of this convulsion are difficult to estimate, but are probably to be found in the unrest which followed the progress of English civilisation; in the spreading of false rumours that the whole of India was to be subdued; in the confidence the sepoy troops had acquired in themselves under British leadership; and in the ambition of the educated classes to take a greater share in the government of the country. Added to this, there was in the deposed King of Delhi, Bahadur Shah, a centre of growing disaffection. Finally there was the story—not devoid of truth—that the cartridges for the new Enfield rifle were greased with fat that rendered them unclean for both Hindus and Mahomedans. And when the mutiny did break out it found the Army without many of its best officers who were employed in civil work, and the British troops

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for safety On May 10

a few Europeans, and, unchecked by the large European garrison, went off to Delhi where next morning the Mahomedans rose. From that centre the mutiny spread through the North-Western Provinces and Oudh into Lower Bengal. Risings in the Punjab were put down by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates, who armed the Sikhs, and with their help reduced the sepoys, and Lawrence was subsequently able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. The native armies of Madras and Bombay remained for the most part true to their colours. In Central India the contingents of some of the great chiefs joined the rebels, but Hyderabad was kept loyal by the influence of its minister, Sir Salar Jung.

The interest of the war centres round Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow, though in other places massacres and fighting occurred. The siege of Delhi began on June 8 when Sir Henry Barnard occupied the Ridge outside the town. Barnard died of cholera early in July, and Thomas Reed who took his place, was obliged through illness to hand over the command to Archdale Wilson. In August Nicholson arrived with a reinforcement from the Punjab. In the meantime the rebel force in Delhi was constantly added to by the arrival of new bodies of mutineers. Attacks were frequent and the losses heavy, cholera and sunstroke carried off many victims on the Ridge; and when the final assault was made in September the Delhi army could only parade 4,720 infantry, of whom 1,960 were Europeans. The arrival of siege guns made it possible to advance the batteries on September 8, and by the 13th a breach was made. On the following day three columns were led to the assault, a fourth being held in reserve over the ruins of the Kashmir Gate, blown in by Home and Salkeld, Col. Campbell led his men and Nicholson formed up his troops within the walls. By nightfall the British, with a loss of nearly 1,200 killed and wounded, had only secured a foothold in the city. Six days' street fighting followed and Delhi was won; but the gallant Nicholson was killed at the head of a storming party. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner, and his two sons were shot by Captain Hudson.

Massacre at Cawnpore.

At Cawnpore the sepoys mutinied on June 27 and found in Nana Sahib, the heir of the last Peshwa, a willing leader in spite of his former professions of loyalty. There a European force of 240 with six guns had to protect 870 non-combatants, and held out for 22 days, surrendering only on the guarantee of the Nana that they should have a safe conduct as far as Allahabad. They were embarking on the boats on the Ganges when fire was opened on them, the men being shot or hacked to pieces before the eyes of their wives and children and the women being mutilated and murdered in Cawnpore to which place they were taken back. Their bodies were thrown down a well just before Havelock, having defeated the Nana's forces, arrived to the relief. In Lucknow a small garrison held out in the Residency from July 2 to September 25 against tremendous odds and enduring the most fearful hardships. The force, under Havelock and Outram, was itself invested and the g

t finally de ve ed until S Com Campbe
ved in Novembe. Fighting continued o
months in Oudh, which Sir Colin Campbell
ally reduced, and in Central India, where
Hugh Rose waged a brilliant campaign
amst the disinherited Rani of Jhansi—who
ed at the head of her troops—and Tantia Topi.

Transfer to the Crown.

With the end of the mutiny there began a
era in India, strikingly marked at the out-
by the Act for the Better Government of
dia (1858) which transferred the entire ad-
ministration from the Company to the Crown.
7 that Act India was to be governed by, and
the name of, the Sovereign through a Secre-
ry of State, assisted by a Council of fifteen
members. At the same time the Governor-
general received the title of Viceroy. The
proper troops of the Company, numbering
out 24,000 officers and men were—greatly
easing the transfer—amalgamated with the
oyal service, and the Indian Navy was abo-
hed. On November 1, 1858, the Viceroy
mounced in Durbar at Allahabad that Queen
ctoria had assumed the Government of India.
d proclaimed a policy of justice and religious
leration. A principle already enunciated
the Charter Act of 1833 was reinforced, and
of every race or creed, were to be admitted
far as possible to those offices in the Queen's
vice for which they might be qualified.
he aim of the Government was to be the bene-
of all her subjects in India—"In their pros-
perity will be our strength, in their conten-
tment our security, and in their gratitude our
st reward." Peace was proclaimed in July
59 and in the cold weather Lord Canning
nt on tour in the northern provinces, to
ceive the homage of loyal chiefs and to assure
em that the "policy of lapse" was at an end.
number of other important reforms marked
a closing years of Canning's Viceroyalty.
he India Councils Act (1861) augmented the
vernor-General's Council, and the Councils
Madras and Bombay by adding non-official
members, European and Indian, for legislative
mposes only. By another Act of the same
ar, High Courts of Judicature were consti-
ted. To deal with the increased debt of
dia Mr. James Wilson was sent from England—
be Financial Member of Council, and to
we are due the customs system, income tax,
muse duty, and State paper currency. The
res of office had broken down the Viceroy's
alth Lady Canning died in 1862 and this
stened his departure for England where he
ed in June of that year. His successor, Lord
gin, lived only a few months after his arrival
India, and was succeeded by Sir John (after-
ards Lord) Lawrence, the "saviour of the
myab."

Sir John Lawrence.

The chief task that fell to Sir John Lawrence
s that of reorganising the Indian military
stem, and of reconstructing the Indian army.
e latter task was carried out on the prin-
ple that in the Bengal army the proportion
Europeans to Indians in the infantry and
vary should be one to two and in the
adras and Bombay one to three the
ilitary was to be almost wholly
e r n was carried o pite

unane al d fien nd the sadding of Indian
ev nces with he o o a wa n ab na
with which India had no direct concern; but
operations in Bhutan were all the drain made
on the army in India while the re-organising
process was being carried on. Two severe
famines—in Orissa (1860) and Bundelkhand
and Upper Hindustan (1868-9)—occurred, while
Sir John Lawrence was Viceroy, and he laid
down the principle for the first time in Indian
history, that the officers of the Government
would be held personally responsible for taking
every possible means to avert death by starva-
tion. He also created the Irrigation Depart-
ment under Col. (Sir Richard) Strachey. Two
commercial crises of the time have to be noted.
One seriously threatened the tea industry in
Bengal. The other was the consequence of
the wild gambling in shares of every descrip-
tion that took place in Bombay during the
years of prosperity for the Indian cotton in-
dustry caused by the American Civil War.
The "Snare Mania," however, did no perma-
nent harm to the trade of Bombay, but was,
on the other hand, largely responsible for the
series of splendid buildings begun in that city
during the Governorship of Sir Bartle Frere.
Sir John Lawrence retired in 1869, having
passed through every grade of the service, from
an Assistant Magistracy to the Viceroyalty.
Lord Mayo, who succeeded him, created an
Agricultural Department and introduced the
system c us fostering
the impu it. He also
laid the of the salt
duties, thereby enabling his successors to abo-
lish the inter-provincial customs lines. Un-
happily his vast schemes for the developm't
of the country by extending communications
of every kind were not carried out to the full
by him, for he was murdered in the convict
settlement of the Andaman Islands, in 1872.
Lord Northbrook (Viceroy 1872-6) had to exer-
cise his abilities chiefly in the province of
finance. A severe famine which threatened
Lower Bengal in 1874 was successfully ward d
off by the organization of State relief and the
importation of rice from Burma. The follow-
ing year was notable for the deposition of the
Gaikwar of Baroda for mis-government, and
for the tour through India of the Prince of
Wales (the late King Edward VII). The visit
of the Duke of Edinburgh to India when Lord
Mayo was Viceroy had given great pleasure to
those with whom he had come in touch, and
had established a kind of personal link between
India and the Crown. The Prince of Wales
tour aroused unprecedented enthusiasm for and
loyalty to the British Raj, and further en-
couragement was given to the growth of this
spirit when, in a durbar of great magnificence
held on January 1st, 1877, on the famous Ridge
at Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Em-
press of India. The Viceroy of that time,
Lord Lytton, had, however, to deal with a
situation of unusual difficulty. Two successive
years of drought produced, in 1877-78, the
worst famine India had known. The mos-
sirennous exertions were made to mitigate it.
-fects and eight crores of rupees were spent
n gain but the loss of life was no
n at 52 At this time n t
At this time n t

Second Afghan War.

The Amir, Sher Ali, was found to be intriguing with Russia and that fact, coupled with his repulse of a British mission led to the second Afghan War. The British forces advanced by three routes—the Khyber, the Kurram, and the Bolan—and gained all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan. Sher Ali fled and a treaty was made with his son Yakub Khan, which was promptly broken by the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari, who had been sent as English envoy to Kabul. Further operations were thus necessary, and Sir F. (now Lord) Roberts advanced on the capital and defeated the Afghans at Charasia. A rising of the tribes followed, in spite of Sir D. Stewart's victory at Ahmed Khyl and his advance from Kabul to Kandahar. A pretender, Sirdar Ayub Khan, from Herat prevented the establishment of peace, defeated Gen. Burrows' brigade at Maiwand, and invested Kandahar. He was routed in turn by Sir F. Roberts who made a brilliant march from Kabul to Kandahar. After the British withdrawal fighting continued between Ayub Khan and Abdur Rahman, but the latter was left undisputed Amir of Afghanistan until his death in 1901.

In the meantime Lord Lytton had resigned (1880) and Lord Ripon was appointed Viceroy by the new Liberal Government. Lord Ripon's administration is memorable for the freedom given to the Press by the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, for his scheme of local self-government which developed municipal institutions, and for the attempt to extend the jurisdiction of the criminal courts in the Districts over European British subjects, independently of the race or nationality of the presiding judge. This attempt, which created a feeling among Europeans in India of great hostility to the Viceroy, ended in a compromise in 1884. Other reforms were the re-establishment of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, the appointment of an Education Commission with a view to the spread of popular instruction on a broader basis, and the abolition by the Finance Minister (Sir Evelyn Baring, now Lord Cromer) of a number of customs duties. Lord Dufferin, who succeeded Lord Ripon in 1884, had to give his attention more to external than internal affairs. One of his first acts was to hold a durbat at Rawalpindi for the reception of the Amir of Afghanistan which resulted in the strengthening of British relations with that ruler. In 1886 a third Burmese war became necessary owing to the reculent attitude of King Thibaw and his intrigues with foreign Powers. The expedition, under General Prendergast, occupied Mandalay without difficulty and King Thibaw was exiled to Lathagiri, where he died on 16th December 1916. His dominions of Upper Burma were annexed to British India on the 1st of January, 1886.

The Russian Menace.

Of greater importance at the time were the measures taken to meet a possible, and as it then appeared a probable, attack on India by Russia. These preparations, which cost over two million sterling, were hurried on because of a collision which occurred between Russian and Afghan troops at Panjdeh, on the Afghan frontier, and which seemed likely to lead to a war by Great Britain

War was averted, but the Panjdeh incident had called attention to a menace that was to be felt for nearly a generation more; it had also served to elicit from the Princes of India an unanimous offer of troops and money in case of need. That offer bore fruit under the next Viceroy, Lord Lansdowne, when the present system of Imperial Service Troops was organised. Under Lord Lansdowne's rule also the defences of the North-Western Frontier were strengthened, on the advice of Sir Fredrick (now Earl) Roberts, who was then Commander-in-Chief in India. Another form of precautionary measure against the continued aggression of Russia was taken by raising the annual subsidy paid by the Indian Government to the Amir from eight to twelve lakhs.

On the North-Eastern Frontier there occurred (1891) in the small State of Manipur a revolution against the Raja that necessitated an inquiry on the spot by Mr. Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Mr. Quinton, the commander of his escort, and others, were treacherously murdered in a conference and the escort ignominiously retreated. This disgrace to British arms led to several attacks on frontier outposts which were brilliantly defeated. Manipur was occupied by British troops and the government of the State was reorganised under a Political Agent. Lord Lansdowne's term of office was distinguished by several other events, such as the passing of the Parliamentary Act (Lord Cross's Act, 1892), which increased the size of the Legislative Councils as well as the number of non-officials in them, legislation aimed at social and domestic reform among the Hindus; and the closing of the Indian Mints to the free coinage of silver (1893). In Burma great progress was made, under Sir Alexander Mackenzie, as Chief Commissioner: comparative order was established, and large schemes for the construction of railways, roads, and irrigation works were put in hand. (The Province was made a Lieutenant-Governorship in 1897).

Frontier Campaigns.

Lord Elgin, who succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894, was confronted at the outset with a deficit of Rs. 24 crores, due to the fall in exchange. (In 1895 the rupee fell as low as 1s. 1d.) To meet this the old five per cent. import duties were imposed on a number of commodities, but not on cotton goods; and within the year the duty was extended to piece-goods, but not to yarn. The reorganisation of the Army, which involved the abolition of the old system of Presidency Armies, had hardly been carried out when a number of risings occurred along the North-West Frontier. In 1895 the British Agent in Chitral—which had come under British influence two years previously when Sir H. M. Durand had demarcated the southern and eastern boundaries of Afghanistan—was besieged and had to be rescued by an expeditionary force. Two years later the Wazirs, Swatis, and Mohmands attacked the British positions in Malakand, and the Afridis closed the Khyber Pass. Peace was only established after a prolonged campaign (the Tirah campaign) in which 40,000 troops were employed and over 1000 officers and men had been lost. This was too heavy a burden on the finances of India, which was by the serious and

lam ne of 1896-97 and by the appearance in India of bubonic plague. The methods taken to prevent the spread of that disease led, in Bombay, to rioting, and elsewhere to the appearance in the vernacular press of seditious articles which made it necessary to make more stringent the law dealing with such writings.

Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty.

With famine and plague Lord Curzon also, who succeeded Lord Elgin in 1899, had to deal. In 1901 the cycle of bad harvests came to an end, but plague increased, and in 1904 deaths from it were returned at over one million. Of the many problems to which Lord Curzon directed his attention, only a few can be mentioned here: some indeed claim that his greatest work in India was not to be found in any one department but was in fact the general gearing up of the administration which he achieved by his unceasing energy and personal example of strenuous work. He had at once to turn his attention to the North-West Frontier. The British garrisons beyond our boundary were gradually withdrawn and replaced by tribal levies, and British forces were concentrated in British territory behind them as a support. An attempt was made to check the arms traffic and work on strategic railways was pushed forward. The fact that in seven years he only spent a quarter of a million upon repressive measures and only found it necessary to institute one blockade (against the Mahsud Waziris) is the justification of this policy of compromise between the Lawrence and Forward schools of thought. In 1901 the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab were separated from that Province, and together with the political charges of the Malakand, the Khyber, Kurram, Tochi and Wana were formed into the new North-West Frontier Province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India. That year also witnessed the death of Abdur Rahman, the Amir of Afghanistan, and the establishment of an understanding with his successor Habibullah. In 1904 the attitude of the Dalai Lama of Tibet being pro-Russian and anti-British, it became necessary to send an expedition to Lhasa under Colonel (Sir Francis) Younghusband. The Dalai Lama abdicated and a treaty was concluded with his successor.

In his first year of office Lord Curzon passed the Act which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Fowler Commission, practically fixed the value of the rupee at 1s. 4d., and in 1900 a Gold Reserve fund was created. The educational reforms that marked this Viceroyalty are dealt with elsewhere: chief among them was the Act of 1904 reorganising the governing bodies of Indian Universities. Under the head of agrarian reform must be mentioned the Punjab Land Alienation Act, designed to free the cultivators of the soil from the clutches of money-lenders, and the institution of Agricultural banks. The efficiency of the Army was increased (Lord Kitchener was Commander-in-Chief) by the re-arming of the Indian Army, the strengthening of the artillery, and the reorganisation of the transport service. In his relations with the Feudatory Chiefs, Lord Curzon emphasized the position as in administration, and he founded the Cadet Corps to give a education to the sons of ruling and

a stocratic families. In 1902 the British Government obtained from the Nizam a perpetual lease of the Assigned Districts of Berar in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs. The accession of King Edward VII was proclaimed in a splendid Durbar on January 1, 1903. In 1904 Lord Curzon returned to England for a few months but was re-appointed to a second term of office, Lord Ampthill, Governor of Madras, having acted as Viceroy during his absence. The chief act of this second term was the partition of Bengal and the creation of a new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam—a reform, designed to remove the systematic neglect of the trans-Gangetic areas of Bengal, which evoked bitter and prolonged criticism. In 1905 Lord Curzon resigned, being unable to accept the proposals of Lord Kitchener for the re-adjustment of relations between the Army headquarters and the Military Department of the Government, and being unable to obtain the support of the Home Government. Lord Curzon was succeeded by Lord Minto, the grandson of a former Governor-General. It was a stormy heritage to which Lord Minto succeeded, for the unrest which had long been noticed developed in one direction into open sedition. The occasion of the outburst in Bengal was the partition of that province. The causes of the flood of seditious writings and speeches, of the many attempts at assassination, and of the boycott of British goods are less easily definable. The mainspring of the unrest was "a deep-rooted antagonism to all the principles upon which Western society, especially in a democratic country like England, has been built up."

Outside Bengal attempts to quell the disaffection by the ordinary law were fairly successful. But scarcely any province was free from disorder of some kind and, though recourse was had to the deportation of persons without reason assigned under an Act of 1818, special Acts had to be passed to meet the situation, viz.—an Explosives Act, a Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act, and a Criminal Law Amendment Act which provides for a magisterial inquiry in private and a trial before three judges of the High Court without a jury. Concurrently with these legislative measures steps were taken to extend representative institutions. In 1907 a Hindu and a Mahomedan were appointed to the Secretary of State's Council, and in 1909 a Hindu was appointed for the first time to the Viceroy's Council. The Indian Councils Act of 1909 carried this policy farther by reconstituting the legislative councils and conferring upon them wider powers of discussion. The executive councils of Madras and Bombay were enlarged by the addition of an Indian member.

As regards foreign policy, Lord Minto's Viceroyalty was distinguished by the conclusion (1907) between Great Britain and Russia of an agreement on questions likely to disturb the friendly relations of the two countries in Asia generally, and in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet in particular. Two expeditions had to be undertaken on the North-West frontier, against the Zakka Khels and the Mohmands, and ships of the East Indies Squadron were frequently engaged off Macao and in the Pacific in operations to check the traffic in arms through Persia and Mekran to the frontier of India.

Visit of the King and Queen

Sir Charles (Lord) Hardinge was appointed to succeed Lord Minto in 1910. His first year in India was marked by the visit to India of the King Emperor and the Queen, who arrived at Bombay on December 2, 1911. From there they proceeded to Delhi where, in the most magnificent durbar ever held in India, the coronation was proclaimed and various boons, including an annual grant of 50 lakhs for popular education, were announced. At the same ceremony His Majesty announced the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi; the reunion of the two Bengals under a Governor-in-Council; the formation of a new Lieutenant-Governorship for Behar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa and the restoration of Assam to the charge of a Chief Commissioner.

In August, 1918, the demolition of a lavatory attached to a mosque in Cawnpore was made the occasion of an agitation among Indian Mahomedans and a riot in Cawnpore led to heavy loss of life. Of those present at the riot, 106 were put on trial but subsequently released by the Viceroy before the case reached the Sessions, and His Excellency was able to settle the mosque difficulty by a compromise that was acceptable to the local and other Mahomedans.

Still more serious trouble occurred in September 1914, when a riot at Budge-Budge among a number of Sikh emigrants returned from Canada gave a foretaste of the revolutionary plans entertained by those men. The sequel, revealed in two conspiracy trials at Lahore, showed that the "Ghadr" conspiracy was widespread and had been consistently encouraged by Germany.

Lord Chelmsford as Viceroy.

Lord Hardinge, whose great services had been rewarded with the Knighthood of the Garter, left India in 1910 and was succeeded by Lord Chelmsford, whose tenure of office was destined to be one of the most eventful in the modern history of India. The part played by India in the war was developed in every possible way. Not only was the Indian Army increased but the resources of the country were developed with the help of the Munitions Board and India assumed responsibility for 100 millions of the war debt. The share of India in the Imperial burden of the war was emphasised in another and very significant way by her representation in the Imperial War Cabinet in London by His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner and Sir S. P. (Lord) Sinha. On the Frontier, where there had been numerous though comparatively slight disturbances in 1914-15, a punitive expedition had to be undertaken against the Mahsuds.

In 1917 Mr. Montagu, who had succeeded Mr. Chamberlain as Secretary of State, carried out the latter's intention of visiting India. The result of the visit was shown in the following year when a report was issued containing what is known as the joint scheme of reform evolved by the Secretary of State and the Viceroy. Shortly after this report there was issued a report by the Special Committee of Inquiry, over which Mr. Justice Rowlatt presided, into seditious crime in India. That report and the legislation which followed in 1918, with the new reform, led to a

newspaper and a tattoo which had to a great extent been in a state during the early years of the war.

Early in 1919 prolonged strikes in Bombay and elsewhere showed that India, though comparatively little affected by the economic results of the war, was confronted by industrial and economic problems which were none the less grave. The gravity of those problems was increased by the ravages of influenza which is supposed to have caused 6,000,000 deaths during the winter months of 1917-18. Disturbances broke out in April as a sequel to the passive resistance movement against the Rowlett Act (the Satyagraha Movement) which produced a situation to which there has been no parallel since the Mutiny. It is sufficient here to state that in Ahmedabad, Viramgam, Delhi, Lahore, Amritsar, Gujranwala and other places the crowd, by attacking life and property and by train wrecking and tearing up railway lines and telegraph wires, provoked a situation which could only be met by the proclamation of martial law and the enforcement of military measures for the protection of law-abiding subjects and for the suppression of disorder.

Exaggerated reports of those riots and of the effect of the Rowlett Act may be presumed to have had some influence on the Amir of Afghanistan when he declared war and invaded British territory. Amir Habibullah Khan, who had been loyal to his treaty obligations throughout the war, was murdered in February and, after a brief occupation of the throne by his brother Nasrullah Khan, his son Amanullah had been declared Amir. A sequel to this war was the renewal of trouble along a great part of the North Western frontier where the tribesmen who had at first appeared to be impressed by the British successes, took the offensive against our advance posts in the North Western Frontier. The war was early followed and the tribesmen were on a scale never previously reached in frontier war and made the campaign of unusual length.

The Government of India Bill, embodying Mr. Montagu's proposals for the popularisation of the system of Government, was passed in December.

The next year, 1920, more than any which preceded it, was distinguished by political agitation. The cause of this was in part the indignation created by the facts disclosed in the report of the Hunter Commission on the outbreaks of 1919 in the Punjab and elsewhere, and the stimulus given to the Khilafat agitation by the terms of the Peace treaty with Turkey.

Lord Reading's Viceroyalty.

The fruits of agitation were reaped in plenty in 1921, the first year of Lord Reading's term of office. Murderous outbreaks at Molegaon Dharwar and elsewhere were followed by a rebellion of the Moplahs in Malabar which assumed the most serious proportions and necessitated prolonged military operations.

It had been arranged that H. R. H. the Prince of Wales should visit India at the end of 1920 and should open the new Councils in 1921, but for reasons of health, that visit had to be postponed and H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught came to India early in 1921 in order to open the new Councils. The Prince's visit took place in 1921 and was essentially non-political.

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re d n n g h s u w s m a d
But simultaneously with the loyal display riots
broke out in more than one of the cities which
he visited. But after the imprisonment of some
of the leading agitators in the early part of 1922
the country enjoyed comparative quiet, except
in the Punjab where the Akali movement among
the Sikhs, which had started as a puritan religious
movement, developed into a political
movement attended by constant and wide-
spread disorder. The enhanced position of India
in the Empire and the position of India as a
nation entering actively into the work of the
League of Nations, were emphasised during the
year by the tour of the Dominions undertaken
by the Hon. S. Sastri.

The Salt Tax.

Early in 1929 a great deal of criticism was
excited by Lord Reading's certification of the
doubling of the salt tax, under the powers
conferred by the Reformed constitution, in
opposition to the clearly expressed will of the
Legislative Assembly. Objection was taken
to this step, not so much because an increase
in the Salt Tax had always been looked upon
as a measure to which resort should be made
only in grave emergencies, as because the finan-
cial powers of the elected chambers, much em-
phasised in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report,
were thus shown to be capable of restriction.

Break-up of non-co-operation.

Two causes combined during the year to
weaken the position of the extremists. The
first was the split in the Congress, the second
the rise of communal feeling between Hindus
and Mahomedans. The Congress split was
brought about by Mr. C. B. Das, who, realising
no doubt that Mr. Gandhi had failed and it
was unlikely that any other man would have
greater success by a rigid adherence to his meth-
ods, declared in favour of standing for the
Councils.

The other cause was the disappearance of the
surface unity between Hindus and Maho-
medans which Mr. Gandhi, helped by strong
feeling among Mahomedans on the Turkish
question, had temporarily contrived. The
split was followed by the formation of
two pan-Hindu movements: the Shuddhi
movement, announced by Swami Shradhanand,
which aimed at the re-conversion to Hinduism
of the Malkhana Rajputs and other low class
occupants of the fringe of Islam, and the
Sangathan movement of which Pandit Malaviya
was the sponsor and which aimed at teaching
Hindus physical exercises and sword play, so
that they might be the better able to protect
themselves. These two movements greatly
irritated the Mahomedans, and during the year
there were between fifteen and twenty serious
Hindu-Mahomedan riots, occurring in all parts
of India.

Violent Movements.

In the Punjab the Akali movement showed
an increasing tendency to forget the teachings
of Mr. Gandhi. The Babar Akalis murdered
several of their co-religionists whose political
views they did not approve, and the Akali Dal
became a more definitely military organiza-
tion acting directly under the orders of the
Shrine Committee. After a of ma-
jorment and strike against the neigh-
bouring state of Patiala, the Maharaja of Nabha

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movement became sufficiently formidable
both the Akali Dal and the Shrine Committee
to be declared illegal associations. Many ar-
rests were made; but, owing to the lack of
unity in the extremist camp, an attempt of the
Congress to secure all India support for the Akali
had a meagre result.

During the year there were an unusual num-
ber of frontier outrages. Several officers were
shot, and worldwide attention was attracted
by the kidnapping of Molly Ellis, after the
murder of her mother, and by her heroic rescue
by Mrs. Starr. Coupled with the slow rate of
progress of the operations in Waziristan, these
continued incidents provoked some comment.

There was also a sensational revival of the
pre-war anarchical societies in Bengal, but the
range of their achievements was small.

Mr. Gandhi's Release.

Mr. Gandhi's premature release from Yerowda
jail in consequence of an operation for ap-
pendicitis temporarily revived the drooping
hopes of the extremists, but any idea that he
would organize another huge anti-Government
movement was rapidly shattered. The breach
between him and Mr. Das steadily widened
and the belief of Hindu politicians in Mr.
Gandhi's common sense diminished though their
esteem for his character remained as high
as ever. Moreover the feeling between Hindus
and Mahomedans which had suddenly appeared
the previous year darkened the whole face of
the country. With the abolition of the Khlia-
fat by Mustafa Kemal in March the *rason
d'etre* of the famous pact between Mr. Gandhi
and the Alis was destroyed and animosity no
longer felt the restraint of political expediency.
The Hindu conversion and organization move-
ments of *Shuddhi* and *Sangathan* were opposed
by exactly parallel Mahomedan movements
Taligh and *Tanzim*; rumours were frequent
that some mysterious All-India Mahomedan
clique was planning aggressive action against
Hindus; and excitement was brought to fever
heat by the riots in the Frontier Province,
the Punjab, the United Provinces, Delhi, Cal-
cutta, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad
which broke out during the autumn season of
religious festivals. In September Mr. Gandhi
decided on a 21 days' fast, which he successfully
accomplished, partly as an expiation for his
share in the bad feeling, and partly to draw the
attention of the country to the urgency of the
problem. Simultaneously a conference of re-
presentatives of all communities, including the
Metropolitan and other English visitors was
called at Delhi to decide what steps could be
taken to bring about a better state of affairs.
The conference passed some excellent resolutions,
but on the very day when Mr. Gandhi's fast
ended riots again broke out, and what gave
the matter a grave aspect was that the date of
the riots had been predicted and it was commonly
said that they had been carefully planned for
that very day.

Reforms Imperilled.

The year saw the final collapse of non co-
operation. Though Mr. Gandhi and a dwind-
ling band of followers clung to *khaddar* and the
riple boycott, lawyers od to their
and stoden a finally des
paired of national edu and th bent

ban on non-cooperation followed Mr. Das's Councils. The programme announced by Mr. Das was to wreck the Beroms, and in this ambition he was reasonably near success. Obstructive tactics effected the resignation of the Ministers in the Central Provinces and Bengal and left these two provinces to be administered by Governors without democratic help, but in other parts of India the Councils did well in the circumstances.

Underground the revolutionary movement continued. A series of attacks took place in Bengal and elsewhere, criticism by associating the movement with the murder of an inoffensive Englishman in Calcutta.

The third attempt to climb Everest came very near to success. A height 800 feet from the top was reached, but in an effort to accomplish the last stretch Mallory and Irvine were killed. It was not established whether they had or had not reached the top.

India in 1925 and 1926.

In 1925 the extremists received a sad blow by the death of Mr. C. R. Das, leader of the Swarajist Party. His death took the Party completely aback, and the counsel of Mr. Gandhi had to be sought in order to deal with this disastrous situation. Mr. Gandhi sent an invitation to Arabindo Ghose, a Bengali *littérateur* and reputed thaumaturge who since the assassinations of 1908 and 1909 has been living on French territory at Pondicherry, to take command of the Swarajist band. Mr. Ghose declined with thanks, and the lot thereupon fell upon Mr. Sen Gupta, a Bengali politician of whom for the rest of the year little was heard outside Bengal. From this point the falling away of Swarajists from the old austere principle of ruthless and irreconcilable obstruction proceeded apace. First Mr. Tambe, a Swarajist in the Central Provinces, accepted an Executive Councilorship from the alien Government, next Mr. Patel, a Bombay Swarajist, took the Presidential chair in the Assembly and expressed his readiness if necessary to meet the Viceroy nine times a day, and then others in Bombay and the Central Provinces adopted the policy of "responsive co-operation"—a phrase denoting a critical attitude towards Government coupled with readiness in certain circumstances to receive a lucrative post from Government. The political sky, in fact, brightened considerably.

The principal event of the year in India was the arrival in April of Lord Irwin as Viceroy, on the retirement of Lord Reading from that office.

Indian political history during 1926 was a record of continuous improvement in the outlook. The Swarajists in the Indian Legislative Assembly proved to be of less account than in any session since their first entry into that body in January 1924. Their prestige similarly diminished in the Provincial Legislative Councils, where they had hitherto enjoyed dominating power. The proximity of the General Elections to all the legislatures in the autumn of the year filled them with the desire of some dramatic effort to catch the imagination of the constituencies and they consequently organised spectacular *walk-outs* from the legislatures. The first took place in the Punjab. Every effort short of a

striking parade in the Punjab. The Leader of the Swarajist party in the Punjab accompanied the move by quitting the chair. Had he done so, there would have been an awkward constitutional crisis. But Mr. Patel refused and the demonstration fell flat. The same may be said of corresponding efforts in the Provincial Councils.

But the outstanding political feature of the year was the profound aggravation or the tension and bitterness between the Hindu and Moslem communities. This resulted in grave riots in Calcutta and in similar disturbances, less only in magnitude, in numerous smaller centres in Upper India. This increase of communal trouble was directly associated with the propaganda carried on by leaders of political opinion in preparation for and in connection with the General Elections. The elections themselves were marked by no riotous outbreak of importance but they were largely fought on communal lines not only as between Hindus and Moslems but as between Brahmins and non-Brahmins and on lines of local personal and sectional rivalries. Nowhere did candidates appeal to the voters on broad grounds of public policy nor even was much heard of the great constitutional issue and of the appeals made by the Secretary of State and successive Viceroys for the co-operation of all political classes to work the existing Constitution in preparation for the next constitutional inquiry required by statute.

An important development during the year was the appointment of a Commission by the Royal Exchange and the functions hitherto exercised by Government in connection with these matters should in future be carried out by the newly instituted Indian Reserve Bank, that the Gold Standard Reserve and the Paper Currency Reserve should be amalgamated for the purpose and that there should be instituted a new Gold Bullion Standard, with the rupee exchange ratio fixed at 1s. 6d. gold. The Government of India, at the autumn session of their legislature, immediately after the issue of the report, announced their acceptance of the Commission's recommendation with regard to the exchange ratio and introduced a bill to give effect to it.

Another event of great importance to Indian economic welfare during the year was the appointment early in the year and the arrival in India, in August, of a Royal Commission to inquire into questions concerning the improvement of Indian agriculture. The body, consisting of Sir John Selwyn Selous, as its President, and Sir John Selwyn Selous, as its Vice-President, spent the cold weather carrying on its investigations in the Provinces.

Events in 1927.

Tension between the Hindu and Mahomedan communities continued during 1927 and was marked by several outbreaks of violence which drew from H. E. the Viceroy more than one weighty pronouncement and an offer to preside at a conference on the subject if the leaders of the two communities thought that any good could thereby be served. More than one vain attempt was made, as in previous

years, to arrive at an agreement between the two communities, particularly on the most vexed questions of cow-killing and music before mosques. Towards the end of the year the announcement was made in Parliament of a purely Parliamentary Commission, under the chairmanship of Sir John Simon, to inquire into the government of the country, and this aroused a storm of indignant protest throughout the country. The Liberals joined in the protest mainly because no Indians were included in the personnel of the Commission; the National Congress, which passed a resolution in favour of complete national independence, protested mainly on the ground that Parliament had no right to determine what should be the future form of government in India; and both these parties joined in proclaiming a boycott of the Commission. The Mahomedans were divided

on the question, but the majority of them were opposed to the boycott policy.

Apart from politics and long discussions involved by the Reserve Bank Bill, the year was memorable as one of disaster. Great floods occurred in Sind, Kathiawar, Gujarat and Orissa; a cyclone swept over Nellore and a devastating fire took place in Peshawar—all making great demands on the resources of Government and the generosity of the public.

The visit of His Majesty the King of Afghanistan to Karachi and Bombay, on his way to Europe, was made the occasion for a very remarkable outburst of popular enthusiasm. His Majesty, who was accompanied by the Queen, stayed some days in Bombay and his replies to many addresses, and his sermon in a mosque, advocating religious tolerance, created a great sensation.

The Government of India.

The impulse which drove the British to India was not conquest but trade. The Government of India represents the slow evolution from conditions established to meet trading requirements. On September 24, 1599, a few years before the deaths of Queen Elizabeth and Akbar, the merchants of London formed an association for the purpose of establishing direct trade with the East and were granted a charter of incorporation. The Government of this Company in England was vested in a Governor with a General Court of Proprietors and a Court of Directors. The factories and affairs of the Company on the East and West Coast of India, and in Bengal, were administered at each of the principal settlements of Madras (Fort St. George), Bombay and Calcutta (Fort William), by a President or Governor and a Council consisting of the senior servants of the Company. The three "Presidencies" were independent of each other and subordinate only to the Directors in England.

Territorial Responsibility Assumed.

The collapse of government in India consequent on the decay of Moghul power and the intrigues of the French on the East Coast forced the officers of the Company to assume territorial responsibility in spite of their own desires and the insistent orders of the Directors. Step by step the Company became first the dominant, then the paramount power in India. In these changed circumstances the system of government by mutually independent and unwieldy councils of the merchants at the Presidency towns gave rise to grave abuses. Parliament intervened, and under the Regulating Act of 1773, a Governor-General and four councillors were appointed to the Fort William

supremacy of that Presidency over Madras and Bombay was for the first time established. The subordinate Presidencies were forbidden to wage war or make treaties without the previous consent of the Governor-General or Bengal in Council, except in cases of imminent necessity. Pitt's Act of 1784, which established the Board of Control in England, vested the administration of each of the three Presidencies in a Governor and three councillors, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Presidency Army. The control of the Governor-General-in-Council was somewhat extended, as it was again by the Charter Act of 1793. Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company was compelled to close its commercial business and it became a political and administrative body holding its territories in trust for the Crown. The same Act vested the direction of the entire civil and military administration and sole power of legislation in the Governor-General-in-Council, and defined more clearly the nature and extent of the control to be extended over the subordinate governments. After the Mutiny, there was passed, in 1858, an Act transferring the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. This Act made no important change in the administration in India, but the Governor-General, as representing the Crown, became known as the Viceroy. The Governor-General is the sole representative of the Crown in India; he is assisted by a Council, composed of high officials, each of whom is responsible for a special department of the administration.

Functions of Government.

The functions of the Government of India are perhaps the most of any great administration in the world. It claims a share

in the produce of the land and in the Punjab and Bombay it has restricted the alienation of land from agriculturists to non-agriculturists. It undertakes the management of landed estates where the proprietor is disqualified. In times of famine it undertakes relief work and other remedial measures on a great scale. It manages a vast forest property and is the principal manufacturer of salt and opium. It owns the bulk of the railways of the country, and directly manages a considerable portion of them; it has constructed and maintains most of the important irrigation works; it owns and manages the post and telegraph systems; it has the monopoly of the Note issue, and it alone can set the mints in motion.

It lends money to municipalities, rural boards and agriculturists and occasionally to owners of historic estates. It controls the sale of liquor and intoxicating drugs and has direct responsibilities in respect to police, education, medical and sanitary operations and ordinary public works of the most intimate character. The Government has also close relations with the Indian States which collectively cover more than one-third of the whole area of India and comprise more than one-fifth of its population. The distribution of these great functions between the Government of India and the provincial administrations has fluctuated and was definitely regulated by the Reform Act of 1919.

THE REFORMS OF 1919.

Great changes were made in the system of government in British India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the rules framed under it—almost as important in their provisions as the Act itself—came into general operation in January 1921. The Act was the outcome of an inquiry conducted in India in the winter of 1917-18 by the Secretary of State (Mr. Montagu) and the Viceroy (Lord Chelmsford), the results of which were embodied in their Report on Indian Constitutional Reform issued in the spring of 1918. The recommendations in this report were supplemented by those of two Committees which toured in India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919.

The Divisions.—British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In nine of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, Burma, and Assam—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. In 1922 Burma, which was excluded from the original scheme, was brought into line with it. An Act of Parliament was passed, constituting Burma a Governor's Province, with a Governor, an Executive Council and Ministers, and a Legislative Council elected on a very democratic franchise, which gave the vote to women. The remaining six provinces are directly administered by Chief Agents

of the Central Government of India. No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the system of administration in these six minor provinces.

Dyarchy.—In these nine provinces the executive Government is a dual organism which owes its unity to the Governor. One half of the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council, all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are "reserved." The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure, and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of "transferred" subjects.

The Object.—The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India in modification of the previous system under which the Governments in India, both central and provincial, received their mandates from the British Parliament acting through the Secretary of State for India, the Cabinet Minister responsible to Parliament for the administration of Indian affairs.

The Provinces.—Starting from the premise that it was in the provinces that the first substantial steps must be taken towards the development of a system of responsible government, the framers of the Act of 1919 provided for a statutory demarcation of the functions to be exercised by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments respectively, in their administrative capacity. No attempt was made in this connection to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature, which still retains a concurrent (though not an overriding) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general and of individual provinces; but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in

provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified.

Finance.—The “revenues of India”—or, rather, their sources—are definitely divided between the Central and Provincial Governments; the Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their “allocated” revenues, they have power to supplement them by raising loans on the security of these revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor-General’s sanction, to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised.

It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governors’ provinces, the province of Bihar and Orissa, owing to the comparative exigency and inelasticity of its own

revenues, having been exempted from this contribution. The aggregate sum thus due from the provinces to the Government of India at the outset is Rs. 988 lakhs, of which Madras contributes Rs. 348 lakhs, the United Provinces Rs. 240 lakhs, the Punjab Rs. 175 lakhs, and the other four provinces sums ranging from Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 64 lakhs. The annual contribution is in no case to be subject to increase in the future, and if reduction of the aggregate is found possible by the Government of India, reductions are to be made in fixed proportions from the quota of the several provinces.

Responsibility.—The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority (which the Act fixes at 70 per cent. as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules have given the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any “Governor’s province” to extend the franchise to women. The following table shows the strength and composition of each of the Provincial Councils:—

Province.	Elected.	Nominated and <i>ex-officio</i> .		Total.
		Officials.	Non-officials.	
Madras	98	23	8	127
Bombay	86	20	5	111
Bengal	113	20	6	139
United Provinces	100	18	5	123
Punjab	71	16	6	93
Bihar and Orissa	76	18	9	103
Central Provinces	53	10	5	68
Assam	39	9	5	53
Burma	78	15	8	101

The figures for officials in this table are maxima in every case, and where less than the maximum number of officials is nominated to any Council, the number of nominated non-officials must be increased in proportion; *e.g.*, if there are only 16 officials (nominated and *ex-officio*) on the United Provinces Council there must be seven

nominated non-officials. The official members who have seats *ex-officio* are the members of the Executive Council, who are at present four in number, the statutory maximum in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal, three in Bihar and Orissa, and two in each of the remaining provinces. These Executive Councils contain an equal

number of Indian and British members except in Bihar and Orissa where two of the three members are British officials.

Electorates.—The electorates in each province are arranged for the most part on a basis which is designed to give separate representation to the various races, communities, and

special interests into which the of the Indian population naturally divides. Although there are from province to province, their character in one province give a sufficiently clear position.

Class of Electorate.							No. of Electorates of this Class
Non-Muhammadan	42
Muhammadan	34
European	3
Anglo-Indian (in the technical sense of persons of mixed European and Asiatic descent).							1
Landholders	5
University	1
Commerce and Industry	8
Total							94

Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, i.e., each constituency consists of a group of electors, having the prescribed qualifications which entitle them to a vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a "Muhammadan" or "non-Muhammadan" constituency is a district (or where districts are large and populous, half a district) in the case of rural constituencies, and, in the case of urban constituencies, a group of adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six "non-Muhammadan" and two "Muhammadan" the latter, of course, being coterminous with the former.

Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those which are designed to represent special interests, such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as "special" constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadan, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as "general" constituencies.

Voters' Qualifications.—The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province, chiefly on

ing, both in rural and urban areas is based on a property qualification by the payment of a prescribed revenue or of its equivalent or of municipal taxes, but in all pensioned or discharged officers of regular army are entitled to the vote of the amount of their income.

Election Results.—A Parliamentary (Cmd. 2923), published in 1923, following summary of election results relates to the third General Election place in 1923, except in the case of State and the Burma Legislative elections to which took place in 1924. In the case of the elections were the second Act of 1919, because the Council life-time of five years as compared years in the case of the Legislative and the Provincial Councils or Reforms were inaugurated in Bengal later than in other provinces.

The figures given for the number who voted and the percentages who voted to the number on the are, in the case of plural member approximate only. In these each elector has as many votes seats to be filled and the figures on the assumption that each elector votes, that is, the figure given as who voted is the

of variations in the laws and form the basis of the or property valued. G speak the of votes polled by seats to be filled

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candi- dates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Con- stituencies.	Per- centage in 1923.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Madras Legislative Council.

Non Muhammadan, urban	9	—	19	69.69	60.5
rural	56	6	113	46.59	34.0
Muhammadan, urban	3	—	4	50.78	59.6
rural	11	5	21	56.52	52.8
Indian Christians	5	—	13	69.35	59.3
European	1	1	1	—	—
Anglo-Indian	1	—	3	68.30	—
Landholders	6	2	11	94.83	73.1
University	1	1	1	—	55.8
Planters	1	1	1	—	—
European Commerce	8	3	3	—	—
Indian Commerce	2	1	3	97.8	—
Total	98	20	193	48.29	30.3

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,377,466.

Of the 173 candidates for contested seats, 15 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Bombay Legislative Council.

Non Muhammadan, urban	11	—	39	35.59	37.5
rural	35	1	82	42.92	30.4
Muhammadan, urban	5	—	15	36.50	39.7
rural	23	3	49	38.32	52.1
European	2	2	2	—	—
Landholders	3	—	9	63.61	38.5
University	1	—	3	65.73	60.5
European Commerce	4	4	4	—	—
Indian Commerce	3	2	5	60.94	68.6
Total	56	12	203	40.55	48.2

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 778,321.

Of the 96 candidates seats 36 forfeited their deposit having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Class of Constituency.	No. of seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candi- dates for contested Seats
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

Bengal Legislative Council.

Non-Muhammadan, urban	11	3	1
rural	37	6	73
Muhammadan, urban	8	1	1
rural	33	3	11
Landholders	3	—	14
Universities	2	—	3
European, General	3	5	—
Commerce	11	11	11
Anglo-Indian	2	—	4
Indian Commerce	4	2	—
Total	114	31	134

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,184,784.

Of the 221 candidates for the contested seats, 50 forfeited their deposit and secured one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

United Provinces Legislative Council

Non-Muhammadan, urban	8	1	1
rural	52	5	145
Muhammadan, urban	4	—	1
rural	25	7	71
European	1	—	—
Landholders	6	1	10
University	1	—	—
Commerce, European	2	2	—
" Indian	1	1	1
Total	100	17	233

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,508,673

Of the 211 candidates for the contested seats, 30 forfeited their deposit and secured one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Punjab Legislative Council

Non-Muhammadan, urban	7	1	17
rural	13	—	31
Muhammadan, urban	5	—	12
rural	27	6	62
Sikhs	12	5	19
Landholders	4	4	1
University	1	—	2
Commerce	1	1	1
Industry	1	—	—
Total	71	17	162

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 702,835

Of the 2 candidates for the contested seats, 9 forfeited their deposit and secured one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candi- dates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Con- stituencies.	Per- centage in 1923.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council.

Non-Muhammadian, urban ..	6		13	49.4	48.7
" rural ..	42	6	96	62.5	52.8
Muhammadian, urban ..	3		7	61.2	52.9
" rural ..	15	2	32	64.5	60.6
European ..	1	1	1		
Landholders ..	5	2	9	35.5	51.7
University ..	1		3	85.5	73.7
Planters, European ..	1	1	1		
Mining, Indian ..	1	1	1		
" European ..	1	1	1		
Total ..	76	14	163	60.54	52.2

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 374,518.

Of the 149 candidates for contested seats, 17 forfeited their deposits, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Council.

Non-Muhammadian, urban ..	9	1	23	58.18	56.0
" rural ..	32	2	76	58.86	57.4
Muhammadian, urban ..	1	1	1		65.6
" rural ..	6	1	14	67.12	56.8
Landholders ..	3		7	70.05	61.6
Mining ..	1		2	68.0	83.3
Commerce and Industry ..	2	1	3	72.9	71.7
University ..	1		3	91.36	98.0
Total ..	55	7	132	61.0	67.7

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 170,924.

Of the 125 candidates for contested seats, 12 forfeited their deposit having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Assam Legislative Council.

Non-Muhammadian, urban ..	1		3	55.3	52.2
" rural ..	20	6	40	34.83	38.2
Muhammadian, rural ..	12	1	26	53.69	49.0
Planters ..	5	5	5		
Commerce (European) ..	1		2	92.1	
Total ..	39	12	76	44.17	42.1

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 240,747.

Of the 64 candidates for the contested seats 3 forfeited their deposit having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Election results

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candi- dates for contested Seats
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

Burma Legislative Council.

General urban..	14	1	36
Indian, urban	8	1	19
General, rural	5	3	7
General rural	44	3	149
Bengalo Indian	1	..	2
European	1	1	1
Commerce	5	5	5
University	1	1	1
Total	79	16	220

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,821,155

Legislative Assembly.

Dras—						
Non Muhammadan	10	3	20
Muhammadan	3	2	7
European	1	1	1
Landholders	1	..	2
Indian Commerce	1	1	1
Amoy—						
Non-Muhammadan	7	1	15
Muhammadan	4	..	10
European	2	2	2
Landholders	1	1	1
Indian Commerce	2	2	2
Legal—						
Non Muhammadan	6	2	10
Muhammadan	6	..	13
European	3	3	3
Landholders	1	..	3
Indian Commerce	1	1	1
United Provinces—						
Non Muhammadan	8	2	16
Muhammadan	6	2	12
European	1	1	1
Landholders	1	1	1
Amoy—						
Non Muhammadan	3	..	7
Muhammadan	6	1	15
European	2	1	3
Landholders	1	..	4
Orissa and Orissa						
Non Muhammadan	8	..	17
Muhammadan	3	..	6
Landholders	1	1	1

Class of Constituency.	No of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candi- dates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Con- stituencies.	Per- centage in 1923.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Legislative Assembly—*contd.*

Central Provinces and Berar—					
Non-Muhammadan	4	1	7	75.05	44.1
Muhammadan	1	1	1	—	—
Landholders	1	—	2	37.8	—
Assam—					
Non-Muhammadan	2	1	5	56.40	—
Muhammadan	1	—	3	52.43	44.0
European	1	1	1	—	—
Delhi (General)	1	—	3	65.0	30.0
Burma—					
Non-European	3	—	4	13.77	23.3
European	1	1	1	—	—
Ajmer-Merwara (General) ..	1	—	3	66.42	74.5
Total ..	105	34	206	48.07	41.9

	Provincial per- centage of votes polled in contested constituencies.	No. of candidates who forfeited deposit.
Madras	43.44	3
Bombay	46.18	6
Bengal	42.12	6
United Provinces	51.76	1
Punjab	62.79	4
Bihar and Orissa	52.57	—
Central Provinces and Berar ..	75.2	—
Assam	54.25	—
Burma	13.77	—
Delhi	65.0	—
Ajmer-Merwara	66.42	1

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,125,662.

TOTAL NUMBER OF VOTERS IN CONSTITUENCIES.. .. 835,437

NUMBER OF VOTES POLLED " " " " " " 401,575

Women Voters.

A the time of the
ing figures give the
case of one province

in 1923 in en-
chised in each province, and the
where no record was kept of male or female voters

in six provinces. The follow-
bar who voted except in he

Election results

A Provincial Legislative Councils

Province.	No. enrolled.	No. enrolled in contested constituencies.	No. voted
(1)	(2)	(3)	
Madras	114,199	108,875	1
Bombay	38,478	37,974	
United Provinces	75,105	69,797	
Punjab	16,655	13,280	
Burma	102,177	100,417	

B.—Legislative Assembly.

Madras	18,375	13,179	
Bombay	4,104	2,810	
United Provinces	6,071	4,627	
Punjab	2,065	1,217	
Burma	5,193	Not recorded	

Council of State.

(Second Election of 1925.)

Place and Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candidates.	Total No. of Electors.	Total No. of Electors who voted
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Madras—					
Non-Muhammadian	4	—	7	2,539	217
Muhammadian	1	—	2	132	122
Bombay—					
Non-Muhammadian	3	—	6	1,278	200
Muhammadian	1	—	4	115	103
(Sind)	1	1	1	282	—
Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	51	—
Bengal—					
East: Non-Muhammadian	1	1	1	500	—
West:	2	—	4	882	—
East: Muhammadian	1	—	4	532	8
West:	1	—	4	201	1
Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	137	—
United Provinces—					
Northern: Non-Muhammadian	1	—	4	889	137
Central;	1	1	1	637	—
Southern	1	—	2	1,475	931
East: Muhammadian	1	1	1	201	—
West:	1	—	2	293	217
Punjab—					
Non-Muhammadian	1	1	1	1,038	—
Muhammadian	1	—	2	1,052	113
Sikh	1	—	2	519	200
Bihar and Orissa—					
Non-Muhammadian	3	—	9	1,970	1,500
Muhammadian	1	—	2	422	300
Central Provinces: General	1	—	4	662	477
Berar: General	1	1	1	402	—
Assam: Muhammadian	1	1	1	71	—
Burma—					
General	1	—	2	15,480	764
Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	69	—
Total	34	10	70	32,126	9,704

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Old System.—But although the Legislative Councils (which, originally created in two provinces only in addition to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, existed in 1919 in nine provinces) had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood, they still remained in theory up to the of the Act of 1919 sessions to the E of the Act of 1919 for the of on, and

(b) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorize such expenditure as may be in his power for the safety or tranquillity of this State or for the carrying on of any business and

(c) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor, communicated to the council.

(3) Nothing in the foregoing sub-section shall require proposals to be submitted to the council relating to the following heads of expenditure:—

(i) Contributions payable by the local government to the Governor-General in Council; and

(ii) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans; and

(iii) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and

(iv) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and

(v) Salaries of judges of the high court of the provinces and of the advocate-general.

If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final.

Executive and Legislature.—In the light of these facts it is now possible to explain more exactly the relationship between the provincial executive and the provincial legislature. The dual character of the former has already been mentioned, and the corresponding bifurcation of provincial subjects into "reserved" and "transferred" categories. The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self-Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The "reserved" subjects comprise all those in the list of "provincial" (as distinct from "central") subjects which are not transferred.

Machinery.—No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council, decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before, to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an important factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature, who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, will be able, and in fact are expected, to make their felt by the in the But

these factors, while they will doubtless lead to constant endeavour on the part of one official half of the Government to accommodate its policy to the wishes of its ministerial colleagues and of the majority of the legislature, and to avoid situations which involve resort to the enforcement of its decisions in the face of popular opposition, are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government, and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof, to lay down and require the observance of any principles which they regard as having the support of Parliament and, in the last resort of the British electorate

Transfer of Control.—With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British elector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and just as each member of the Executive Council has charge of a portfolio consisting of a specified list of "reserved" subjects or "departments," so each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred "departments" which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, not, as in the case of a member of the Executive Council, to the Government of India, the Secretary of State and Parliament, but to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from the restrictions just noticed which necessarily qualify its control over the "reserved" subjects. It is thus within the power of the Provincial Council to insist on the pursuit of a policy of its own choice in the administration of transferred subjects by withdrawing its confidence from a Minister who departs from that policy and bestowing it only on a successor who will follow its mandate; and this power is dependent on the provincial elector in virtue of his freedom to control the composition of the Legislative Council by the use which he makes of his vote. No doubt this statement requires some qualification before it can be accepted as literally accurate, for, technically, the authority charged with the administration of transferred subjects is "the Governor acting with Ministers appointed under this Act," not the Ministers acting on their own initiative, and, further, the Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council, is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquility of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to the of a department from the list if he found the legislature a policy in its administration

which, in his judgment, was incompatible with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity; yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great, and it was the opinion at all events of the Joint Select Committee that Legislature and Ministers should be allowed to exercise them with the greatest possible freedom. "If after hearing all the arguments," observed the Committee, "Ministers should decide not to adopt his advice, then in the opinion of the Committee the Governor should ordinarily allow Ministers to have their way, fixing the responsibility upon them, even if it may subsequently be necessary for him to vote any particular piece of legislation. It is not possible but that in India, as in all other countries, mistakes will be made by Ministers acting with the approval of a majority of the Legislative Council, but there is no way of learning except through experience and the realisation of responsibility."

Provision of Funds.—The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves of the executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made "for the allocation of revenues or moneys for the purpose of such 'administration' i.e., the administration of transferred subjects by the Governor acting with Ministers". Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an "order of allocation" or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. The passage is as follows:—

"The Committee have given much attention to the difficult question of the principle on which the provincial revenues and balances should be distributed between the two sides of the provincial governments. They are confident that the problem can readily be solved by the simple process of common sense and reasonable give-and-take, but they are aware that this question might, in certain circumstances, become the cause of much fric-

tion in the provincial government, and they are of opinion that the rules governing the allocation of these revenues and balances should be framed so as to make the existence of such friction impossible. They advise that, if the Governor, in the course of preparing either his first or any subsequent budget, find that there is likely to be a serious or protracted difference of opinion between the Executive Council and his Ministers on this subject he should be empowered at once to make an allocation of revenue and balances between the reserved and transferred subjects which should continue for at least the whole life of the existing Legislative Council. The Committee do not endorse the suggestion that certain sources of revenue should be allocated to reserved and certain sources to transferred subjects, but they recommend that the Governor should allocate a definite proportion of the revenue, say, by way of illustration, two-thirds to reserved and one-third to transferred subjects, and similarly a proportion though not necessarily the same fraction of the balances. If the Governor desires assistance in making the allocation, he should be allowed at his discretion to refer the question to be decided to such authority as the Governor-General shall appoint. Further, the Committee are of opinion that it should be laid down from the first that, until an agreement which both sides of the Government will equally support has been reached, or until an allocation has been made by the Governor, the total provisions of the different expenditure heads in the budget of the province for the preceding financial year shall hold good.

The Committee desire that the relation of the two sides of the Government in this matter as in all others, should be of such mutual sympathy that each will be able to assist and influence for the common good the work of the other, but not to exercise control over it. The budget should not be capable of being used as a means for enabling Ministers or a majority of the Legislative Council to direct the policy of reserved subjects; but on the other hand the Executive Council should be helpful to Ministers in their desire to develop the departments entrusted to their care. On the Governor personally will devolve the task of holding the balance between the legitimate needs of both sets of his advisers."

THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT.

The structural changes made by the Act of 1919 in the system of government outside the nine "Governors provinces" are of comparatively minor scope, though the spirit of the Act requires, as has already been shown, considerable modification of the relationship hitherto subsisting between the Provincial Governments on the one hand and the Government of India and the Secretary of State in Council on the other. The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the Governor-General's Executive Council (which, however has had the far

tution in a much more enlarged representative and independent form of the central legislature. It has already been observed that this body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor-General's Executive Council with the addition of certain "additional members" appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of "additional members," who of course under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers over the members proper, i.e., the Executive

that three of the eight members of the are now) and the reconstr

ore, still up to the passing of the Act of 1919 That Act, has on the the

as it is now called, which has become, like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such as are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The "Council of State" contains 60 members, of whom 34 are elected (including one member to represent Berar, who, though technically nominated, is nominated as the result of elections held in Berar) and 26 nominated, of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The "Legislative Assembly" consists of 144 members, of whom 104 are elected (including in the case of the Council of State, one Berar member, who, though actually elected, is technically a nominee). Of the 40 nominated members, 26 are required to be officials. The members of the Governor-General's Executive Council are not *ex-officio* members of either Chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber, and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Executive Council may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a nominee of the Governor-General, as also, for the first four years after the constitution of the Chamber, is the President of the Legislative Assembly. But after that period the Lower Chamber is to elect its own President, and it elects its own Deputy-President from the outset. The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years; but either Chamber, or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor-General.

Election.—The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils, it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909 for the unicameral central legislature which no longer exists. Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described, except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and past service with the colours is not *per se* a qualification for the franchise, and *secondly*, that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis, that is a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province.

The following table shows the allotment of the elective seats:—

	Legislative Assembly,	Council of State,
Madras	16	6
Bombay	16	6
Bengal	17	6
United Provinces ..	16	5
Punjab	12	4

Bihar and Orissa ..	12	3
Central Provinces ..	6	2
Assam	4	1
Burma	4	2
Delhi	1	.
	104	34

Since the area which returns perhaps 80 members to a Provincial Council is the same as the area which returns perhaps 12 members to the Legislative Assembly—namely, the entire province in each case—it follows that on the direct election system this area must be split into constituencies which are much larger than the constituencies for the local Councils, and just as it is generally correct to say that the normal area unit for those rural constituencies for the latter which are arranged on a territorial basis is the district, it may be said that the normal area unit in the case of the Legislative Assembly is the Division (the technical term for the administrative group of districts controlled by a Divisional Commissioner).

The Franchise.—The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is thus that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for, and stand for election to, the Provincial Council, and that a selected number of these voters are qualified to vote for and stand for election to those seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon.

The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a "Senate of Elder Statesmen" and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a true revising Chamber. With this object, in addition and as an alternative to a high property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council, the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature.

Powers.—The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the "central" sphere from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same rights of voting supplies for the

But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre, the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces, and as consequently the Executive Government of India remains legally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfilment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred

on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces; that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects.

THE INDIA OFFICE.

The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of office of the members of the Secretary of State's Council, and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over, as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency, as distinct from administrative supervision and control. The process of separation of staff and functions for the purpose of this transfer will necessarily be somewhat slow, but a substantial beginning has been made by handing over to the direct control of the High Commissioner the large departments which are concerned with the ordering and supply of stores and stationery in England for Government use in India, with the payment of pensions to retired members of Indian services resident in the United Kingdom, and with the assistance of

Indian students in England. Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions.

In due course the apportionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected; then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. Until that time arrives, however, an estimate was the only basis for settlement, and for five years from 1920-21, the cost of the India Office payable from British revenues has been fixed at £36,500*l.*, which includes the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and a contribution of £4,000*l.*, which has for some years been made by the Treasury towards Indian expenditure, as the result of the recommendations of the Welby Commission.

THE FUTURE.

The Act of 1919 and its provisions are essentially transitional. It is intended, not to set up a new and permanent constitution, but to make such changes in the law as will enable "the progressive realisation of responsible Government in British India as an integral part of the Empire." This feature of the Act was clearly expressed in its Preamble but although the Preamble finds no place in the law as amended by the Act of 1919, that law now contains provision for the appointment, after a period of 10 years' trial of the law in its amended form, of a Parliamentary Commission "for the purpose of inquiring into the working of the system of government, the growth of education, and the development of representative institutions in British India, and matters connected therewith," and such a Commission, when appointed, is directed to "report as to whether it is desirable to establish the principle of responsible government, or to extend, modify, or restrict the degree of responsible government then existing" in British India.

Statutory Commission appointed. On November 8, 1927, the Prime Minister (Mr Baldwin) made the following statement in the House of Commons, announcing the appointment, personnel and programme of the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms.

"As the House will remember, one of the provisions contained in the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 required, 'at the expiration of ten years after the passing of that Act, the

appointment, with the concurrence of both Houses of Parliament, of persons to be a Commission to inquire into the working of the Indian Constitution and to consider the desirability of establishing, extending, modifying, or restricting the degree of responsible government then existing there. The Government have decided, for various reasons which I need not now specify that it is desirable to anticipate the date (December, 1929) contemplated by the Act, and to appoint this most important Royal Commission forthwith.

Balancing the various considerations and endeavouring to give due weight to each, His Majesty's Government have decided upon the following procedure:—

(a) They propose to recommend to His Majesty that the Statutory Commission should be composed as follows:—

The Right Hon. Sir John Simon, K.C.V.O., K.C. (Chairman).

Viscount Burnham, G.C.M.G., C.H. Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal.

The Hon. E. C. G. Cadogan, C.B.

The Right Hon. Stephen Walsh. (It was subsequently announced that owing to ill-health, Mr. Walsh would be unable to serve and Mr. Vernon Hartsborn was nominated in his place.)

Colonel the Right Hon. G. R. Lane-Fox. Major C. R. Atlee.

These names will be submitted to both a Bench

The Government of India

Many Government and to the Commission what shall follow but they are of opinion that in taking evidence would be stated if it were to invite the Central Legislature to appoint a Joint Select Committee, chosen from its elected and nominal members, which would draw up proposals in writing and lay them before the Commission for examination in such manner as the latter may decide. The Commission remain in being for any consultation the Commission might desire at stages of the inquiry. It should be understood that the purpose of the Commission is not to limit the discretion of the Government in hearing other witnesses:

Majesty's Government suggest that the procedure should be adopted with the Legislatures:

vast area to be covered may make that the task of taking evidence is purely administrative questions could be undertaken by some other body which would be in the closest touch with the Commission. His Majesty's Government think that the Commission on arrival

in India should on the day of its arrival be discharged, this will not, of course, debar the Commission from the advantage of taking evidence itself upon these subjects to whatever extent it may think desirable:

(e) When the Commission has reported and its report has been examined by the Government of India and His Majesty's Government it will be the duty of the latter to present proposals to Parliament. But it is not the intention of His Majesty's Government to ask Parliament to adopt these proposals without first giving a full opportunity for Indian opinion of different schools to contribute its view upon them. And to this end it is intended to invite Parliament to refer these proposals to consideration by a Joint Committee of both Houses and to facilitate the presentation to that Committee both of the views of the Indian Central Legislatures by delegations who will be invited to attend and confer with the Joint Committee and also of the views of any other bodies whom the Joint Parliamentary Committee may desire to consult.

The ante-dating of the Commission involves an amendment of the Act, and a Bill to this end will be introduced at once."

PERSONNEL AND PROCEDURE.

Governor-General and the "Executive Council" his Council are appointed by the limit of time is specified for office, but custom has fixed it. There are seven Executive Members. These Members hold respectively portfolios of Education, Health and Local Government; Finance; Commerce; Industries and Labour; Law. The Viceroy acts as his own charge of Foreign Affairs. Administered by a Chief Commissioner, assistance of a Railway Board; and administrative purposes grouped under the Commerce Department. The in Chief may also be and in ways is, an "Ordinary" member of Council. He holds charge of the Government. The Governors of Madras, Bengal become "extraordinary" members of Council meets within their Presidencies. Council may assemble at any place which the Governor-General appoints; meets only in Delhi and Simla. In his own Department each Member is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final decision in ordinary departmental matters. In question of special importance, matter in which it is proposed to depart from the views of a Local Government, may be referred to the Viceroy. Originating in one department affects another must be referred to the Viceroy. In the event of the Department being unable to agree, the case is referred to the Viceroy. The Members of Council act as a Cabinet—ordinarily

once or twice a week—to discuss questions which the Viceroy desires to put before them, or which a member who has been over-ruled by the Viceroy has asked to be referred to Council. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council the decision of the majority ordinarily prevails, but the Viceroy can over-rule a majority if he considers that the matter is of such grave importance as to justify such a step. Each departmental office is in the subordinate charge of a Secretary, whose position corresponds very much to that of a permanent Under-Secretary of State in the United Kingdom, but with these differences—that the Secretary is present though does not speak, at Council meetings at which cases under his cognisance are discussed; that he attends on the Viceroy, usually once a week, and discusses with him all matters of importance arising in his Department; that he has the right of bringing to the Viceroy's special notice any case in which he considers that the Viceroy's concurrence should be obtained to action proposed by the Departmental Member of Council; and that his tenure of office is usually limited to three years. The Secretaries have under them Deputy, Under and Assistant Secretaries, together with the ordinary clerical establishments. The Secretaries and Under-Secretaries are often, though by no means exclusively, members of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of India has no Civil Service of its own as distinct from that of the Provincial Governments, and officers serving under the Government of India are borrowed from the Provinces, or, in the case of Specialists, recruited direct by contract.

THE DIVISION OF FUNCTIONS.

of the scheme is effective promulgation and the establishment of a measure of responsibility in the of which are raised to the status

of Governors in Council. This demanded a sharp division between Imperial and Provincial functions. The following subjects are reserved to the Government of India, with the

corollary that all others vest in the Provincial Governments:—

1. (a) Defence of India, and all matters connected with His Majesty's Naval, Military, and Air Forces in India, or with His Majesty's Indian Marine Service or with any other forces raised in India, other than military and armed police wholly maintained by local Governments.

(b) Naval and military works cantonments

2 External relations, including naturalisation and aliens, and pilgrimages beyond India.

3 Relations with States in India.

4 Political charges.

5 Communications to the extent described under the following heads, namely

(a) railway and extra-municipal tramways in so far as they are not classified as provincial subjects under entry 6 (d) of Part II of this Schedule;

(b) aircraft and all matters connected therewith; and

(c) inland waterways, to an extent to be declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

6 Shipping and navigation, including shipping and navigation on inland waterways in so far as declared to be a central subject in accordance with entry 5 (c).

7 Light-houses (including their approaches) beacons, lightships and buoys.

8 Port quarantine and marine hospitals.

9 Ports declared to be major ports by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

10 Posts, telegraph and telephones, including wireless installations.

11 Customs, cotton excise duties, income-tax, salt, and other sources of all-India revenues.

12 Currency and coinage.

13 Public debt of India.

14 Savings Banks.

15 The Indian Audit Department and excluded Audit Departments, as defined in rules framed under section 96-D (1) of the Act.

16 Civil law, including laws regarding status, property, civil rights and liabilities, and civil procedure.

17 Commerce, including banking and insurance.

18 Trading companies and other associations.

19 Control of production, supply and distribution of any articles in respect of which control by a central authority is declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian

legislature to be essential in the public interest.

20. Development of industries, in case where such development by a central authority is declared by order of the Governor-General in Council, made after consultation with the local Government or local Governments concerned expedient in the public interest.

21. Control of cultivation and manufacture of opium, and sale of opium for export.

22. Stores and stationery, both imported and indigenous, required for Imperial Departments.

23. Control of petroleum and explosives.

24. Geological survey.

25. Control of mineral development, in so far as such control is reserved to the Governor-General in Council under rules made or sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and regulation of mines

26. Botanical Survey.

27. Inventions and designs.

28. Copyright.

29. Emigration from, and immigration into, British India, and inter-provincial migration.

30. Criminal law, including criminal procedure.

31. Central police organisation.

32. Control of arms and ammunition.

33. Central agencies and institutions for research (including observatories), and for professional or technical training or promotion of special studies.

34. Ecclesiastical administration including European cemeteries.

35. Survey of India.

36. Archaeology.

37. Zoological Survey.

38. Meteorology.

39. Census and statistics.

40. All-India services.

41. Legislation in regard to any provincial subject in so far as such subject is in Part II of this Schedule stated to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature, and any powers relating to such subject reserved by legislation to the Governor-General in Council

42. Territorial changes, other than inter-provincial, and declaration of law in connection therewith.

43. Regulation of ceremonial, titles, orders precedence, and civil uniform.

44. Immovable property acquired by, and maintained at the cost of, the Governor-General in Council.

45. The Public Service Commission.

The Government of India.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA.

His Excellency the Right Hon. EDWARD FREDERICK LINDLEY WOOD, Baron IRWIN OF KIRBY UNDERDALE, G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E. 4th April 1926.

PERSONAL STAFF OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

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Private Secretary.—W. le B Egerton, I.C.S.

Secretary.—Lieut.-Col. G. O. Harvey, C.V.O., O.B.E., M.C.

Personal Asstt to Military Secretary.—W. H. P de la Hey.

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Military Adviser to the Indian State Forces
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C.M.G. D.S.O.

Staff Officer to the Military Adviser-in-Chief, Indian State Forces, Major W. H. Blood.

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Joint Secretary, J. A. Shillidy, I.C.S.
Deputy Secretary, J. D. V. Hodge, I.C.S.
Under Secretary, K. R. Menon I.C.S.
Assistant Secretary, E. H. Brandon, U. C. Stuart
Superintendents, Rao Sahib K. P. Anantan, T. P. Roy, J. C. McDermott, W. D'Almeida, Narandra Nath Banarjee, F. H. T. Ward.

DIRECTOR, PUBLIC INFORMATION.

Director, J. Coatsman, J. P.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR

Secretary, The Hon'ble Mr. A. C. McWatters, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Deputy Secretary, A. G. Clow, I.C.S.
Under Secretary, S. Lall, I.C.S.
Assistant Secretary, Rai Bahadur H. L. Chibbar (Offg.).
Deputy Secretary, (Public Works Branch) and Offg. Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, D. G. Harris, C.I.E., Dip. Ing. Zurich, M.B.E. (Ind).
Assistant Secretary, W. R. Chambers, V.D.

Superintendents, Rai Sahib Atanu Mohan Banerjee, Rai Sahib Nihal Chand, B.A., (Offg.) A. M. Price (Offg.), Rai Sahib S. K. Banerjee, Rai Sahib Pdt. Gauri Shankar, Rai Sahib Dipchand, C. A. B. Watts.
Offg. Superintendents, B. C. Tawakley, M.A., A. M. Price, Elshamber Nath, B.A.
Superintending Engineer, Simla Imperial Circle, A. Brobner D.S.O., C.I.E.

POST AND TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Director-General, H. A. Sams, C.I.E., I.C.S.
(RAILWAY BOARD) RAILWAY DEPARTMENT
Chief Commissioner, Sir Clement Hindley, Kt
Financial Commissioner, Mr. A. A. L. Parsons, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Member, Mr. P. C. Sheridan, C.M.G.
Member, Sir Austen Hadow, Kt., C.V.O.
Director of Establishment, Mr. S. Dutta Gupta, M.A., M.B.E.
Director, Civil Engineering, Mr. A. Lines.
Director, Mechanical Engineering, Mr. A. J. Chase, O.B.E.
Director of Traffic, Mr. H. O. Sparke.
Director of Finance, Mr. A. M. Hayman, O.B.E.
Secretary, Mr. J. C. Highet.
Deputy Secretary, Mr. J. Kaul.

Deputy *Progn* *Mr J F Black.*

Deputy Director, Stores, Mr. H. Jackson.
Deputy Director, Statistics, Mr. B. Moody.
Deputy Director, Finance, Mr. P. R. Rau.
Assistant Director, Statistics, Mr. Gopal Nath.
Timber Advisory Officer, Mr. R. G. Marriott.
Chief Superintendent, Mr. E. C. Rundlett.
Technical Officer, Mr. A. F. Harvey.
Officers on Special Duty, Mr. J. M. D. Wrench.
 Rai Bahadur B. D. Puri, Mr. J. A. Tanlinson.

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Secretary, L. Graham, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Joint Secretary and Draftsman, W. T. M. Wright, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Additional Joint Secretary, S. C. Gupta, Barrister-at-Law.
Deputy Secretary, G. H. Spence, I.C.S.
Assistant Secretary, C. H. F. Pereira.
Solicitor to the Government of India, T. E. T. Upton,
Asstt. Solicitor to the Government of India, S. Webb-Johnson.
2nd Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India, S. Mushran, M.A., Bar-at-Law.
Registrar, C. H. F. Pereira.
Superintendents, D. D. Baird (on leave); Rai Sahib D. Dutt; F. A. Thorpe, A. W. Chick (Offg.).

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

Secretary, The Hon. Sir Geoffrey Corbett, K.B.E. C.I.D., I.C.S.
Deputy Secretary, N. J. Roughton, I.C.S.
Assistant Secretary, Rai Bahadur S. N. Banerjee, B.A.
Asst. Secretary, Rai Sahib L. Sen, B.A.
Superintendents, E. J. Scaly, Laddi Prasad, B.A., G. Oorley-Smith and A. N. Puri, B.A. L.L.B.
Attuary to the Government of India, H. G. W. Meikle, F.T.A.

NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE.

Commissioner, J. C. Ferguson, I.C.S. (On leave)
Officiating Commissioner, F. D. Reid.
General Manager, A. D. C. McIver.
Assistant Commissioners, E. D. Wilson, D. M. Smith, A. G. O. Howard.

SURVEY DEPARTMENT.

Surveyor-General of India, Col. Comdt. E. A. Tandy, R.E.

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Director, Sir Edwin H. Pascoe, Kt. M.A., Sc.D., D.Sc., F.G.S., F.A.S.B.
Superintendents, L. L. Fermor, O.B.E., A.R.S.M., D.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.A.S.B.; G. E. Pilgrim, D.Sc., F.G.S., F.A.S.B.; G. H. Tipper, M.A., F.G.S., F.A.S.B., G. de P. Cotter, B.A.; J. C. Brown, O.B.E., D.Sc., F.A.S.B., and H. C. Jones, A.R.S.M., A.R.C.S., F.G.S.

BOTANICAL SURVEY.

Director, O. C. Calder, B.Sc. (Agr.), F.G.S., Dr. S. N. Bal, Ph.D., *Curator, Industrial Section, Indian Museum*; P. T. Russell *Superintendent, Cinchona Cultivation in Burma*.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Director-General of Archaeology, Sir J. H. Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., M.A., LL.D., F.S.A.; *Deputy Director-General*, J. P. Blakiston; *Joint Deputy Director-General*, Daya Ram Sahani, M.A. *Superintendent, Eastern Circle*, K. N. Dikshit, M.A.; *Superintendent, Western Circle*, Ganesh Chandra, *Superintendent, Southern Circle*, A. H. Longhurst; *Superintendent, Northern Circle*, Maulvi Zafar Hasan Khan, B.A., Thomas Adolph Otto, Madhao Sarup Vats, M.A. *Superintendent, Central Circle*, J. A. Page; *Superintendent, Burma, C. Duroiselle, M.A., I.S.O.* *Superintendent, Frontier Circle*, H. Har greaves.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director-General, Indian Medical Service, The Hon. Major-General T. H. Symons, CSI O.B.E., K.H.S., I.M.S.
Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India, Lt. Col. J. D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S.
Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Lt. Col. J. K. S. Flemings, O.B.E., I.M.S.
Assistant Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Capt. C. M. Ganapathy, M.O. I.M.S.
Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli Col. S. B. Christophers, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.M.S.
Assistant to Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Capt. K. M. K. Lyangar, D.Ph., I.M.S., (Offg.); Major J. A. Sinton, V.C., I.M.S., Major L. A. P. Anderson, I.M.S.
Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, T. Royds, D.Sc.
Meteorologist, Bombay Observatory, S. K. Banerji, D.Sc.
Librarian, Imperial Library, Calcutta, J. A. Chapman.
Agricultural Adviser and Director of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, D. Clouston, M.A., C.I.E.
Director, Zoological Survey of India, Indian Museum, Major R. B. Seymour Sewell, I.M.S., M.A.
Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, E. E. Coombs, O.B.E.
Master, Security Printing, Nasik Road, Lt. Col. G. H. Willis, C.I.E., M.V.O., R.E., M.I.M.E.,
Director-Central Intelligence, D. Petrie, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E.
Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, D. B. Mack.
Deputy Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, M. L. J. MacIver, I.C.S.
of Patents and Designs K. Rama Pai

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BENGAL
WILLIAM IN BENGAL.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Warren Hastings 20 Oct. 1774
Sir John Macpherson, Bart 8 Feb. 1785
Earl Cornwallis, K.G. (a) 12 Sep. 1786
Sir John Shore, Bart. (b) 26 Oct. 1793
(a) Created Marquess Cornwallis, 15 Aug. 1792.	
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Teignmouth.	
Lieut.-General the Hon. Sir Alfred Clarke, K.C.B. (offg.) 17 Mar. 1798
The Earl of Mornington, P.C. (c) 13 May 1798
The Marquis Cornwallis, K. G. (2nd time) 30 July 1805
Captain L. A. P. Anderson, Sir George H Barlow, Bart 10 Oct. 1805
Lord Minto, P.C. (d) 31 July 1807
The Earl of Moira, K.G., P.C. (e) 4 Oct. 1813
John Adam (offg) 13 Jan. 1823
Lord Amherst P.C. (f) 1 Aug. 1823
William Butterworth Bayley (offg) 13 Mar. 1828
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. 4 July 1828
(c) Created Marquess Wellesley, 2 Dec. 1799	
(d) Created Earl of Minto, 24 Feb. 1813.	
(e) Created Marquess of Hastings, 2 Dec. 1816.	
(f) Created Earl Amherst, 2 Dec. 1826.	

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. 14 Nov. 1834
Sir Charles Metcalfe, Bart. (a) (offg) 20 March 1835
Lord Auckland, G.C.B., P.C. (b) 4 March 1836
Lord Ellenborough, P.C. (c) 23 Feb. 1842
William Wilberforce Bird (offg.) 15 June 1844
The Right Hon. Sir Henry Hardinge, G.C.B. (d) 23 July 1844
The Earl of Dalhousie, P.C. (e) 12 Jan. 1849
Viscount Canning, P.C. (f) 29 Feb. 1856
(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Metcalfe.	
(b) Created Earl of Auckland, 21 Dec., 1839.	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Ellenborough.	
(d) Created Viscount Hardinge, 2 May 1846	
(e) Created Marquess of Dalhousie, 25 Aug. 1849.	
(f) by Earl Canning.	

NOTE The Governor-general ceased to be the direct Head of the Bengal Government from the 1st May, 1854, when the first Lieutenant-Governor assumed office. On 1st Apr. 1912, Bengal was placed under a separate Governor and the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor was abolished.

VICEEROYS AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Viscount Canning, P.C. (a) 1 Nov. 1856
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, K.T., G.C.B., P.C. 12 March 1862
Major-General Sir. Robert Napier, K.C.B. (b) (offg) 21 Nov. 1863
Colonel Sir William T. Denison, K.C.B. (offg.) 2 Dec. 1863
The Right Hon. Sir. John Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.S.I. (c) 12 Jan. 1864
The Earl of Mayo, K.P. 12 Jan. 1869
John Strachey (d) (offg.) 9 Feb. 1872
Lord Napier of Merchiston, K. T. (e) (offg) 23 Feb. 1872
Lord Northbrook, P.C. (h) 3 May 1872
Lord Lytton, G.C.B. (g) 12 Apr. 1876
The Marquess of Ripon, K.G., P.C. 8 June 1880	
The Earl of Dufferin, K.P., G.C.P., G.C.M.G., P.C. (i) 13 Dec. 1884
The Marquess of Lansdowne, G. C. M. G. 10 Dec. 1888
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, P. C. 27 Jan. 1894
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C. 6 Jan. 1895
Baron Amthill (offg) 30 Apr. 1904
Baron Curzon of Kedleston P.C. (i) 13 Dec 1904
The Earl of Minto, K. G., P.C., G. C. M. G. 18 Nov 1905
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst, P. C., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., I.S.O. (j) 23 Nov. 1910
Lord Chelmsford Apr. 1916
Lord Reading Apr. 1921
Lord Irwin Apr. 1926
(a) Created Earl Canning, 21 May 1859.	
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Magdala.	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lawrence	
(d) Afterwards Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	
(e) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Eddrick.	
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Northbrook.	
(g) Created Earl of Lytton, 28 April 1880.	
(h) Created Marquis of Dufferin and Ava 12 Nov. 1888	
(i) Created an Earl June 1911	
(j) During tenure of office, the Viceroy is Grand Master and First and Principal Knight of the two Indian Orders (G.M.S.I., and G.M.I.I.). On quitting office, he becomes G.C.S.I. and G.O.-K. with the date of his assumption of the Viceroyalty	

The Imperial Legislatures.

The gradual evolution of the Indian constitution is fully traced in the article on "The Government of India," which precedes this; so also are the great changes made by the Reform Act of 1919. For the purposes of easy reference the powers of the Legislatures, as well as the special powers reserved to the Governor-General for the discharge of his responsibilities, which are fully set out in the Act, are reproduced below:—

21. (1) Every Council of States shall continue for five years, and every Legislative Assembly for three years, from its first meeting:

Provided that—

(a) either chamber of the legislature may be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General and

(b) any such period may be extended by the Governor-General if in special circumstances, he so thinks fit; and

(c) after the dissolution of either chamber the Governor-General shall appoint a date not more than six months, or with the sanction of the Secretary of State, not more than nine months after the date of dissolution for the next session of that chamber.

22. (1) An official shall not be qualified for election as a member of either chamber of the Indian legislature, and, if any non-official member of either chamber accepts office in the service of the Crown in India his seat in that chamber shall become vacant.

(4) Every member of the Governor-General's Executive Council shall be nominated as a member of one chamber of the Indian legislature, and shall have the right of attending in and addressing the other chamber, but shall not be a member of both chambers.

24. (3) If any Bill which has been passed by one chamber is not, within six months after the passage of the Bill by that chamber, passed by the other chamber either without amendments or with such amendments as may be agreed to by the two chambers, the Governor-General may in his discretion refer the matter for decision to a joint sitting of both chambers. Provided that standing orders made under this section may provide for meetings of members of both chambers appointed for the purpose, in order to discuss any difference of opinion which has arisen between the two chambers.

(4) Without prejudice to the powers of the Governor-General under section sixty-eight of the principal Act, the Governor-General may where a Bill has been passed by both chambers of the Indian legislature, return the Bill for reconsideration by either chambers.

(7) Subject to the rules and standing orders affecting the chamber, there shall be freedom of speech in both chambers of the Indian legislature. No person shall be liable to any proceeding in any court by reason of his speech or vote in either chamber, or by reason of anything contained in any official report of the proceedings of either chamber.

25. INDIAN BUDGET:—(1) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the Governor-General in Council shall be laid in the form of a statement before both chambers of the Indian

in each year

(2) No proposal for the appropriation of any revenue or moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the Governor-General.

(3) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to the following heads of expenditure shall not be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly, nor shall they be open to discussion by either chamber at the time when the annual statement is under consideration, unless the Governor-General otherwise directs:—

(i) interest and sinking fund charges on loans and

(ii) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and

(iii) salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and

(iv) salaries of chief commissioners and judicial commissioners; and

(v) expenditure classified by the order of the Governor-General in Council as—

(a) ecclesiastical;

(b) political;

(c) defence.

(4) If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of revenue or money, does or does not relate to the above heads the decision of the Governor-General on the question shall be final.

(6) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to heads or expenditure not specified in the above heads shall be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly in the form of demands for grants.

(6) The legislative assembly may assent or refuse its assent to any demand or may reduce the amount referred to in any demand by a reduction of the whole grant.

(7) The demands as voted by the legislative assembly shall be submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who shall, if he declares that he is satisfied that any demand which has been refused by the legislative assembly is essential to the discharge of his responsibilities, act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, by the legislative assembly.

(8) Notwithstanding anything in this section the Governor-General shall have power, in cases of emergency, to authorise such expenditure as may, in his opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquillity of British India or any part thereof.

26. EMERGENCY POWERS:—(1) Where either chamber of the Indian legislature refuses leave to introduce or fails to pass in a form recommended by the Governor-General any Bill, the Governor-General may certify that the passage of the Bill is essential for the safety, tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, and thereupon—

(a) if the Bill has already been passed by the other chamber, the Bill shall, on signature by the Governor-General, notwithstanding that it has not been consented to by both chambers, forthwith become an Act of the Indian legislature in the form of the Bill as originally introduced or proposed to be introduced in the legislature, or as the case

may be) in the form recommended by the Governor-General; and

(b) if the Bill has not already been so passed, the Bill shall be laid before the other chamber, and, if consented to by that chamber in the form recommended by the Governor-General, shall become an Act as aforesaid on the signification of the Governor-General's assent, or, if not so consented to, shall, on signature by the Governor-General, become an Act as aforesaid.

(2) Every such Act shall be expressed to be made by the Governor-General and shall, as soon as practicable after being made, be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and shall not have effect until it has received His Majesty's assent, and shall not be presented for His Majesty's assent until copies thereof have been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat; and upon the signification of such assent by His Majesty in Council and the notification thereof by the Governor-General, the Act shall have the same force and effect as an Act passed by the Indian legislature and duly assented to:

Provided that, where in the opinion of the Governor-General a state of emergency exists which justifies such action, the Governor-General may direct that any such Act shall come into operation forthwith, and thereupon the Act shall have such force and effect as

aforesaid, subject, however, to shall by His Majesty in Council.

27. SUPPLEMENTAL PROVISIONS:—(1) In addition to the measures referred to in sub-section (2) of section sixty-seven of the principal Act, as requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General it shall not be lawful without such previous sanction to introduce at any meeting of either chamber of the Indian legislature any measure—

(a) regulating any provincial subject, or any part of a provincial subject, which has not been declared by rules under the principal Act to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature,

(b) repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature;

(c) repealing or amending any Act or ordinance made by the Governor-General.

(2) Where in either chamber of the Indian legislature any Bill has been introduced or is proposed to be introduced, or any amendment to a Bill is moved, or proposed to be moved, the Governor-General may certify that the Bill or any clause of it, or the amendment affects the safety or tranquillity of British India, or any part thereof, and may direct that no proceedings, or that no further proceedings, shall be taken by the chamber in relation to the Bill, clause, or amendment and effect shall be given to such direction.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

President:—The Honourable Mr. V. J. Patel.

Marshall:—Capt. Suraj Singh Bahadur, I.O.M.

A. ELECTED MEMBERS (104).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras City (Non-Muhammadan Urban).	Mr. Seshadri Iyengar Srinivasa Iyengar.
Ganjam cum Vizagapatam (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Varahagiri Venkata Jogiah.
Godavari cum Kistna (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. T. Prakasam.
Guntur cum Nellore (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Battena Perumalla Nayudu.
Madras ceded districts and Chittoor (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Chetluru Doraiswamy Ayyangar.
Salem and Coimbatore cum North Arcot (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. R. K. Shanmukham Chetty.
South Arcot cum Chingleput (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. M. K. Acharya.
Tanjore cum Trichinopoly (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. A. Rangaswami Iyengar.
Madura and Ramnad cum Tinnevely (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. M. S. Sessa Iyengar.
West Coast and Nilgiris (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. G. Sarvotam Rao.
North Madras (Non-Muhammadan Urban).	Maulana Md. Abdul Latif Sahib Bahadur Farookhi.

Constituency.	Name.
South Madras (Muhammadian)	Moulvi Sayyid Murtuza Saheb I
West Coast and Nilgiris (Muhammadian) ..	Mr. Khan Bahadur Haji Abdullah
Madras (European)	Mr. William Alexander.
Madras Landholders	Mr. K. V. Rangaswamy Ayyang
Madras Indian Commerce	Mr. Vidya Sagar Pandya.
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Mr. M. R. Jayekar, M.A., LL B
Ditto. ..	Mr. Jamnadas Madhavji Metha
Sind (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr. Harchandral Vishindas, C I
Bombay Northern Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. Vithalbhai J. Patel.*
Bombay Central Division (Muhammadian Rural). **	Mr. Fazal Ibrahim Rahimtulla
Bombay Central Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. Narsingha Chintaman Kelkar
Ditto. ..	Mr. Sarabhai Nemchand Haji
Bombay Southern Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. Dattatraya Venkatesh Bevi
Bombay City (Muhammadian Urban)	Mr. Mahomed Ali Jinnah.
Sind (Muhammadian Rural)	Seth Haji Abdullah Haroon.
Ditto.	Wadero Mohomed Panah Ghul
Bombay (European)	Dakhan. Mr. E. F. Sykes, M.I.C.E.
Ditto.	Mr. Hugh Golding Cocke.
The Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau (Indian Commerce).	Sir Putshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt
Sind Jagurdars and Zemindars (Landholders)	Wadero Wahidbaksh Illahibaksh
Bombay Millowners' Association (Indian Commerce). **	Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart.
Calcutta (Non-Muhammadian Urban).	Mr. Kirmal Chunder Chunder
Calcutta Suburbs (Non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Mr. Tulsi Chandra Goswami.
Burdwan Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Mr. Amarnath Dutt.
Presidency Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. Bhabendra Chandra Roy.
Dacca Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural). ..	Mr. Kshitish Chandra Neogy.
Chittagong and Rajshahi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. S. C. Mitra.
Calcutta and Suburbs (Muhammadian Urban) ..	Mr. Yacoub C. Ariff.
Burdwan and Presidency Divisions (Muhammadian Rural).	Dr. A. Suhrawardy.
Dacca Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr. A. H. Ghuznavi.
Do. do.	Haji Choudhary Mohamad Ismail
Chittagong Division (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Mr. Md. Anwarul Azim.
Rajshahi Division (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Mr. Kabeerud-Din Ahmed.

No.	Constituency.	Name.
Bengal (European)	Mr. W. Arthur Moore, M.B.E.
Do.	Mr. Darcy Lindsay, C.B.E.
Do.	Col. J. D. Crawford, D.S.O., M.C.
Bengal Landholders	Mr. Dharendra Kanta Lahiri Chaudhury.
Marwari Association (Indian Commerce)	..	Rai Bahadur Tarit Bhushan Roy.
Cities of the United Provinces (Non-Muham- madan Urban).		Pandit Motilal Nehru.
Meerut Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..		Chaudhri Mukhtar Singh.
Agra Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..		Pandit Hirday Nath Kunzru.
Rohilkund and Kumaon Division (Non-Muham- madan Rural).		Mr. C. S. Ranga Iyer.
Allahabad and Jhansi Divisions (Non-Muham- madan Rural).		Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya.
Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions (Non-Muham- madan Rural).		Mr. Ghanshyam Das Birla.
Lucknow Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).		Munshi Iswar Saran.
Fyzabad Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).		Kumar Ranajaya Singh.
Cities of the United Provinces (Muhammadan Urban).		Tasaddug Ahmad Khan Shervani.
Meerut Division (Muhammadan Rural) ..		Mr. Ismail Khan.
Agra Division (Muhammadan Rural)		Dr. L. K. Hyder.
Rohilkund and Kumaon Divisions (Muham- madan Rural).		Maulvi Muhammad Yakub.
United Provinces Southern Divisions (Muham- madan Rural).		Mr. Yusuf Imam.
Lucknow and Fyzabad Divisions (Muhammadan Rural).		Mr. Rafi Ahmad Kidwai.
United Provinces (European)		Mr. T. Gavin Jones.
United Provinces Landholders		Lala Triloki Nath.
Ambala Division (Non-Muhammadan)		Pandit Thakar Das Bhargava.
Jullundur Division (Non-Muhammadan) ..		Lala Lajpat Rai.
West Punjab (Non-Muhammadan)		Diwan Chaman Lal.
East Punjab (Muhammadan)		Mr. Abdul Haye.
East Central Punjab (Muhammadan)		Nawab Sir Zulfiqar Ali Khan, Kt., C.S.I.
West Central Punjab (Muhammadan)		Mian Muhammad Shah Nawaz.
North Punjab (Muhammadan)		Raja Ghazanfar Ali Khan.
North-West Punjab (Muhammadan)		Sayyad Hussain Shah.
South-West Punjab (Muhammadan)		Makhdump Syed Raja Baksh Shah.
East Punjab (Sikh)		Sardar Kartar Singh.
West Punjab (Sikh)		Sardar Gulab Singh.
Punjab Landholders		Lt. Sardar Muhammad Nawaz Khan.
Tirhut Division (Non-Muhammadan)		Mr. Narayan Prasad Singh.
Do. do.		Mr. Gaya Prasad Singh.

Province or body represented.	Name.
Orissa Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Pundit Nilakantha Das.
Do. do.	Mr. Bhabananda Das.
Patna cum Shahabad (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Mr. Rajivarandan P. Sinha.
Gaya cum Monghyr (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Mr. K. Siddheshwar Prasad Sinha.
Bhagalpur, Purnea and the Santhal Parganas (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Mr. Ganganand Sinha.
Chota Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Mr. Ram Narayan Singh.
Patna and Chota Nagpur cum Orissa (Muhammadian) ..	Khan Bahadur Sarfaraz Husain Khan.
Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadian)	Moulvi Badi-uz-zaman.
Tirhut Division (Muhammadian)	Moulvi Muhammad Shafee.
Bihar and Orissa Landholders	Raja Raghunandan Parashad Singh.
Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Dr. B. S. Moonje.
Central Provinces Hindi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Sir Hari Singh Gour, Kt.
Do. do.	Mr. Dwarka Prasad Misra.
Central Provinces (Muhammadian)	Dr. Abdul Qadir Siddiq.
Central Provinces Landholders	Seth Jannadass.
Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadian)	Srijiit Tarun Ram Phookun.
Surma Valley cum Shillong (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. Srischandra Dutta.
Assam (Muhammadian)	Moulvi Abdul Mutin Chaudhury.
Assam (European)	Mr. T. A. Chalmers, C.S.I.
Burma (Non-European)	U. Khin Mating.
Do.	U. Tok Kyi.
Do.	U. Hla Tun Pru.
Burma (European)	Mr. W. Stenhouse Lamb.
Delhi (General)	Lala Rang Bhari Lal.
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	Raj Sahib M. Harbilas Sarde.

B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS (EXCLUDING THE PRESIDENT) (40).

OFFICIAL MEMBERS (25)

Government of India	The Honourable Sir Basil Phillott Blackett, K.C.B., K.C.S.I.
Do.	The Honourable Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, K.C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do.	The Hon. Mr. James Crear, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	The Hon. Sir George Baine, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.
Do.	Mr. Ardesair Bhusampal Dalal.
Do.	Mr. W. T. M. Wright, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. G. Mackworth Young.
Do.	Sir Denys de S. Bray, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E.
Do.	Mr. H. A. Sams, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. J. M. Dunnet.
Do.	Mr. A. A. L. Parsons.
Do.	Mr. G. S. Bajpai, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do.	Mr. A. Ayangar.
Do.	Mr. J. Coatman.
Madras	Mr. R. H. Courtenay.
Do.	R. B. Varadachari A. A. Ayangar.

Province or body represented

Name

Bombay	Mr. R. T. F. Kirk.
Do.	Mr. P. B. Haigh.
Bengal	Mr. J. T. Donovan.
Do.	Khan Bahadur Nasiruddin Ahmad.
United Provinces	Mr. M. Kanne.
The Punjab	Mr. Miles Irving, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Bihar and Orissa	Rai Bahadur Shyam Narayan Singh, M.B.E.
The Central Provinces	Mr. R. M. Crofton.
Assam	Mr. W. A. Cosgrave.
Burma	Mr. H. Tonkinson, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Barar representative	Mr. Madhao Shrihari Aney.
NON-OFFICIAL MEMBERS (14)	
Bombay	Sardar Sir Bomanji A. Dalal, Kt.
Do.	Mr. Kikabhai Premchand.
Bengal	Mr. S. C. Mukherjee.
Do.	Mr. Keshav Chandra Roy, C.I.E.
The United Provinces	Mr. Md. Yamin Khan.
The Punjab	Sardar Bahadur Sardar Jowahir Singh, C.I.E.
Do.	Hon. Capt. Kabul Singh Bahadur.
Bihar and Orissa	Khan Bahadur Nawabzada Saiyid Ashrafuddin Ahmad, C.I.E.
North-West Frontier Province	Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul Qaiyum K.C.I.E.
Indian Christian	Mr. M. Ruthnaswamy.
Anglo-Indian Community	Lieutenant-Colonel H. A. J. Gidney.
Labour interests	Mr. Narayan Malhar Joshi.
Depressed Classes	Rao Bahadur M. G. Rajah.
Associated Chambers of Commerce	Sir Alexander B. Murray, Kt., C.B.E.

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

President—The Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncrieff Smith, Kt., C.I.E., C.S.

A.—ELECTED MEMBERS (83).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras (Non-Muhammadian)	Diwan Bahadur Sir S. M. Annamalai Chettiyar, Kt.
Do.	Sir C. Sankaran Nair, Kt.
Do.	Mr. V. Ramadas Pantulu.
Do.	Rao Sahib U. Rama Rao.
Madras (Muhammadian)	Syed Muhammad Padshah Sahab Bahadur.
Bombay (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. Manmohandas Ramji Vora.
Do.	Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, Kt., C. B. E.
Do.	Mr. Ratansi Dharamsi Moraji.
Bombay Presidency (Muhammadian)	Khan Bahadur Sir Ibrahim Haroon Jaffer.
Sind (Muhammadian)	Mr. Ali Baksh Muhammad Hussain.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce	Sir Arthur Henry Froom, Kt.
Bengal (Non-Muhammadian)	Kumar Sankar Roy Choudhuri.
Do.	Mr. Lokesh Nath Mukerjee.
Do.	Rai Nalinmuth Seth Bahadur.
West Bengal (Muhammadian)	Mr. Mahmood Subrawardy.
Past	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Abdul Karim.

Constituency.	Name.
Bengal Chamber of Commerce	Mr. John William Anderson Bell.
United Provinces Central (Non-Muhammadian).	Raja Sir Rampal Singh, K.C.I.E.
United Provinces Northern (Non-Muhammadian)	Lala Sukhbir Sinha.
United Provinces Southern (Non-Muhammadian)	Raja Moti Chand, C.I.E.
United Provinces West (Muhammadian) ..	Sayid Ali Nabi
United Provinces East (Muhammadian) ..	Maharajah Sir Muhammad Ali Md. Khan, K.B., K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., of Mahmudabad.
Punjab (Non-Muhammadian)	Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das, C.I.E.
Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Shivdeo Singh Uberoi.
East and West Punjab (Muhammadian)	Nawab Salubzada Sayad Md. Mehar Shah.
Bihar and Orissa (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Maharajadhiraja Sir Rameshwara Singh, C.C.I.E., K.B.E., of Darbhanga.
Do.	Anugraha Narayan Sinha.
Do.	Mr. Mahendra Prasad.
Bihar and Orissa (Muhammadian)	Shah Muhammad Zubair.
Central Provinces (General)	Seth Govind Das.
Assam (Muhammadian)	Maulvi Golam Mustafa Choudhury.
Burma (General)	Mr. P. C. D. Chari.
Burma Chamber of Commerce	Mr. W. A. Gray.

B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS (26 excluding the President).

(a) Official Members (not more than 19 excluding President).

Government of India	His Excellency Field Marshal Sir William Bird- wood, Bart., G.O.B., G.O.M.G., K.C.S.I., C.I.E., D.S.O.
Do.	Sir Muhammad Habibullah, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Kt.
Do.	Mr. S. R. Das.
Do.	Mr. H. G. Haig, C.I.E.
Do.	Major-General A. Houston, C.I.E., K.B.F.
Do.	Mr. Ernest Burdon, C.I.E.
Do.	Sir G. L. Corbett, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. A. M. Stow, C.B.E.
Do.	Sir John Perronet Thompson, C.S.I.
Do.	Mr. A. C. McWatters, C.I.E.
Madras	Khan Bahadur Md. Buzlullah, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Bombay	Mr. W. C. Tudor-Owen.
Bengal	Mr. J. A. L. Swan, C.I.E.
The United Provinces	Pandit Sham Bihari Misra.
The Punjab	Diwan Tek Chand, C.B.E.
Bihar and Orissa	Mr. E. H. Berthoud, C.B.E.

(b) Barar Representative.

Barar Representative	Mr. Ganesh Srikrishna Khaparde.
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(c) Non-Official Members.

Madras	Mr. Ganapati Agraharam.
Do.	Annadthurai Ayyar Natesan Avergal.
Bombay	Sir Dinshah Edulji Wacha, Kt.
Bengal	Sir Maneekji Byramji Dadabhoi, K.C.I.E.
Central Provinces	Prince Afzar-ul Mulk Mirza Md. Akram Hussain Bahadur.
The United Provinces	Raja Nawab Ali Khan of Akbarpur.
The Punjab (Indian Christian)	Raja Sir Harnam Singh, K.C.I.E.
The Punjab	Sirdar Charanjit Singh.
Do.	Col. Nawab Sir Umar Hayat Khan, K.C.I.E., C.B.E., M.V.O.
North-West Frontier	Major Nawab Mahomed Akbar Khan, C.I.E. Khan of Moul.

Administrative Divisions.

Provinces,	No. of Districts.	Area in Square miles.	Population (1921).
Ajmer Merwara	2	2,711	495,899
Andaman and Nicobars	3,148	26,833
Assam	12	52,959	7,598,861
Baluchistan	6	45,894	421,679
Bengal	28	78,412	46,652,177
Bihar and Orissa	21	83,205	33,993,778
Bombay (Presidency)	26	123,064	19,388,588
Bombay	26	75,918	16,005,170
Sind	8	47,066	3,278,493
Aden	80	54,923
Burma	41	236,733	13,205,564
Central Provinces and Berar	23	100,345	13,908,514
Coorg	1	1,582	164,459
Delhi	485,741
Madras	24	341,726	42,322,270
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and administered Territories).	5	16,466	2,247,696
Punjab	29	97,209	20,678,998
United Provinces of Agra & Oudh	43	107,164	45,590,946
Agra	36	85,198	33,420,688
Oudh	12	23,966	12,170,308
Total, British Territory ..	267	1,097,901	247,138,396

States and Agencies	No. of Districts.	Area in Square miles.	Population (1921).
Baluchistan States	86,511	876,999
Baroda State	8,099	2,121,875
Bengal States	32,773	896,173
Bihar and Orissa	3,965,431
Bombay States	65,761	7,412,341
Central India Agency	78,772	9,180,403
Central Provinces States	31,188	2,068,482
Assam States	333,672
Hyderabad State	82,698	12,453,627
Kashmir State	80,900	3,322,080
Madras States	9,969	5,460,023
Cochin State	979,019
Travancore State	4,005,849
Mysore State	29,444	5,976,660
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal areas).	2,823,055
Punjab States	36,532	4,415,401
Rajputana Agency	127,541	9,357,012
Sikkim	81,722
United Provinces States	5,079	1,134,824
Total, Native States	675,267	71,936,786
Grand Total, India	1,773,168	319,075,182

The Bombay Presidency.

The Bombay Presidency stretches along the west coast of India, from Sind in the North to Kanara in the South. It embraces, with its feudatories and Ades, an area of 187,074 square miles and a population of 26,757,648. Of this total 63,453 square miles are in Native States, with a population of 7,412,341. Geographically included in the Presidency but under the Government of India is the first class Native State of Baroda, with an area of 8,182 square miles and a population of 2,032,798.

With effect from the 10th October 1924 the States in the Cutch, Kathiawar and the Palanpur Agencies have been placed under direct political relations with the Government of India. The three agencies have been combined into one, the Western India States Agency, and placed under a first class Resident and Agent to the Governor General with headquarters at Rajkot. The territories under the rule of Indian Princes and Chiefs who are in direct political relations with the Government of Bombay extend now only to an area of about 28,562 sq. miles. The population of these States is about 4 millions and the revenue nearly 5 crores.

The Presidency embraces a wide diversity of soil, climate and people. In the Presidency Proper are the rich plains of Gujarat, watered by the Nerbudda and the Tapti, whose fertility is so marked that it has long been known as the Garden of India. South of Bombay City the province is divided into two sections by the Western Ghats, a range of hills running parallel to the coast. Above Ghats are the Deccan Districts, south of these come the Karnatic districts. On the sea side of the Ghats is the Konkan, a rice-growing tract, intercepted by creeks which make communication difficult. Then in the far north is Sind, totally different from the Presidency Proper, a land of wide and monotonous desert except where irrigation from the Indus has brought abounding fertility.

The People.

The population varies as markedly as soil and climate. In Sind Mahomedans predominate. Gujarat has remained true to Hinduism although long under the dominion of powerful Mahomedan kings. Here there is an amplitude of caste divisions, and a people, who although softened by prosperity, are amongst the keenest trading races in the world. The Deccan peasant has been seasoned by adversity; the saying goes that the Deccan expects a famine one year in every three, and gets it; the population is much more homogeneous than in Gujarat, and thirty per cent. are Mahrattas. The Karnatic is the land of the Lingayets, a Hindu reforming sect of the twelfth century, and in the Konkan there is a large proportion of Christians. Four main languages are spoken, Sindi, Gujarati, Marathi and Kanarese, with Urdu a rough *lingua franca* where English has not penetrated. The main castes and tribes number five hundred.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports sixty-four per cent. of the population. In Sind the soils are wholly alluvial, and under the influence of irrigation produce yearly increasing crops of wheat and cotton. In Gujarat they are of two classes, the black cotton soil, which yields the famous Broach cottons, the finest in India, and alluvial

which under careful cultivation in Ahmedabad and Kaira makes splendid garden land. The dominant soil characteristic of the Deccan is black soil, which produces cotton, wheat, gram and millet, and in certain tracts rich crops of sugarcane. The Konkan is a rice land, grown under the abundant rains of the submontane regions, and in the south the Dharwar cotton vies with Broach as the best in India. There are no great perennial rivers suitable for irrigation, and the harvest is largely dependent upon the seasonal rainfall, supplemented by well irrigation. A chain of irrigation works, consisting of canals fed from great reservoirs in the region of unfailing rainfall in the Ghats, is gradually being completed, and this will ultimately make the Deccan immune to serious drought. More than any other part of India the Presidency has been scourged by famine and plague during the past twenty years. The evils have not been unmixed, for tribulation has made the people more self-reliant, and the rise in the values of all produce, synchronising with a certain development of industry, has induced a considerable rise in the standard of living. The land is held on what is known as the ryotwari tenure, that is to say, each cultivator holds his land direct from Government under a moderate assessment, and as long as he pays this assessment he cannot be dispossessed.

Manufactures.

Whilst agriculture is the principal industry, others have no inconsiderable place. The mineral wealth of the Presidency is small and is confined to building stone, salt extracted from the sea, and a little manganese. But the handicrafts are widely distributed. The handloom weavers produce bright coloured saris, and to a diminishing extent the exquisite kincobs of Ahmedabad and Surat. Bombay silver ware has a place of its own, as well as the brass work of Poona and Nasik. But the tendency is to submerge the indigenous handicrafts beneath industry organised on modern lines. Bombay is the great centre in India of the textile trade. This is chiefly found in the headquarter city, Bombay.

Number of Looms in Bombay Island.	73 701
Number of Spindles in Bombay Island.	3,472 042
Number of hands employed in the Textile Industry in Bombay Island.	149,069
Consumption of Cotton by the Mills in Bombay Island (bales)
Candies of 784 lbs each
Number of Spindles in Ahmedabad.	1,381 897
Number of Looms in Ahmedabad	.. 20 401
Number of Spindles in Sholapore	.. 289 432
Number of Looms in Sholapore	.. 6,321
Number of Spindles in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	.. 2,418,407
Number of Looms in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	.. 48 408

Great impetus has been given to Bombay industries by the provision of electric power generated 25 y miles away on the Ghats, and the year 1919 witnessed a phenomenal flotation of new industrial companies of almost every description.

The situation of Bombay on the western sea-board in touch at once with the principal markets of India and the markets of the West

in Bombay an immense sea-borne trade. Older ports, Surat, Broach, Cambay and others, were famous in the ancient and their bold and hardy mariners carried Indian commerce to the Persian Gulf coasts of Africa. But the opening of the Suez Canal and the increasing size of steamers have tended to concentrate modern ports with deep water anchorage in the sea-borne trade of the Presidency concentrated at Bombay and Karachi, attempts are being made to develop the Portuguese territory into an outlet for the Southern Mahratta Country.

Administration.

The Presidency is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of four members, with the assistance of three Ministers. The range made in the functions of the Government is indicated in the description in the Provincial Governments (*g. v.*) description is given of the division of the administration into two branches, the Subjects, administered by the Governor's Council and the Transferred Subjects administered by the Governor and his Ministers. The whole Government commonly act as one. In another part of the division between Reserved and Transferred subjects is shown. This new administration under the Reform Act came into operation in January 1921, relating to public service business reached through the Secretariat, divided into main departments, each under a Secretary: (1) Revenue; (2) Home Affairs; (3) Political; (4) General, Civil and Marine; (5) Legal; (6) Works. The senior of the Civilian Ministers is entitled the Chief Secretary. The Government frequently moves. It has been from November to the end of the year at Mahabaleshwar from April to June at Poona from June to November; the Secretariat is always in Bombay. Under the Governor-in-Council the Presidency is administered by four Commissioners. The Governor in Sind has considerable independent powers. In the Presidency Proper there are four Commissioners for the Northern Division with headquarters at Ahmedabad; for the Southern Division at Poona; and the Southern Division at Belgaum. Each district is administered by a Collector, usually a Covenanted Civilian, under him one or more Civilian Collectors, and one or more Deputy Collectors. A collectorate contains on an average from eight to ten talukas, each of from one to two hundred villages. The revenues belong to the State. The officers are the patel, who is the village head both for revenue and police, the talati or kulkarni, clerk and the messenger and the watchman. A Taluka or group of village is the unit, who is also a subordinate magistrate in charge of the Assistant or Deputy Collector. Each district contains three or four talukas. The District Magistrate is over the whole. The Commissioners exercise general control over the Districts in their Divisions. The Government over the Native States is exercised through Agents.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court sitting in Bombay, and comprising a Chief Justice, who is a barrister, and seven puisne judges, either Civilian, Barristers, or Indian lawyers. In Sind the Court of the Judicial Commissioner (The Judicial Commissioner and four Additional Judges) is the highest court of civil and criminal appeal. The growing importance of Karachi and Sind has, however, necessitated the raising of the status of the Judicial Commissioner's Court and the passing of the Sind Courts Act in August 1926, which contemplates the creation of a Chief Court for Sind with a Chief Judge and three or more Puisne Judges. The Act however has not yet been put into effect owing to financial difficulties. Of the lower civil courts the court of the first instance is that of the Subordinate Judge recruited from the ranks of the local lawyers. The Court of first appeal is that of the District or Assistant Judge, or of a first class subordinate judge with special powers. District and Assistant Judges are Indian Civilian, or members of the Provincial Service. In cases exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value an appeal from the decision of the Subordinate or Assistant Judge and from the decision of the District Judge in all original suits lies to the High Court. District and Assistant Judges exercise criminal jurisdiction throughout the Presidency, but original criminal work is chiefly disposed of by the Executive District Officers. Capital sentences are subject to confirmation by the High Court. In some of the principal cities Special Magistrates exercise summary jurisdiction (Bombay has five Presidency Magistrates, as well as Honorary Magistrates exercising the functions of English Justices of the Peace) and a Court of Small Causes, corresponding to the English County Courts.

Local Government.

Local control over certain branches of the administration is secured by the constitution of local boards and municipalities, the former exercising authority over a District or a Taluka, and the latter over a city or town. These bodies are composed of members either nominated by Government or elected by the people, who are empowered to expend the funds at their disposal on education, sanitation, the construction of roads and tanks, and general improvements. Their funds are derived from cesses on the land revenue, the toll and ferry funds. The tendency of recent years has been to increase the elective and reduce the nominated element to allow these bodies to elect their own chairmen, whilst larger grants have been made from the general revenues for water supply and drainage.

The City Municipalities Act of 1926 works further advance in the matter of local Self-Government in the Presidency. The Act provides more adequate basis for Municipal Administration in the larger cities of the Bombay Presidency. The larger municipalities are now styled as Municipal Boroughs which are now 29 in number. The executives of these Borough Municipalities are invested with larger powers than hitherto exercised. Another important change introduced by the Act was the abolition of municipal committees and the appointment of a committee to occupy the place of dwellings

or buildings with annual rental values of Rs 12 or with capital value of not less than Rs. 200

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the control of two Chief Engineers who act as Secretaries to the Government; one for General Works and the other for Irrigation. Under them are Superintending Engineers in charge of divisions and Executive Engineers in charge of districts, with the Consulting Architect. The chief irrigation works are in Sind and consist of a chain of canals fed by the annual inundations from the Indus and one perennial canal the Jamrao The Sukkur Barrage project which was inaugurated in 1923 is the greatest Irrigation Scheme in the world and is designed to ensure the vast areas of fertile land in Sind a regular and constant supply of water. It will enable 6,000,000 acres of crops to be irrigated annually, i.e., over 500,000 acres more than the total area irrigated in Egypt. The scheme is not only vital to the future of Sind but of indirect benefit to the whole of India. The whole scheme is estimated to cost over 3½ million sterling or over 18 crores of rupees. In the Presidency proper the principal protective works are the Nera Canal, Gokak Canal, Mutha Canal and the Godavari Canal Scheme. In addition there is under construction a chain of protective irrigation works, originating in reservoirs in the Chat regions. The Godavari canals were completed during the year 1917-18, and the two most important projects, namely, the Nera Right Bank Canal and the Pravara River Works system, which have been under construction since 1912 and 1911. The Bandhwarda dam the second highest yet constructed by Indians the world over belonging to latter group was opened by His Excellency the Governor on 10th December 1926. These projects will irrigate certain tracts most liable to famine.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into 3 categories, 1st, District Police, Railway Police and the Bombay City Police. The District and Railway Police in the Presidency proper are for the purpose of control under the Inspector-General of Police who is assisted by three Deputy Inspectors-General, of whom two are in charge of Ranges and the third is in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and the Finger Print Bureau. District and Railway Police in Sind are under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police for Sind, subject to the control of the Commissioner-in-Sind. The executive management of the Police in each district and on Railways in the Presidency proper as well as in Sind, is vested in a Superintendent of Police in a District under the general direction of the Magistrate of the District concerned. For the purposes of effective supervision over the investigation and prevention of crime, some of the larger districts are divided into one or more Sub-Divisions each under a Sub-Divisional Officer who is either an Assistant Superintendent of Police or a Deputy Superintendent of Police. Inspectors are usually placed in charge of Circles comprising two or more Police Stations. Sub Inspectors are the officers in charge of Police Stations and are primarily responsible under the law for the investigation of offences

reported at their Police Stations. On appointment Assistant Superintendents of Police, Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors undergo a course of training at the Central Police Training School at Nasik before being posted to Districts for executive duty. The Bombay City Police is a separate force under the Commissioner of Police who is directly responsible to Government.

Education.

Education is imparted partly through direct Government agency, partly through the medium of grants-in-aid. Government maintain Arts Colleges at Bombay, Poona, Gujarat and Dharwar; the Grant Medical College the Poona College of Engineering, the Agricultural College, Veterinary College, School of Art, Law School and a College of Commerce. The Royal Institute of Science is now open in Bombay. Most of the secondary schools are in private hands; the majority of the primary schools are maintained by District and Local Boards with a grant-in-aid. The Bombay Municipality is responsible for primary education in Bombay City. (q. v. Education).

The passing of the Primary Education Act in 1923 was perhaps the most important event in the history of Primary Education in this Presidency during the last 30 or 40 years. The Act provides for the definite handing over of the management of primary schools to local bodies subject to the general supervision of Government. It further gives Government the power of calling upon local authorities to prepare schemes for the introduction of compulsory education if they fail to do so of their own initiative. For various reasons there was delay in bringing the Act into operation. Since 1925 twenty-two out of twenty-seven Dist. Local Boards have taken over control of primary education. Four District Local Boards in the N. D. and one in Sind have yet to take over the control. Fifty out of 156 Municipalities also manage their schools under the Act. Compulsory education for boys continues to be in force in five Mofussil Municipalities, Banira, Satra City, Dhulha Surat and Bayadgi. The Bombay Municipality has introduced compulsion in two Wards (F. & G.) for both boys and girls excepting Moslem girls.

The Educational Department is administered by a Director, with an Inspector in each Division and a Deputy Inspector with Assistants in each district. Higher education is controlled by the Bombay University (established in 1857) consisting of the Chancellor (the Governor of the Presidency); the Vice-Chancellor appointed by Government for two years, and 100 Fellows of whom 10 are *ex-officio*, 10 elected by the Graduates, 10 by the Faculties, and 80 are nominated by the Chancellor.

Proposals have been recently put forward by the Committee on University Reform for the reorganization of the University on sounder lines, but these are still under the consideration of the authorities. A Bill to amend the University Act is before the Legislature.

The principal educational institutions are — Government Arts Colleges—

Elphinstone College, Bombay: Principal Mr H Hamill M.A.

Deccan College, Poona, Principal, Mr H. G. Rardinson, M.A.
Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Principal, G. Hindley Shirras, M.A., B.S.S. (Offg.)
Karnatak College, Dharwar, Principal, Mr. H. V. Hampton, M.A.

Private Arts Colleges—

St. Xavier's, Bombay (Society of Jesus), Principal, Rev. Father Duhr, S. J.
Wilson College, Bombay (Scottish Mission), Principal, Rev. J. Mackenzie, M.A.
Fergusson College, Poona (Deccan Educational Society), Principal, K. B. Kanitkar, M.A., B.Sc.
Baroda College, Baroda (Baroda State), Principal, S. G. Barrow, B.Sc.
Samaldas College, Bhavnagar (Bhavnagar State), Principal, Mr. T. K. Shahani, M.A.
Bahauddinbhai College, Junagadh State, Principal, Mr. S. H. Rodivala, M.A.

Special Colleges—

Grant Medical College, Bombay (Government), Dean, Captain S. L. Bhatia, M.S.
College of Engineering, Poona (Government), Principal, Mr. W. L. O. Trench.
Agricultural College, Poona (Government), Principal, Dr. William Burns.
Chiefs' College, Rajkot, Principal, Mr. J. T. Turner.
College of Science, Ahmedabad.
Law College, Bombay, Principal, Dr. J. S. Khargamvala, LL.D. (London).
College of Commerce, Bombay, Principal, Mr. M. L. Tannan.
Veterinary College, Bombay, Mr. K. Hewlett.
Haffkine Institute, Bombay, Director, Lt.-Col. F. P. Muckle, F.M.S.
Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay (Government), Principal, Mr. W. E. G. Solomon.
Victoria Technical Institute, Bombay, Principal, Mr. A. J. Turner, B.Sc., F. I. O.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in the charge of the Surgeon-General and Sanitation in that of the Director of Public Health, both members of the Indian Medical Service. Civil Surgeons stationed at each district headquarters are responsible for the medical work of the district; whilst sanitation is entrusted to one of the Assistant Directors of Public Health. Three large hospitals are maintained by the Government in Bombay, and arrangements are being made to increase the hospital accommodation in the City. It is hoped to set up in the near future not less than 850 additional beds in the various hospitals of the city. Well-equipped hospitals exist in all important up-country stations. Over three million persons including 81,000 in-patients are treated annually. The Presidency contains 6 Lunatic Asylums and 16 institutions for the treatment of Lepers. Vaccination is carried out by a staff under the direction of the Director of Public Health. Sanitary work has received an immense stimulus from the large grants made by the Government from time to time.

Finance.

Under the Reform Scheme of 1919 Provincial Finance entered on a new phase. Before the passing of this Act Provincial finance was incorporated in Imperial Finance. The Provinces had certain heads of revenue of their own and other heads which they divided with the Government of India. By the new constitution a comparatively clean cut was made between the finances of the Government of India and those of the Provinces. Such revenues as they enjoy the Provinces enjoy in full, and in return they make cash contributions to the Government of India, fixed for a term of years. The general principle underlying this settlement is that those contributions shall gradually disappear. The present contribution of the Government of Bombay is Rs. 66 lakhs.

Estimated Revenue for 1927-28.

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.										Rs.
V	Land Revenue	5,80,00,000
VI	Excise	4,00,00,000
VII	Stamps	1,87,00,000
VIII	Forests	73,95,000
IX	Registration	12,94,000
IXA	Scheduled Taxes	22,54,000
Total										12,26,43,000

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment, &c.

XIII	Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	63,46,000
XIV	Work for which no Capital Accounts are kept	70,000
Total										64,16,000

Debt Service.

XVI	Interest	1,59,18,000
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Civil Administration.

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XVII	Administration of Justice	18,92,000
XVIII	Jails and Convict Settlements	6,87,000
XIX	Police	8,11,000
XXI	Education	10,21,950
XXII	Medical	5,74,000
XXIII	Public Health	5,21,000
XXIV	Agriculture	3,16,000
XXV	Industries	2,000
XXVI	Miscellaneous Departments	1,95,000
						Total	55,79,000

Civil Works

[illegible]

Miscella nova.

XXIII	Receipts in aid of Superannuation	16,63,000
XXIV	Stationery and Printing	2,85,000
XXV	Miscellaneous	2,97,000
	Total ..	22,45,000

XXIX-A Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments

Government	3,33,000
XI Extraordinary Receipts	2,18,000

Total Revenue	15,50,69,000
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Civil Works and Miscellaneous public improvements receipts not charged to Revenue.

XLII	Bombay Development Scheme	30,52,000
Debt heads :-		

Deposits and advances Loans and advances by provincial Govern-
ment Advances from provincial Loans Fund

ment Advances from provincial Loans Fund	3,88,70,000
Opening Balance	5,62 52,000

[illegible]

Grand Total	25,32,48,000
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Estimated Expenditure for 1927-28.

DIRECT DEMANDS ON THE REVENUE.

5.	Land Revenue	66,47,000
6.	Excise	47,48,000
7.	Stamps	1,54,000
8A.	Forest Capital outlay	41,72,000
9.	Registration	6,91,000
8A.	Scheduled Taxes	21,000
									Total	1,61,32,000

Irrigation, Embankment, &c., Revenue Account.

14.	Interest on works for which Capital Accounts are kept	55,46,000
15.	Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	39,18,000
15. (1)	Other Revenue Expenditure financed from famine Insurance Grants	12,88,000
16.	Construction of Irrigation Works	10,00,000
	Total	1,07,82,000

Debt Service.

19. Interest on Ordinary Debt	2,23,74,000
21. Reduction or avoidance of debt	13,61,000
					Total	2,42,35,000

Estimated Expenditure for 1927-28—contd.

Miscellaneous—contd.

Rs.

Civil Administration.

22. General Administration	2,23,48,000
24. Administration of Justice	72,81,000
25. Jails and Convict Settlements	25,62,000
26. Police	1,67,48,000
27. Ports and Pilotage	21,000
30. Scientific Departments	62,000
31. Education	2,05,48,000
32. Medical	48,17,000
33. Public Health	28,91,000
34. Agriculture	28,40,000
35. Industries	93,000
37. Miscellaneous Departments	4,87,000
Total	8,01,98,000

Civil Works.

41. Civil Works	1,32,62,000
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Miscellaneous.

43. Famine Relief and Insurance	10,72,000
45. Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	58,18,000
46. Stationery and Printing	17,70,000
47. Miscellaneous	24,12,000
Total	1,03,72,000

51 & 51A. Contribution and Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	33,74,000
Expenditure in England	
Total Expenditure	16,01,51,000

Capital Account not charged to Revenue.

55. Construction of Irrigation Works	3,35,90,000
59. Bombay Development Scheme	188,19,000
Other Expenditure not charged to Revenue	59,29,000
Debt Heads, Deposits and Advances	3,58,87,000
Closing Balance	4,60,08,000
Grand Total	25,32,43,000

Governor and President-in-Council.

His Excellency Lt.-Colonel The Right Hon'ble
Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, K.C., C.I.E.,
C.M.G., D.S.O.

Personal Staff.

Private Secy.—James Campbell Ker, C.I.E.,
M.A., I.C.S.

My Secretary—Major H. G. Vaux, C.I.E.,
M.V.O., J.P.

Surgeon—Major A. G. Tressider, C.I.E., M.D., I.M.S.

Aides-de-Camp.—Capt. R. Neville, Royal
Marines; Capt. K. E. Previte, Royal Marines;
Capt. G. F. Bunbury, 20th Lancers.

Hon. Aides-de-Camp.—Hon. Captain Meherban
Abdul Majid Khan Diler Jung Bahadur Nawab
of Savanur Hon. A. K. Bhai N

of Baria; Hon. Lt. Meherban Sir Chintaman-
rao Dhundirao alias Appasaheb Patwardhan,
K.C.I.E., Chief of Sangli; Stephen Calveocoresu
Esq.; Hon. Lt. Meherban Malojirao Mudhoji-
rao alias Nana Sahib Naik Nimbalkar, Chief of
Phaltan; Capt. P. Seymour Williams, (Bom.)
Coy, R.M.S.I.E.; Capt. Balkrishnarao, Sardar
Bahadar; Meherban Shankarrao Parashramrao
Bamchandra alias Appu Sahib Patwardhan,
Chief of Jamkhandi.

Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Bodyguard.—
Major H. de N. Lucas, 7th Light Cavalry.

Adjutant, H. E. The Governor's Bodyguard.—
Capt. E. D. Holder, Skinners Horse.

Indian Aide-de-Camp—Risaldar Major Lakhp-
pat Singh, 8th King George's Own Light
Cavalry

Members of Council and Ministers.

The Hon. Sir Chhulal Vibhukandas Mehta; M.A., LL.B. (Finance); The Hon. Sir. Cowaji Jehangir, C.I.E. (General); The Hon. Mr. J. L. Bieu, C.S.I., I.C.S. (Revenue); The Hon. Mr. J. E. B. Hotson, C.S.I., I.C.S. (Home), and The Hon. Khan Bahadur Shakh Ghulam Hussain Hidayatulla; The Hon. Dewan Bahadur Harilal Desai and The Hon. Mr. Govind Balwant Pradhan.

The Educational portfolio includes, among other subjects, Medical Administration, Public Health, Sanitation and Industrial Development. The Minister of Local Self-Government also deals with Public Works (roads and buildings) and the Civil Veterinary Department; while Agriculture, Co-operative Societies, Registration and some other matters are in charge of the Minister of Forests and Excise.

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.

Revenue Department.—J. W. Smyth, M.A., I.C.S.

Home and Ecclesiastical Department.—John Montesth, B.A., I.C.S.

Chief Secretary, Political Department.—James Rea Martin, C.I.E., B.A., I.C.S. (Acting).

Secretary, General, Educational and Marine Departments.—O. W. A. Turner, B.A., I.C.S.

Chief Secretary, Finance Department.—Gilbert Wiles, B.A., I.C.S.

Legal Department and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.—Balak Ram, I.C.S.

Public Works Department.—R. T. Harrison.

Public Works Department, Joint Secretary.—Dennis Robert Howe Browne, O.B.E.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Advocate-General. Jamshedji Behramji Kanga, M.A., LL.B.

Inspector-General of Police. F. O. Griffith, C.S.I., O.B.E.

Director of Public Instruction. F. B. P. Lory, M.A.

Surgeon-General. Lt.-Col. R. W. Anthony, I.M.S. (Offg.)

Oriental Translator. Sayed Monfruddin S. Moulvie.

Chief Conservator of Forests. E. M. Hodgson.

Talukdari Settlement Officer. E. Cawan Taylor, B.A., I.C.S.

Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records. F. G. H. Anderson, I.C.S.

Director of Agriculture. Dr. T. F. Main, O.B.E., D.S.O.

Registrar of Co-operative Societies. V. S. Bhide, I.C.S.

Municipal Commissioner, Bombay. H. B. Clayton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University. Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad.

Registrar, Bombay University. Fardunji M. Dastur.

Commissioner of Police, Bombay. P. A. Kelly, C.I.E.

Director of Public Health. Lt.-Col. H. Melhuish, I.M.S.

Accountant-General. N. V. Raghia

Inspector-General of Prisons. Lt. Murray, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Postmaster-General. D. Banerji N A

Commissioner of Customs, Salt, Excise. J. Ghosal, I.C.S.

Collector of Customs, Bombay. A. I.O.S.

Consulting Architect to Government.

Consulting Surveyor to Government. I F.S.I., F.S.A., F.R.S.I.

Registrar of Companies. H. C. B. M

Director of Information and Labour I

J. F. Jennings, Bar-at-Law.

Sheriff. N. V. Mandlik, B.A., LL B

GOVERNORS OF BOMBAY

Sir Abraham Shipman

Died on the island of Anjediva

Humfrey Cooke

Sir Gervase Lucas

Died, 21st May 1667.

Captain Henry Garey (Officiating)

Sir George Oxenden

Died in Surat, 14th July 1669

Gerald Aungier

Died in Surat, 30th June 1677.

Thomas Rolt

Sir John Child, Bart.

Bartholomew Harris

Died in Surat, 10th May 1694.

Daniel Annesley (Officiating)

Sir John Gayer

Sir Nicholas Waite

William Aislable

Stephen Strutt (Officiating)

Charles Boone

William Phipps

Robert Cowan

Dismissed.

John Horne

Stephen Law

John Geekie (Officiating)

William Wake

Richard Sourchler

Charles Crommelin

Thomas Hodges

Died, 23rd February 1771.

William Hornby

Rawson Hart Boddam

Rawson Hart Boddam

Andrew Ramsay (Officiating)

Major-General William Medows

Major-General Sir Robert Abercromb

K.C.B. (a).

George Dick (Officiating)

John Griffith (Officiating)

Jonathan Duncan

Died 11th August 1811

George Brown (181	The Right Hon. Sir James F.	1820
Sir Evan Nepean, Bart.	1812	Bart., K.C.M.G.	
The Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone ..	1819	James Braithwaite Peile, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)..	1835
Major-General Sir John Malcolm, G.C.B.	1827	Baron Reay	1835
Lieut.-General Sir Thomas Sidney Beck-	1830	Baron Harris	1890
with, K.C.B.		Herbert Mills Birdwood, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) ..	1890
Died, 15th January 1831.		Baron Sandhurst	1890
John Romer (<i>Officiating</i>)	1831	Baron Northcote, C.B.	1900
The Earl of Clare	1831	Sir James Montezath, K.C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) ..	1903
Sir Robert Grant, G.C.B.	1835	Baron Lamington, G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. ..	1903
Died, 9th July 1838.		J. W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>).	1907
James Farish (<i>Officiating</i>)	1838	Sir George Sydenham Clarke, G.C.M.G.,	1907
Sir J. Rivett-Carnac, Bart.	1839	G.C.I.E. (c).	
Sir William Hay Macnaghten, Bart. (b) ..		Baron Willingdon, G.C.I.E.	1913
George William Anderson (<i>Officiating</i>) ..	1841	Sir George Ambrose Lloyd, G.C.I.E., D.S.O. (d)	1918
Sir George Arthur, Bart., K.C.H.	1842	Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E.,	1923
Lestock Robert Reid (<i>Officiating</i>)	1846	C.M.G., D.S.O.	
George Russell Clerk	1847	(a) Proceeded to Madras on duty in Aug. 1793	
Viscount Falkland	1848	and then joined the Council of the Govern-	
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H., P.C.	1853	nor-General as Commander-in-Chief in	
Sir George Russell Clerk, K.C.B. (2nd time)	1860	India on the 28th Oct. 1793.	
Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere, K.C.B.	1862	(b) Was appointed Governor of Bombay by	
The Right Hon. William Robert Seymour	1867	the Honourable the Court of Directors on	
Vesey FitzGerald.		the 4th Aug. 1841, but, before he could take	
Sir Philip Edmond Wodehouse, K.C.B. ..	1872	charge of his appointment, he was assassi-	
Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. ..	1877	nated in Cabul on the 23rd Dec. 1841.	
Lionel Robert Ashburner, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)..	1880	(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Sydenham.	
		(d) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lloyd.	

BOMBAY LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon Mr. A. M. K. Dohlevi, Bar-at-law, *President*.

Rao Bahadur S. T. Kambli, *Deputy President*.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Bombay City (North). (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Ramchandra Santuram Asavle
Bombay City (South). (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Framroz Jamshedji Givwala
Karachi City (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Dr. Mancherasha Dhunibhai Gilder.
Ahmedabad City (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Kharshed Framji Nariman
Surat City (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Phirozsha Jehangir Murzban
Sholapur City (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Balubhai Tribhovandas Desai.
Poona City (Non-Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Narandas Anandji Bechar
Ahmedabad District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	The Hon'ble Dewan Bahadur Harilal Desai
Broach District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Desai.
Kara District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Dr. Mohannath Kedarnath Dixit
Panch Mahals Dist. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Netvarlal G. Mujumdar
Surat District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Narso Balkrishna Chandrachud
Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Amritlal Dalpatbhai Sheth
Ahmednagar District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Jethalal Chimanlal Swaminarayan
East Khandesh District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Haribhai Jhaverbhai Amin
	Rao Saheb Dadubhai Purnshottandas Desai
	Mr. Jivabhai Revabhai Patel.
	Mr. Wamanrao Sitararn Mukadam
	Mr. Hassamal Baharnal Shivadasani
	Rao Bahadur Bhimbhai Ranchhodji Nauk.
	Mr. Shankarrao Jayaramrao Zunzarrao
	The Hon'ble Mr. Govind Balvant Pradhan
	Mr. Namdevrao Eknath Navle
	Sardar Shivrao Bhawanrao Thorat
	Mr. Rajmal Lakshchand
	Mr. Hari Vinayak Pataskar
	Mr. Ramji Patil

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Nasik District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Ramchandra Ganesh Pradhan.
Poona District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Rao Saheb Ramchandra Rao Vithalrao Wandeke. Mr. Sadashivrao alias Khaserao Jivajira Pawar.
Satara District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Narayan Ramji Gunjal. Mr. Bhaskarrao Vithojirao Jadhav.
Belgaum District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Rao Bahadur Raoji Ramchandra Kale. Mr. Laxman Mahadeo Deshpande. Rao Bahadur Shanmukhapa Ningapa Angad. Mr. Panditapa Rayapa Chikodi.
Buapur District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Sangappa Ameengonda Sardesai.
Dharwar District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Rao Bahadur Sidappa Totappa Kambli. Mr. Vishwanath Narayan Jog.
Kanara District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. M. D. Karkh.
Ratnagiri District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Venkatrao Anandrao Surve.
Eastern Sind. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Bhaskar Ramchandra Nanal. Mr. Jaramdas Doulatram.
Western Sind (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Bhojising Gurdinomal Pahalajani.
Sholapur District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Shamrao Pandurangrao Lagade.
Kolaba District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Atmaram Mahadev Atavane.
West Khandesh District. (Non-Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Madhavrao Gopalrao Ghosle.
Bombay City (Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Hussansali Mahomed Bahitoolah. Mr. Hussainbhai Abnalls Lalji.
Karachi City (Muhammadian) Urban.	Mr. Mir Mahomed Baloch Shaikh.
Ammedabad and Surat Cities. (Muhammadian) Urban.	Khan Saheb Alibhai Mahomedbhai Mansuri.
Poona and Sholapur Cities (Muhammadian) Rural.	Khan Saheb Abdul Latif Haji Hajrat Khan.
The Northern Division (Muhammadian) Rural.	The Honourable Mr. Ali Mahomed Khan Dehlavi. Mr. Daudkhan Shah-bhoj.
The Central Division (Muhammadian) Rural.	Sardar Bhaskar alias Dulabawa Raisinghji. Mr. Shaikh Abdul Aziz Abdul Latif. Moulana Moulvi Rahnuddin Ahmad. Mr. Gulam Ahmad Daguniya.
The Southern Division. (Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Haji Ibrahim Haji Mahomed Jitekar. Sardar Mahabooobali Khan Mahamad Abkarkhar Biradar. Mr. Divansahab Abasaheb Janvekar.
Hyderabad District. (Muhammadian) Rural.	The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah. Mr. Noor Muhammad Muhammad Sujawal.
Karachi District (Muhammadian) Rural.	Mr. Ras Fazul Mahomed Walad Khan Saheb Haji Baksh Lachari. Mr. Ghulam Haider Shah Walad Saheb-dino Shah.
Larkana District. (Muhammadian) Rural.	Khan Bahadur Shah Nawaz Khan Ghulam Murtaza Khan Bhutto. Khan Saheb Ghulam Muhammad Abdullah Khan Isran. Mr. Muhammad Ayub Shah Muhammad Khuhro.
Sukkur District. (Muhammadian) Rural.	Khan Bahadur Jan Mahomed Khan Walad Khan Bahadur Shah Passandkhan. Mr. Allahbakhsh Walad Khan Saheb Haji Mahomed Umar.
Thar & Parkar District (Muhammadian) Rural.	Khan Saheb Ghulam Nabi Shah Mouljab Shah. Mr. Janmahomed Khan Walimahomed Khan Bhurgri.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Nawabshah District (Muhammadian) Rural.	Khan Bahadur Haji Imambaksh Khan Ghulam Rasul Khan Jatoli.
Upper Sind Frontier (Muhammadian) Rural.	Khan Sahib Sher Mahomed Khan Karam Khan Bijarani.
Bombay City. (European.)	Mr. J. Addyman.
Presidency. (European.)	Mr. A. C. Owen
Deccan Sardars & Inamdars. Landholders.	Sardar Gangadharrao Narayan Mujumdar
Gujarat Sardars & Inamdars. Landholders.	Mr. Jerandas Behechardas Desai.
Jagirdars & Zamindars. (Sind) Landholders.	Sayed Muhammad Kamul Shah Kabu Muhammad Shah
Bombay University.	Mr. K. M. Munshi.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce. Industry.	Sir Joseph Kay, Kt. Mr. G. L. Winterbotham.
Karachi Chamber of Commerce. Industry.	Mr. F. W. Petch
Bombay Trades Association, Commerce Industry	Mr. J. B. Petit.
Bombay Millowners' Association, Commerce and Industry.	Mr. Gordhandas I. Patel.
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, Commerce and Industry.	Mr. Lalji Naranji.
Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, Commerce & Industry.	

NOMINATED

Non-Officials.

Mr. J. P. Thornber,
 „ F. Oliveira.
 „ Sitaram Keshav Bole
 „ Syed Munawar. B.A.
 „ S. C. Joshi, M.A., I.L.B.
 Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, Bar-at-Law,
 „ Purshotam Balunka, L. M. & S.
 Mr. W. Ellis Jones.
 Sir Vasant Rao Dabholkar, Kt., C.B.E.

Officials.

Mr. G. W. Hatch, C.I.E., I.C.S.
 „ M. Webb, I.C.S.
 „ W. W. Smart, I.C.S.
 „ J. R. Martin, C.I.E., I.C.S.
 „ J. W. Smyth, I.C.S.
 „ G. Wiles, C.I.E., I.C.S.
 „ C. W. A. Turner, I.C.S.
 „ J. Monteath, I.C.S.
 „ Balak Ram, I.C.S.
 „ C. B. Pooley.
 „ R. T. Harrison,
 „ J. Ghosal, C.I.E., I.C.S.
 „ H. Dow, I.C.S.
 „ C. G. Freke.
 „ F. G. H. ~~Freke~~ I.C.S.
 H

The Madras Presidency

Madras Presidency occupies the whole portion of the Peninsula, and, exclusive of the States, most of which have now under the direct control of the Government. It has an area of 141,075 square miles. It has on the east, on the Bay of Bengal, a coast line of about 1,200 miles; on the west, on the Arabian Sea, a coast line of about 1,000 miles.

In all this extent of the coast, there is not a single natural harbour of importance; the ports, with the exception of Madras, and perhaps of Cochin, are open roadsteads. A plateau, varying in elevation above sea-level from about 100 to 1,000 feet and stretching northwards to the Nilgiri Hills, occupies the central part of the Presidency; on either side are the Western Ghats, which meet in the Nilgiri Hills. The height of the western mountains has an important effect on the rainfall. The chain is high, the intercepted rain gives a heavy fall, which may amount to 100 inches on the seaward side, but comparatively little on the landward side. Where the chain is low, rainfall is not checked in their westward march. The central table land and on the east, rainfall is small and the heat in summer is oppressive. The rivers, which flow from the west in their earlier course drain rather into the country; but the deltas of the Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery are productive tracts even in time of drought and only portions of the east coast where there is not dependent on a rainfall exceeding 40 inches and apt to be

Population.

The population of the Presidency was returned in 1921 as 42,794,155, an increase of 2.2 per cent. The figure of 1911 of 2.2 per cent. The has been for the more densely populated portions of the province to increase their population while the sparsely inhabited tracts have declined in density. Hindus account for 80 per cent of the population, Mahomedans for 8, Christians for 1, Animists for 1. The majority of the population is of the Dravidian race and the principal Dravidian languages, Tamil and Telugu, are spoken by 18 and 20 persons respectively. Of every thousand 410 speak Tamil, 377 speak Telugu, 35 speak Malayalam, 37 Oriya, 35 Canarese and 23 English.

Government.

Madras Presidency is governed on the principle similar to that obtaining in the United Kingdom. There are associated with the Governor four members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. Madras administration differs, in some important respects from that of the other provinces. There is no inter-colonial administration between the Collector of the District and the authorities at head-quarters. Commissioners of Divisions being appointed in Madras. Another feature peculiar to Madras Presidency is the manner of the selection of the Ministers. Following the practice of the Government of India, the Minister of the Madras Presidency is the leader of the dominant party to

form a ministry, giving him freedom to select his colleagues on the ministry. Consequently he enjoys the status of Chief Minister—unknown in other provinces in India.

Agriculture and Industries.

The principal industry of the province is agriculture in which 68 per cent. of the population is engaged. The principal food crops are rice, cholam, ragi and kambu. The industrial crops are cotton, sugar-cane and groundnuts. Agricultural education is rapidly progressing in the Presidency with a well known college at Coimbatore, with classes for juvenile and adult labourers attached to it, two agricultural middle schools and numerous demonstration farms. While paddy, which is the staple food of the population, occupies the largest cultivable area, cotton is by no means an inconsiderable crop of the province and is receiving close attention at the hands of local agricultural authorities. The area under cotton is estimated at 2,396,100 acres and, as in the case of paddy, efforts are being made to produce better strains of cotton suited to different localities by means of both selection and hybridization. Side by side with an increase in the area under cotton, there has been a strict exclusion of inferior cotton from existing good staple areas, while improved varieties have been systematically introduced. A special feature of the agricultural activities in the Presidency is the large industry which the planting community have built up, contributing substantially to the economic development of the province. They have organised themselves as a registered body under the title of "The United Planters' Association of South India," on which are represented the coffee, tea, rubber and a few other minor planting products. There are some 22 cotton mills in the Presidency which employ 35,000 operatives. Minor industrial concerns number over 120 and consist of oil mills, rope, rubber and tile works. Tanning is one of the principal industries of the Presidency, and there is considerable export trade in skins and hides although hide tanners have not been doing well of late. The manufacturing activities which are at present under the direction of the Department of Industries are mainly confined to the production of soap, ink, jam and preserves. The match making industry is just raising its head in Madras. Early last year the Council complied with a demand made by the minister in charge of Industries for funds for appointing a special officer to conduct an exhaustive survey of the existing and potential cottage industries in the Presidency. The aggregate value of the sea-borne trade of the Presidency has been showing a steady increase and is now in the neighbourhood of Rs. 80 crores per annum. As in other provinces, the forest resources are exploited by the Government. There are close upon 19,000 square miles of reserved forests.

Education.

The Presidency's record in the sphere of education has been one of continuous progress. There are at present about 40,000 public institutions, ranging from village primary schools to arts and professional colleges, their total strength being 3,000,000. Special efforts are being made to provide education for boys and girls. The Council passed a resolution in the past year to

the instance of an elected member that poor girls reading in any educational institution in the province—Government, local fund, Municipal or aided—should be exempted from School fees in any Standard up to III Form. The total expenditure of the province in Education is in the neighbourhood of Rs. 340 lakhs. The principal educational institutions in the province are the Presidency College, the Christian College and Pachaiyappa's College, Madras; the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly; the Government College, Kumbakonam; the Government College, Rajamundry; the Maharaja's College, Trivandrum; the Agricultural College, Coimbatore; and the Medical and the Engineering Colleges at Madras.

Cochin Harbour Scheme.

The Government of Madras and the authorities of the Cochin and Travancore States have come to an agreement regarding the financing of the Cochin Harbour scheme. The importance of this project lies in the fact that a good harbour at Cochin would lead to the development of a valuable hinterland which is at present far removed from any convenient port. The scheme is to cut a passage through the bar which blocks the entrance from the sea to an extensive backwater. A trial cut was made in 1923 and the effect of the monsoon thereon observed. The results recorded were examined by a committee of Harbour Engineers in England which reported favourably on the prospects of the scheme. The plant necessary for effecting a deeper and wider cut has been secured and the work is in progress. Everything had been prepared at Cochin for proceeding with the major works and with the arrival of the dredger and the pipe line on the lines of the Bombay plant work is progressing rapidly. If access through the bar can be established at all periods of the year, a portion of the backwater will be dredged to afford anchorage for ocean-going steamers.

Vizagapatam Harbour Project.

Even more pregnant with future possibilities is the scheme for the development of the Vizagapatam harbour. Proposals for the development of the port at this place have been under consideration since 1859; but the success of the project is bound up with the construction of direct railway communication between Vizagapatam and the Central Provinces; for the quantity of trade which could be obtained from the littoral itself is insufficient to justify the capital expenditure which would be required. In May 1925 the Government of India declared Vizagapatam a major port thereby enabling the development of the port under the directions of the Central Government. Preliminary operations commenced in the end of the year and were continued vigorously in 1926 with the aid of dredgers and rock-breakers. It is expected that the construction of the harbour will take four or five years. The surrounding hill-sides and adjacent areas will meanwhile be developed for industrial, trading and residential purposes.

Local Self-Government.

As in Bombay, the Madras District Municipalities and Local Boards Act has been amended in various directions, all of which have been passed.

Establishment of Village Panchayats, or Committees of Elders. Over 500 Panchayats have come into existence in the Presidency. Generally speaking the Local Boards in Madras display a courageous disposition to levy taxes up to the sanctioned maximum. Even then many of them are unable to make both ends meet.

Irrigation.

In March 1925, the Secretary of State sanctioned the Cauvery Reservoir Project, the estimated cost of which amounts to £4 millions. The project has been framed with two main objects in view. The first is to improve the existing fluctuating water supplies for the Cauvery Delta irrigation of over a million acres; the second is to extend irrigation to a new area of 801,000 acres, which will, it is estimated, add 150,000 tons of rice to the food supply of the country. The scheme which is expected to be completed before 1933 provides for a large dam at Mettur on the Cauvery to store 90,000 million cubic feet of water and for a canal nearly 88 miles long with a connected distributary system. Another important project is the Periyar project which is intended not only for irrigation purposes but also for providing water power for generating electricity. Taking its rise in the Western Ghats, the river flows into the Arabian Sea through Travancore State territory. After prolonged negotiations, the Travancore Durbar consented to the water being caught and stored in the Travancore hills for being diverted towards the East. Some three thousand feet above sea-level a concrete and masonry dam has been constructed and nearly 50 feet below the crest level of the dam a channel through the summit of the range carries the waters into the eastern water-shed where they are led into the river Vaigai. The total quantity of water impounded to crest level is 15,880 million cubic feet. By this work, a river ordained by Nature to flow into the Arabian Sea has been led across the Peninsula into the Bay of Bengal irrigating in its way well over 100,000 acres of land. The irrigable area commanded by the Periyar system is 142,749 acres, while the supply from the lake was sufficient only for 130,000 acres. To make up for this deficit, Government contemplate increasing the effective capacity of the lake by lowering the water-shed cutting at an estimated cost of Rs. 2½ lakhs. The area already under irrigation in the Madras Presidency totals 7 million acres. Of this, over 3 million acres are served by petty irrigation works numbering about 35,000.

Electric Schemes.

Of the major schemes that have been receiving Government's attention, a hydro-electric undertaking whose details are expected to be announced in the near future, is by far the most important. The protracted negotiations regarding the purchase by the Madras Government of what is known as the Pykara concession, which includes a huge and powerful water-fall have concluded and it has been decided to work the scheme as a government venture. It has indeed been publicly announced that Government do not propose to hand over either this water-fall or any other source of water power to any private syndicate for development. A member of the Engineers with wide knowledge of big hydro-electric

chemes in Canada has been appointed for five years to be in sole charge of the Pykharu Scheme. A proposal to electrify some portions at least of the railways in South India is also under the consideration of the Government. The increasing number of electric supply undertakings throughout the Presidency has necessitated the construction of an up-to-date electric testing laboratory for the electrical inspector to Government at a cost of nearly Rs. six lakhs.

Co-operation

The progress made by the Co-operative Department, both in the formation of new societies and the development of those registered in previous years has been very satisfactory. There was a large increase during the year in the number of members and in the amount of share capital, or working capital and of reserve fund. The steadily increasing efficiency of many of the local supervising unions gave evidence of the success of the policy adopted by Government of transferring, within statutory limits, the control of primary societies to non-official organisations wherever such a course was practicable. Some noteworthy features of the Co-operative movement during the year were the increased activities of the building societies stimulated by financial help from Government; a marked development in the organisation of labour societies, and an increase in the number of societies formed by cultivators to enable them to hold up their crops for a favourable market and for the joint sale of their produce. The co-operative movement also made satisfactory progress among the depressed classes during the year. A Committee was appointed to inquire into the progress of the Co-operative movement and suggest in what ways and on what lines the movement may be still further carried on.

Social Legislation.

An advanced piece of social legislation which has caused considerable excitement in the Presidency is the Hindu Religious Endowments Act. It has for its object the regulation of the great endowments of certain religious institutions, such as Hindu temples. The profits are applied under State control to benevolent activities, mostly educational. The measure entailed a considerable amount of correspondence with the Government of Madras; the Governor of Madras found himself unable to assent to the Bill as originally passed, and returned it for re-consideration, recommending certain amendments which the Council accepted. The Act came into force last year and has been working satisfactorily notwithstanding the obstacles placed in its

way by the orthodox section of the Hindu community. The latter are striving their utmost to put technical and other obstacles in the way of its smooth working and are making much of the suggestion thrown out by the Governor-General while giving his assent to the Bill, namely, that some of its defects might be remedied in the light of experience. Another piece of legislation—a non-official Bill—which has raised a heated controversy is the Malabar Tenancy Bill, which aims to confer, subject to certain conditions, occupancy rights on “kanom” tenants and actual cultivators of the soil. As there was a sharp difference of opinion on the very principles of the Bill and as it was thought that the landlords would be hard-hit by it the Governor has withheld his assent. A committee has been appointed to go into the matter thoroughly and its findings are awaited. Meanwhile the Madras Legislative Council has carried an adjournment motion protesting against the postponement of the Committee. Noteworthy among other efforts at legislation for social reform was the non-official resolution passed by the Council recommending to Government to undertake legislation or to ask the Government of India to do so to put a stop to the practice of dedicating young women and girls to Hindu temples for immoral purposes under the pretext of caste, custom or religion. It was also resolved to ask Government to fix as their goal the prohibition of drink in the presidency within 20 years.

Law and Order.

The Superior Court of Civil and Criminal judicial work in the Presidency is the High Court at Madras, which consists of a Chief Justice and eleven puisne judges. The existing law provides for a maximum of 20 High Court Judges. For the administration of criminal justice there are 25 Session Judges in the mofussil. Additional and Assistant Sessions Judges being provided to assist Courts in which the work is heavy. Then there are the District Magistrates, the Subordinate Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The administration of civil justice is carried on by 24 District Judges, 29 Subordinate Judges and District Munsifs. In the Presidency Town there are a City Civil Court consisting of one Judge and Small Causes Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two other Judges. Madras is a litigious province and the records show one suit for every 85 persons. The Police department is under an Inspector-General who has four deputies in four ranges of the Presidency a Superintendent being stationed at each District. The sanctioned strength of the permanent police force is about 30,000.

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates, 1927-28.	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates, 1927-28.
REVENUE	Rs.	EXPENDITURE	Rs.
II—Taxes on Income ..	5,46,000	5—Land Revenue	45,08,000
V—Land Revenue ..	7,54,86,200	6—Excise	43,86,800
VI—Excise ..	4,98,24,100	7—Stamps	6,29,000
VII—Stamps ..	4,88,85,200	8—Forest	43,32,200
		SA—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue ..	5,97,000
		9—Registration	28,57,000

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates, 1927-28	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates, 1927-28
REVENUE— <i>contd.</i>	Rs.	EXPENDITURE— <i>contd.</i>	Rs
VIII—Forest	50,83,100	15—Irrigation—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from Ordinary Re- venues	59,64,400
IX—Registration	39,67,900	16—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embank- ment and Drainage Works	11,500
XIII—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept.	47,99,500	19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	62,79,500
XIV—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,02,200	21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	40,22,000
XVI—Interest	23,34,200	22—General Administration ..	2,33 38 20
XVII—Administration of Justice	12,60,500	24—Administration of Justice.	88,86 200
XVIII—Jails and Convict Set- tlements	8,85,6000	25—Jails and Convict Settle- ments	31,51,700
XIX—Police	9,43,700	26—Police	1,90,26,000
XXI—Education	6,51,200	27—Ports and Pilotage	88 000
XXII—Medical	4,53,900	30—Scientific Departments ..	2,68,700
XXIII—Public Health ..	37,100	31—Education	2,17,64 500
XXIV—Agriculture	2,65,300	32—Medical	76,89,600
XXV—Industries	7,73,200	33—Public Health	84,77 800
XXVI—Miscellaneous Depart- ments	4,41,900	34—Agriculture	34,84,600
XXVII—Civil Works	7,92,200	35—Industries	20,80,700
XXVIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	5,91,000	37—Miscellaneous Departments	21,76,500
XXIX—Stationery and Print- ing	2,49,100	41—Civil Works	1,74,09,200
XXXV—Miscellaneous ..	7,81,200	43—Famine Relief and Insu- rance	6,61,000
(a) Total—Revenue ..	16,54,92,400	45—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	59,94 500
Famine Insurance Fund	5,78,200	46—Stationery and Printing ..	21,01 500
Loans and advances by Provincial Government	32,62,000	47—Miscellaneous	3,16 600
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	1,60,00,000	Total—Expenditure Charged to Revenue.	15,61,60,000
Appropriations for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	40,22,000	EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE.	
Suspense	5,79,000	52A—Capital outlay on Forests.	2,46 100
(b) Total	2,44,41,800	55—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embank- ment and Drainage Works	1,52,02 100
(a) + (b) Total—Receipts ..	18,99,34,200	56C—Capital outlay on Indus- trial Development	1,79 600
Opening { Famine Insurance Fund ..	30,56,857	56D—Capital outlay on Hydro- Electric Schemes	6,00,000
Balance { General Balances	1,92,28,829	60—Civil Works— not charged to Revenue	11,78,800
Grand Total	21,22,19,885	60E—Payment of commuted value of Pensions	9,90 000
		Total Expenditure not Charged to Revenue.	1,83,95 500
		Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	91,95,600
		Advances from Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India ..	40,22,000
		Suspense	5,79 000
		Total—Disbursements ..	18,89,52 100
		Closing { Famine Insurance Fund ..	36,30 000
		Balance { General Balances	2,02,32 729
		Grand Total	21,22,19,885

of T. A. Stewart, C.I.

His Excellency the Right Hon. Viscount Goschen, G.C.I.E., C.B.E.

Personal Staff.

Private Secy., E. C. Smith, I.C.S.

Military Secy., Major H. F. C. Hobbs.

Surgeon, Major D. P. Johnstone, R.A.M.C.

Aides-de-Camp, Lieut. Maurice Alan Fremantle and Lieut. Henry Alleyne Lash.

Extra Aide-de-Camp, Captain George Gerrard Goschen.

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Risaldar-Major Hamir Singh Bahadur.

Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Body Guard, Major T. N. Watson, M.V.O.M.C.

Members of Council.

The Hon. Sir C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar, K.C.I.E.

" Sir Norman E. Marjoribanks, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S.

" Khan Bahadur Muhammad Usman Sahib Bahadur.

" T. E. Moir, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Ministers.

Dr P. Subbarayan, Bar-at-Law (Education and Development)

Mr A. Ranganatha Mudaliar (Local Self-Government, Medicine and Public Health).

Dewan Bahadur R. N. Arogyaswami Mudaliar (Public Works).

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.

Chief Secretary, A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.C.S.

Secretary, Finance Department, G. T. Boag, I.C.S.

Secretary, Local Self-Government Department, C. B. Cotterell, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Chief Engineer and Joint Secretary to Government, Public Works Department (Buildings and Roads), M. R. Kharegat.

Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government, Public Works Department, (General and Irrigation), P. Hawkins.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, Richard Littlehales, M.A. (on deputation).

Inspector-General of Police, F. A. Hamilton.

Surgeon-General, Major-General F.H. G. Hutchinson, C.I.E., M.B., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Colonel A. J. H. Russell, M.A., M.D., I.M.S.

Accountant-General, J. C. Nixon, B. Sc., I.C.S., I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Colonel John Phillip Cameron, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, R. W. Hanson.

Commissioner of Excise, P. L. Moose,

Inspector-General of Registration E. Rower.

Meteorologist and Deputy Director, Meteorology, S. R. U. Savur.

Acting Director, Kodaikanal Observatory, Roys.

Superintendent, Govt. Central Museum, and Librarian, Oonaemura Public Library H. Gravely.

Director of Agriculture, R. D. Anstead,

Chief Conservator of Forests, H. Tirema

Presidents and Governors of St. George in Madras

William Gyfford

Elihu Yale

Nathaniel Higginson

Thomas Pitt

Gulston Addison

Died at Madras, 17 Oct., 1709.

Edmund Montague (*Acting*)

William Fraser (*Acting*)

Edward Harrison

Joseph Collet

Francis Hastings (*Acting*)

Nathaniel Elwick

James Macrae

George Morton Pitt

Richard Benyon

Nicholas Morse

John Hinde

Charles Floyer

Thomas Saunders

George Pigot

Robert Palk

Charles Bouchier

Josias DuPre

Alexander Wynch

Lord Pigot (*Suspended*)

George Stratton

John Whitehill (*Acting*)

Sir Thomas Rumbold, Bart.

John Whitehill (*Acting*)

Charles Smith (*Acting*)

Lord Macartney, K.B.

Gov of Madras.	Sir	Denison K.C.B.	1861
	Acting Viceroy 1863 to 1864.		
Lord Macartney, K.B.	1785	Edward Matthey (Acting)	1863
Alexander Davidson (Acting)	1785	Lord Napier of Merchistoun, K.T. (a) ..	1866
Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.B.	1786	Acting Viceroy.	
John Hollohd (Acting)	1789	Alexander John Arbuthnot, C.S.I. (Acting)	1872
Edward J. Hollohd (Acting)	1790	Lord Hobart	1872
Major-General William Medows	1790	Died at Madras, 27 April, 1875.	
Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart.	1792	William Rose Robinson, C.S.I. (Acting) ..	1876
Lord Hobart	1794	The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos ..	1875
Major-General George Harris (Acting) ..	1798	The Right Hon. W. P. Adam	1880
Lord Clive	1799	Died at Ootacamund, 24 May, 1881.	
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck ..	1803	William Hadleston (Acting)	1881
William Petrie (Acting)	1807	The Right Hon. M. B. Grant Duff	1881
Sir George Ellaro Barlow, Bart., K.B. ..	1807	The Right Hon. Robert Bourke, F.C. ..	1884
Lieut.-General the Hon. John Aber- cromby.	1813	Lord Connemara, 12 May, 1887 (by creation).	
The Right Hon. Hugh Elliot	1814	John Henry Garstin, C.S.I. (Acting) ..	1890
Major-General Sir Thomas Munro, Bart.; K.C.B. Died 6 July, 1827.	1820	Baron Wenlock	1891
Henry Sullivan Groome (Acting)	1827	Sir Arthur Ellbank Havelock, G.C.M.G. ..	1896
Stephen Rumbold Lushington	1827	Baron Amphilil	1900
Lieut.-General Sir Frederick Adam, K.C.B.	1832	Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1904.	
George Edward Russell (Acting)	1837	James Thomson, C.S.I. (Acting)	1900
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H., P.C.	1837	Gabriel Stokes, C.S.I. (Acting)	1906
Lieut.-General the Marquess of Tweed- dale, K.T., C.B.	1842	Hon. Sir Arthur Lawley, K.C.M.G.; G.C.I.E.	1906
Henry Dickinson (Acting)	1848	Sir Thomas David Gibson-Carmichael; Bart., K.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. (b)	1911
Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., G.C.B.	1848	Became Governor of Bengal, 1 April	
Daniel Elliott (Acting)	1854	Sir Murray Hammick, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1912
Lord Harris	1854	(Acting).	
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B. ..	1859	Right Hon. Baron Pentland, F.C., G.C.I.E.	1912
William Ambrose Morehead (Acting) ..	1860	Baron Willingdon	1919
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G. Died at Madras, 2 August, 1860.	1860	Lord Goschen	1924
William Ambrose Morehead (Acting) ..	1860	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Strick.	
		(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Carmi- chael of Skirling.	

MADRAS LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT.

The Hon. Rao Bahadur C. V. S. Narasimha Raju Garu.

L—MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex-Officio.

The Hon. Sir C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar, K.C.I.E.

The Hon. Sir Norman E. Marjoribanks, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.O.S.

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Muhammad Usman Sahib Bahadur

The Hon. Mr. T. R. Mohr C.S.I., C.I.E., I.O.S.

II.—ELECTED MEMBERS.

(a) Ministers.

The Hon. Dr. P. Subbarayan, Bar-at-Law.

The Hon. Mr. A. Ranganatha Mudaliyar.

The Hon. Diwan Bahadur R. N. Arogyaswami Mudaliyar.

(b) Other Members.

Abbas Ali Khan Bahadur, Bar-at-Law.

M. R. Ry. Sami Venkatachalam Chetti Garu

M. R. Ry. Chittoor Srinivasa Govindaraya Mudaliyar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. B. S. Mallaya Avargal.

M. R. Ry. P. Bhaktavatsulu Nayudu Garu.

M. R. Ry. Laguduva Kuppur Tulasiram Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Ummaheswara Ayyar Ramaswami Ayyar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Chavali Rama Somayajulu Garu.

M. R. Ry. Ankitam Venkata Bhanoji Rao Garu.

M. R. Ry. Tinnevely Chavadi Kuthanainar Pillai Subrahmanya Pillai Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Chinnapalamada Obi Reddi Garu.

M. R. Ry. Battini Narayana Reddi Garu.

M. R. Ry. T. Adinarayana Chettiyar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. M. A. Manikkavelu Nayakar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Coja Venkatarangam Nayudu Garu.

M. R. Ry. Kayappakkam Sitarama Reddiyar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Ramanuja Srinivasa Ayyangar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Kannuswami Padayachi Ramachandra Padayachi Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Arcot Ranganatha Mudaliyar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Pulamati Silva Rao Garu.

M. R. Ry. Kallipattu Krishnaswami Nayakar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Chembarambakkam Nattu Muthuranga Mudaliyar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur Bollini Muniswami Nayudu Garu.

M. R. Ry. Comandur Ramakrishnarajupet Parthasarathi Ayyangar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur Conjeeveram Sadasiva Mudaliyar Ratnasabhapati Mudhar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Sangarandampalhiyam Vanavudaiya Goundar Vanavudaiya Goundear Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Coimbatore Venkatesa Ayyangar Venkataramana Ayyangar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. K. Koti Reddi Garu.

M. R. Ry. Arcot Parasurama Rao Garu.

Sriman Biswanath Das Mahasay.

M. R. Ry. Varada Kamoswara Rao Nayudu Garu.

The Hon'ble Rao Bahadur Sir Annepu Parasuramdas Patro, Kt.

M. R. Ry. Kandula Veeraraghavaswami Garu.

M. R. Ry. Bikani Venkataratnam Garu.

M. R. Ry. Dandu Narayana Raju Garu.

M. R. Ry. Mothay Narayana Rao Garu.

M. R. Ry. Jagarlamoody Kuppuswamy Garu.

M. R. Ry. Diwan Bahadur Paidupati Cooresooloo Nayudu Ethirajulu Nayudu Garu.

M. R. Ry. Pullalamari Anjaneyulu Pantulu Garu.

M. R. Ry. Attavar Balakrishna Chetty Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Kota R. K. A. argal.

ELECTED MEMBERS—(contd.)

- M. R. Ry. Mirjapuram Raja Garu *alias* Venkataramayya Apparao Bahadur Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Ayyadevara Kaleshwara Rao Garu.
 M. R. Ry. G. Harisarvothama Rao Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Konatham Sarabha Beddi Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Ponnambala Tyaga Ranjan Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Kadayam Ramabhadra Ayyar Venkatarama Ayyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Vadamaiki Tiruvannatha Sevuga Pandiya Tevar Avargal, Zamindar.
 M. R. Ry. Karuthodiyil Madhavan Nayar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Diwan Bahadur Maunath Krishnan Nayar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Venkatagiri Kumara Raja Velugoti Sarvagaya Kumara Krishnayachendra Bahadur Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Bezvada Ramachandra Reddi Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Diwan Bahadur Arunachala Murugappa Murugppay Chettiyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Tirupullam Chellam Ayyangar Srinivasa Ayyangar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Dharmalinga Appavu Chettiar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Rao Sahib Sankaram Chettiyar Ellappa Chettiyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. S. Muthia Mudaliyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. C. Marudavanam Pillai Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. K. S. Sivasubramania Ayyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Diwan Bahadur Subbarayana Kumaraswami Reddiyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Tenkasi Kilangadu Chidambaranatha Mudaliyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Trichinopoly Mookapillai Narayanaswami Pillai Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Munisabai Rangathan Ayyar Seturatnam Ayyar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Pasupati Cunnara Venkatapathi Raju Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur Chintapati Venkata Surya Narasimha Raju Garu.
 M. R. Ry. Hoobatalai Belli Gowder Ari Gowder Avargal.
 Abdul Hamid Khan Sahib Bahadur.
 Abbas Ali Sahib Bahadur.
 Tanab Munshi Abdul Wahab Sahib Bahadur.
 Mohammad Khadir Sahib Mohideen Sahib Bahadur.
 Junab K. Abdul Hye Sahib Bahadur.
 Saidapat Khadir Hussain Abdul Razack Sahib, Khan Bahadur.
 Dashed Ahmad Sayeed Sahib Bahadur.
 Syed Tajudin Sahib Bahadur.
 K. P. V. S. Muhammad Meera Bowther Bahadur.
 Nattam Dubash Kadir Sahib Syed Ibrahim Sahib Bahadur.
 Kotial Uppl Sahib Bahadur.
 T. M. Moidee Sahib Bahadur.
 Muhammad S'Channad Sahib Bahadur.
 M. R. Ry. V. Ch. John Avargal.
 Mr. Jerome Antony Saldanha.
 M. R. Ry. Savarimuttu Arpudaswami Udayar Avargal.
 M. R. Ry. Daniel Thomas Avargal.
 Sir Alexander MacDougall, K.
 Mr. John Albert Davis.
 Sri Ramachandra Mardaraja Deo, Zamindar of Kallikota and Attagada Estate.
 S. Anayana Appa Rao Bahadur Garu, Moka Zamindar of Gollapudi

ELECTED MEMBERS—(concl'd.)

The Hon'ble Sir Panaganti Ramarayaningar, Raja of Panagal.

M. R. Ry. Baskara Rajarajeswara Setupati *alias* Muthuramalinga Setupati Avargal. Raja o
Ramnad.

M. R. Ry. Kumaran Raman *alias* Kavalappara Moopil Nayar Avargal.

M. R. Ry. S. Satyamurthi Avargal.

Mr. Cecil Ralph Townshend Congreve.

Mr. Charles Edgar Wood.

Mr. Kenneth Kay.

Mr. J. Mackenzie Smith.

M. R. Ry. Chengalath Gopal Menon Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Alagappa Chettiyar Arunachalam Chettiyar Narayanan Chettiyar Avargal.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

M. R. Ry. Madras Varadaraja Gongadhara Siva Avargal, Medical Practitioner, Cuddapah.

M. R. Ry. Lakkepogu Ootappah Guruswami Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Vellesa Iyyaswami Muniswami Pillai Avargal, Ootacamund.

M. R. Ry. Gudipati Premayya Garu,

M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur Mylai Chinnathambi Rajah Avargal.

Swami Sahajanandam, Nandanar School, Chidambaram.

M. R. Ry. Namasivayam Siva Raj Avargal, B.A., B.L., Madras.

M. R. Ry. Rao Sahib Retamalay Srinivasan Avargal.

M. R. Ry. Sappanai Mooppanar Subrahmanya Mooppanar Avargal, Headman of Chintamani,
Trichinopoly Fort.

M. R. Ry. Rao Sahib Parasurama Venkatachala Subbaraya Sundaramurti Pillai Avargal,

Maharaja Sir Ramachandra Deo, Raja of Jeypore.

Dr. (Mrs.) Muthulakshmi Ammal.

M. R. Ry. Jakkamsetti Bheemiah Garu, Member, District Board, West Godavari.

M. R. Ry. S. N. Dorai Rajah Avargal of Pudukkottai, Trichinopoly.

M. R. Ry. Ramanatha Goenka Avargal, The Bombay Company, Madras.

M. R. Ry. Rao Sahib Midattala Hampayya Garu, Guntakal.

M. R. Ry. Kotieth Krishnan Avargal, B.A., B.L., Tellicherry.

M. R. Ry. R. Gaganna Gowd Garu, Hospet.

Subadar Major Nanjappa, late 61st Pioneers, Salem.

M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur Olappamanna Manakkal Narayanan Nambudripad Avargal.

M. R. Ry. W. P. A. Soundara Pandya Nadar Avargal.

Khan Bahadur Muhammad Bazi-ullah Sahib Bahadur, C.I.E., O.B.E., Director of Industries.

Mr. George Townsend Boal, I.O.S., Secretary to Government, Finance Department.

Mr. Cecil Bernard Cottrell, C.I.E., I.O.S., Secretary to Government, Local Self-Government
Department, Acting Second Secretary to Government.

Mr. Vombatkere Pandrang Rao, I.O.S., Secretary to Government, Development Department.

M. R. Ry. Gnanavaram Pillai P. J. Negapatam.

The Presidency of Bengal, as constituted on the 1st April 1912, comprises the Burdwan and Presidency Divisions and the district of Darjeeling which were formerly administered by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal and the Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong divisions which by the partition of the old Province had been placed under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The area of the Presidency is 82,277 square miles, and it possesses a population of 47,592,162 persons; included within this area are the two Indian States of Cooch Behar and Tripura; which are now placed in direct political relations with the Government of India. The Governor of Bengal in Council acts as Agent to the Governor-General of India for these States. The area of the British territory is 76,848 square miles. Bengal comprises the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and in the main consists of a great alluvial plain intersected in its southern portion by innumerable waterways. In the north are the Himalayan mountains and submontane tracts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri, and on the south-east the hills in Tripura and Chittagong, while on the west the Chota Nagpur plateau is continued by an undulating tract running through the western portions of Midnapur, Bankura, Burdwan and Birbhum. The general range of the country however is very low, and a great fertile plain extends southward from Jalpaiguri to the forests and swamps known as the Sunderbans, which lie between the area of cultivation and the Bay of Bengal.

The People.

Of the inhabitants of the Presidency 26,486,124 or 55·55 per cent. are Mahomedans and 20,809,148 Hindus. These two major religions embrace all, but 2·73 per cent. of the population, Christians, Buddhists and Animists combined, number 1,273,873.

Bengali is spoken by ninety-two per cent. of the population of the Presidency and Hindi and Urdu by 8·8 per cent. The Oriya-speaking people number 298,372 and Nepali is the tongue of 98,060 persons principally residents in the Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts. The great majority of the speakers of the Munda languages are Santals in West and North Bengal.

Industries.

According to the returns of the Census of 1921 nearly 37 millions or over 77 per cent. of the population derive their support from pasture and agriculture, and of these more than 30½ millions are cultivators, and more than 4½ millions farm servants and field labourers. The area under jute in 1925 is estimated at 2,552,936 acres against 2,390,108 in 1924. Bengal is the most important rice-producing area in Northern India, and it is computed that about 85 per cent. of the cultivated area of the Presidency is devoted to its production. Other crops include barley, wheat, pulses and oil-seeds, the area devoted to the last named in 1924 being 1,040,000 acres. Sugar is produced both from the sugar-cane and from the date-palm, and tobacco is grown for local consumption in nearly every district of Bengal. The area under tea in 1924 was 181,833 acres. There were 327 plantations employing a daily average of 148,820 permanent and 2,574 temporary hands.

Manufacture and Trade.

The main industries in this part of India in addition to the agricultural industry are the jute mill industry, the tea industry (largely an Assam industry) and coal mining. The jute mills in and around Calcutta constitute the principal manufacturing industry of the Presidency. From 1st April to 31st December 1921 all jute mills worked four days per week. From 1st January to 31st March 1923, multiple shift mills worked four days of 13½ hours each per week, single shift mills five days per week namely four days of 11 hours each and one day of 10 hours. There were 85 mills at work during the year 1924-25 with 49,780 looms and 1,053,821 spindles. The average number of persons employed daily was 3,36,926. The labour supply of mills during the year has been fair, but there have been many days lost through strikes at different mills. The value of the exports of Raw Jute by sea from Calcutta during 1925-26 increased from Rs. 27,45 lakhs to Rs. 55,99 lakhs. The quantity imported was less than in the preceding year by 45,400 tons and amounted to 615,500 tons. The Jute cess benefited the Calcutta Improvement Trust to the extent of Rs. 10·44 lakhs, while Rs. 9·72 lakhs were collected in the preceding year. The exports of raw and manufactured Jute represented more than half of Calcutta's exports during 1925-26 and these with the exception of cotton were India's premier exports in that year. Other principal industries were cotton twist and yarn, silk yarn and cloth, hand made cloth, sugar, molasses and paper. Eleven cotton mills were at work during 1924-25 employing daily on an average 12,000 persons. The silk weaving industry continues to decline. There was only one silk mill working during 1924-25 which employed 130 hands. The manufacture of tea is carried on an extensive scale in Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. The capital employed by joint stock companies in the industry in India amounted to Rs. 8½ crores and about 21 million pounds sterling; and the daily average labour force to 811,595 during 1924. In 1925 the number of coal mines under the scope of the Indian Mines Act worked in Bengal was 224. The total output for Bengal was 4,913,852 tons against 5,081,655 tons raised in 1924, while the output of all the mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam amounted to 18,852,361 tons. The paid up capital of joint stock coal companies only in the industry employed in these provinces is approximately Rs 10,81 lakhs. Three paper mills produced 21,613 tons of paper valued at Rs. 1,22,24,040 in 1923.

In 1925-26 the foreign sea-borne trade of Bengal (excluding treasure but including Government stores) amounted to Rs 238 crores of which 84 crores represented imports and Rs. 154 crores exports. Of the total foreign trade of Bengal, 91 per cent. was the share of Calcutta. The six chief exports from Bengal are in order of importance: jute (raw and manufactured), tea, lac, hides and skins (raw seeds, grain (pulse and flour) and the six leading imports are cotton goods, metals and ores, sugar, machinery and millwork, railway plant and rolling stock, and oils.

The Bengal Presidency

Administration.

nt form of administration in Bengal January 1921. In 1912 the Govern- Province underwent an important n, in accordance with the Proclama- Majesty the King-Emperor at Delhi, e was raised from the status of a Governor to that of a Governor-in- bringing it into line with the of Madras and Bombay. In 1921, eform Scheme, the Local Govern- constituted, certain of the depart- placed under the control of ppointed from among elected the Legislative Council. There are r members of the Executive Council, charge of the "reserved subjects," ministers, who are in charge of the a subjects," but in 1924, owing to sons there were only two ministers, d to resign owing to the refusal tive Council to vote their salaries. gnation, the transferred subjects on by the members of the Execu- Two ministers were appointed e Governor in March 1925 for the on of the transferred subjects, but e refusal of the Legislative Council r salaries they resigned their offices e month. The administration of subjects was there-upon assumed by overnor of Bengal and subsequently y or State ordered the suspension f all transferred subjects in Bengal t January 1927. In the course of inisters were again appointed. This ries were voted by a small majority nistration is thus being carried on ntended.

administered by five Commissioners, e being those of the Presidency, Bur- i Dacca and Chittagong. The unit- tion is the District Magistrate and As Collector he supervises the in- the revenue and is the head of all nents connected with it, while as tristrate he is responsible for the on of criminal justice in the dis- mediate superior of the District e Divisional Commissioner. Com- re the channels of communication local officers and the Government. e revenue matters they are, in their t to the Board of Revenue in Cal- uther matters they are under the l of Government.

Justice.

nistration of Justice is entrusted to rt of Calcutta which consists of the e who is a Barrister and 16 Pules- iding two additional judges who r Civilians or Vakils. Below the are the District and Additional Small Causes Court and Subor- dices and Munsiffs. Of these District and Additional Judges and mber of subordinate Judges are also h the powers of a Criminal Court mander have jurisdiction in Civil e Criminal Justice is administered Court, the Courts of Session and the he various classes of

On its appellate side, the High Court disposes of appeals from the order of a Court of Session and it also confirms, modifies or annuls sentences of death passed by Sessions Courts. Calcutta has five Presidency Magistrates including a Temporary Magistrate, two Municipal Magistrates and also a number of Honorary Magistrates and it possesses a Court of Small Causes with Judges who dispose of cases of the class that are usually heard in County Courts in England.

In addition a number of Union Benches and Courts have been established in selected rural areas for the disposal by honorary agency of petty criminal cases and civil disputes.

Local Self-Government.

By Bengal Act III of 1884 which regulates municipal bodies in the interior and its subsequent amendments the powers of Commissioners of municipalities have been increased and the elective franchise has been extended. Municipal expenditure now comprises a large number of objects, including veterinary institutions, employment of Health Officers and Sanitary Inspectors and the training and employment of female medical practitioners. The Commissioners also have large powers in regard to the water supply and the regulation of buildings. The municipal Government of Calcutta is governed by Act III of 1923. This Act, which replaced Act III of 1899, makes the Corporation paramount in matters relating to municipal administration. The Act provides for the appointment of a Mayor, who replaces the Chairman of the old Act, a Deputy Mayor, an Executive Officer, and Deputy Executive Officers, all elected by the Corporation. The appointment of the Chief Executive Officer is subject to the approval of Government. The total number of councillors is 85, with 5 Aldermen, elected by the councillors. Ten of the councillors are nominated by Government, and by the general or special constituencies. There are separate constituencies for Mahomedans. In order to improve the insanitary and congested areas of the city, the Calcutta Improvement Trust has been created with extensive powers in the mofussil, District and Local Boards exercise considerable powers, with regard to Public Works, Education and Medical relief and Union Committees have been formed which deal for the most part with the control of village roads, sanitation and water-supply.

Bengal Act V of 1919 introduced the new system of self-government by a creation of village authorities vested with the power and duties necessary for the management of communal village affairs and entrusted with powers of self-taxation. The new village authority, to be called the Union Board, will replace the existing *Chaukidari panchayats* and the Union Committee and will deal with the village police, village roads, water supply, sanitation, primary schools and dispensaries. The Act also empowers Government to create out of the members of the Union Boards Village Benches and Courts for the trial of petty criminal and civil cases arising within the union. The Act has been extended to all Districts in the Presidency except Darjeeling, Chittagong, and Malda and in 1923 over 2,000 Union Boards were sanctioned, of which nearly

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the charge of a Chief Engineer who is also the Secretary to Government in the P. W. and Railway Departments.

The P. W. & D. deals with questions regarding the construction of public buildings and roads.

The Railway Department deals with questions regarding acquisition of lands required by the several Railways, the alignment of new lines of Railways, and with Tramway projects.

Irrigation.

The Irrigation Department deals with irrigation, navigation, flood protection by means of embankments and drainage, the latter including relief from congestion of drainage by regulating the available supplies of water to suit the requirements of agriculture combined with the supply of water for irrigation in cases in which a supply is available.

Marine.

The Marine Department deals with all questions connected with the Bengal Pilot Service, merchant shipping, the administration of ports, and inland navigation.

Police.

The Bengal Police force comprises the Military Police, the District Police, the Railway Police, and the River Police. The Bengal Police are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the present Inspector-General being a member of the Imperial Police Service. Under him are Deputy Inspectors-General, for the Dacca Range, the Rajshahi range, the Presidency range, the Burdwan range and the Bakarganj range and also one Deputy Inspector-General in charge of the C. I. D. and the Intelligence Branch. Each district is in charge of a Superintendent, and some of the more important districts have an Additional Superintendent. The Railway Police is divided into three distinct charges each under a Superintendent. The River Police is also under a Superintendent. The cadre comprises Assistant Superintendents, Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. There is also a Village Police, composed of daffadars and chowkidars, who receive a monthly salary which is collected from the villages or unions by the Panchayat or Union Board. There is a training college and school at Sardah, in the district of Rajshahi where newly appointed gazetted officers, and constables of the Bengal police learn their duties. The Calcutta City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government. The Commissioner has under him Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. A school for the training of recruits for the Calcutta Police force has been established at Calcutta. The annual cost of the Police is over 184 lakhs.

Medical.

The head of the Medical Department is the Surgeon-General with the Government of Bengal, and is in charge of the of Public the f a

ment is always held by a member of the Indian Medical Service, while the latter post is not so reserved. There is also a Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal. In the districts the Civil Surgeons are responsible for medical work. There are 26 hospitals in Calcutta 10 of which are supported by the Government and 416,019 persons were treated at these institutions of whom 40,775 were in-patients. In the mofussil districts there are 914 hospitals and dispensaries; the number of patients treated in them was 7,082,603 including 61,975 in-patients.

Education.

In the Presidency of Bengal education is imparted partly through Government agency and partly through private bodies, assisted to some extent by Government grants-in-aid. Government maintains three Arts Colleges in Calcutta (of which one is a college for women and one the Sanskrit College), one at Hughli, one at Krishnagar, three at Dacca, one at Rajshahi and one at Chittagong. It also maintains two training colleges, one at Calcutta and one at Dacca, for teachers who teach in secondary schools through the medium of English, and 5 normal schools, one in each division, for the training of teachers in secondary schools through the medium of the vernacular; also an engineering college at Sibpur and an engineering school at Dacca, two medical colleges, a veterinary college, a school of art and a commercial school in Calcutta, and a weaving school at Serampore. It also provides at the headquarters of all districts, except Burdwan and Midnapore, and also at certain other mofussil centres, English high schools for the education of boys, while to some Government Arts Colleges high schools are attached. In Calcutta there are four Government high schools for boys, two of which are attached to the Presidency College and one to the Sanskrit College. Government high schools for girls exist only in the headquarters stations of Calcutta, Dacca, Mymensingh, and Chittagong. The other secondary schools, with the exception of a few middle schools managed either by Government or by municipal and district boards, are under private control. The administration of primary education in all areas, which are not under municipalities, rests with the district boards grants being given from provincial revenues to the boards, which contribute only slightly from their own funds. Only in backward localities are such schools either entirely managed, or directly aided, by Government. Apart from the institutions referred to above, 35 institutions called Guru Training Schools are maintained by the Department for the training of primary school teachers. For the education of Mahomedans, there are senior madrasas at Calcutta, Dacca, Chittagong and Hughli, and one junior madrasa at Rajshahi which are managed by Government. There are also certain Government institutions for technical and industrial education. All institutions for technical and industrial education (except B. E. College, the Alsnanullah School of Engineering, Dacca the Government Commercial Institute and the Government School of Art, Calcutta) are now under the control of the of Ind A large proportion of educational

work of every grade is under the control of various missionary bodies, which are assisted by Government grants-in-aid.

The municipalities are required to expend a certain proportion of their ordinary income on education. They are mainly responsible for primary education within their jurisdiction, but schools in these areas are eligible also for grants from Government. These bodies maintain a high school at Burdwan, a high school at Santipur and a high school at Chittagong.

In 1926-27 there were in the Presidency:—

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES.

	Institu- tions.	Scholars.
Universities	2	1,821
Arts Colleges	38	24,122
Professional Colleges	16	7,001
High Schools	998	255,851
Middle Schools	1,670	144,109
Primary Schools	37,221	1,888,674
Special Schools	2,745	97,001

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES

Arts Colleges	4	301
Professional Colleges	3	62
High Schools	39	8,301
Middle Schools	76	8,991
Primary Schools	13,822	341,601
Special Schools	44	1,528

UNRECOGNISED SCHOOLS.

Males	1,175	43,247
Females	254	6,588

The Department is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, assisted by an Assistant Director and an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education. Each division is in charge of a Divisional Inspector assisted by a

certain number of Additional or Second Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors for Muhammadan Education according to the requirements of the several divisions. Similarly the administrative charge of the primary education of each district is in the hands of a District Inspector assisted by Sub-Divisional Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools, the latter class of officers being in some instances helped by officers of humbler status called Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting Pandits and Maulvis. Higher education is controlled by the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca established in 1857 and 1921, respectively, administered by the Chancellor (the Governor of Bengal), the Vice-Chancellor (appointed by Government) and a number of ex-officio elected and nominated fellows. The University of Calcutta maintains a Law College, called the University Law College, Calcutta. Dacca University also has a Law Department attached to it. Calcutta University is mainly an examining body, but it has now made itself responsible for advanced teaching for which purpose it employs an agency which is mainly distinct from the staffs of the affiliated colleges.

The percentage of scholars to the total population—

	Recogni- sed Schools.	Art Schools
Males	7.38	7.50
Females	1.72	1.76
Total	4.65	4.75

The University at Dacca is of the residential type. There is a Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education at Dacca. It conducts the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations for the students of institutions at Dacca and also the Islamic Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations.

The education of Europeans is mainly conducted by private agency, assisted by Government grants. Government however maintain a special Inspector, and also a school for boys, a school for girls (both residential) at Kursej, and attached to the latter a Training College (for women only).

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1927-28.

	Heads of Revenue.	Thousands of Rs.
Land Revenue	3,14,62
Excise	2,30 75
Stamps	3,46,00
Forest	31,94
Registration	3,900
Scheduled Taxes	19 50
Subsidised Companies	1,42
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept (Net)	4,18
Irrigation, Navigation, etc., for which no Capital Accounts are kept	2,22
Interest	5 54
Administration of Justice	14 20
Jails and Convict Settlements	10 60
Police	5,32
Courts and Pilotage	36
..	12,90

The Bengal Presidency

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL—contd.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1927-28—contd.

Heads of Revenue—contd.

Thousands of

Medical	7
Public Health	2
Agriculture	7
Industries	2
Miscellaneous Departments	4
Civil Works	4
Transfer from Famine Insurance Funds	7
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	1
Stationery and Printing	10
Miscellaneous	7
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	7
Extraordinary receipts	1
Loans and Advances by the Bengal Government	7
Advances from Provincial Loan Funds	1
Famine Insurance Fund	1

Total Receipts ..

10,71

Opening balance ..

1 73

Grand Total ..

12 45

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1927-28.

Thousands of R

Taxes on Income	89
Land Revenue	22
Excise	8
Stamps	9
Forests	2
Registration	21
Scheduled Taxes
Interest on works for which capital accounts are kept	14
Irrigation—Other revenue expenditure financed from ordinary revenue
Irrigation—Other revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance grants	1
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage works
Interest on ordinary debt
Reduction or avoidance of debt
General Administration	84
Administration of Justice	85
Jails and Convict Settlements	34
Police	1,72
Ports and Pilotage	7
Scientific Department
Education	1,28
Medical	43
Public Health	32
Agriculture	21
Industries	11
Miscellaneous Departments	2
Civil Works	98
Famine Relief and Insurance
Superannuation allowances and pensions	52
Stationery and Printing	21
Miscellaneous	4
Contributions and Assignments to the Central Government by Provincial Govern- ments

Total ..

9,31

Forest capital outlay not charged to revenue

Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works (not charged to revenue)—

In India

18

In England

10
Loans and advances by the Bengal Government	6
Civil Works not charged to Revenue	7
Commutated value of pensions—not charged to Revenue

Total Expenditure ..

9,74

Closing balance ..

1,36

Administration.**GOVERNOR AND PRESIDENT IN COUNCIL.**

His Excellency Lt.-Col. the Rt. Hon. Sir Francis Stanley Jackson, P.C., G.C.I.E.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, H. Graham, I.C.S.

Military Secretary, Lieut.-Colonel R. B. Butler, O.B.E., M.C.

Surgeon, Major H. Kingston, I.M.S.

Aide-de-Camp, Captain R. Althousen; Lt. G. R. E. Blois, Lt. J. C. A. Battye, and Lieut. J. A. Gascoigne.

Hon. Aide-de-Camp, Lt.-Col. L. Drysdale, V.D. (Northern Bengal Mounted Rifles); Major R. L. Bliss (Assam-Bengal Railway Battalion); and Sardar Bahadur S. W. Leden La (Indian Police).

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Bisaldar Mal Singh, 4th Duke of Cambridge's Own (Hodson's Horse). *Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Body Guard*, Major W. R. P. Henry, 5th K.E.O. (Probyn's Horse).

Adjutant, H.E. the Governor's Body Guard, Captain J. H. Wilkinson, 2nd Lancers (Gardner's Horse).

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL.

The Hon. Mr. James Donald, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

" " Maharaja Kshaminish Chandra Ray Bahadur, of Nadia.

" " Nawab Bahadur Sayid Nawab A. Chaudhuri, Khan Bahadur, C.I.E.

" " Mr. A. N. Moberly, C.I.E., I.C.S.

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon. Raja Manmatha Nath Ray Chaudhuri (President).

" " Khan Bahadur Maniri Emaduddin Ahmad, B.L. (Dy. President).

MINISTER.

The Hon. Sir Provash Chandra Mitter, Kt., C.I.E.

" " Nawab Musaharraf, Hussain Khan Bahadur.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary to Government, W. R. D. Prentice, I.C.S.

Secretary, Revenue Department, F. A. Sachse, I.C.S.

Secretary, Finance, Commerce and Marine Departments, J. A. Woodhead, I.C.S.

Secretary to the Council and Secretary, Legislative Department, J. Bartley, I.C.S. A. de C. Williams, I.C.S. (Officiating).

Secretary to Government, Public Works Department, and Chief Engineer, G. G. Dey (Roads, Buildings and Railway); and C. Addams-Williams, C.I.E. (Irrigation).

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, Edward Farley Oaten, M.A., LL.B.

Principal, School of Arts, P. Brown.

Inspector-General of Police, T. C. Simpson

Commissioner, Calcutta Police, C. A. Tegart, C.I.E.

Conservator of Forests, E. O. Shebheare

Surgeon-General, Major-General Godfrey Tate I.M.S.

Collector of Customs, Calcutta, G. S. Hardy, B.A. I.C.S.

Commissioner of Excise and Salt, G. P. Hogg M.A., I.C.S.

Accountant-General, (Offg.) Jagat Prasad, M.A., B.Sc.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. W. G. Hamilton, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, A. J. Hughes, C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Registration, Rai Bahadur J. N. Ray.

Director of Agriculture, R. S. Finlow, B.Sc., F.I.C.

Protector of Emigrants, Lt.-Col. Arthur Denham White, I.M.S., M.D.

Superintendent, Royal Botanic Gardens, Charles Cumming Calder, B.Sc., F.L.S.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF BENGAL.

Frederick J. Halliday 1854

John P. Grant 1859

Cecil Beadon 1862

William Grey 1867

George Campbell 1871

Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. .. 1874

The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I. .. 1877

Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I. (Offg.) .. 1879

A. Rivers Thompson, C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1882

H. A. Cockerell, C.S.I. (Officiating) .. 1885

Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1887

Sir Charles Alfred Elliott, K.C.S.I. .. 1890

Sir A. P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (Offg.) .. 1893

Sir Alexander Mackenzie, K.C.S.I. .. 1895

Retired 6th April 1898.

Charles Cecil Stevens, C.S.I. (Officiating) .. 1897

Sir John Woodburn, K.C.S.I. .. 1898

Died, 21st Nov. 1902.

J. A. Bourdillon, C.S.I. (Officiating) .. 1902

Sir A. H. Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I. .. 1903

Lancelot Hare, C.S.I., C.I.E. (Offg.) .. 1906

F. A. Slacke (Officiating) 1906

Sir E. N. Baker, K.C.S.I. 1908

Retired 21st Sept. 1911.

F. W. Duke, C.S.I. (Officiating) 1911

The office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was abolished on April 1st, 1912, when Bengal was raised to a Governorship.

GOVERNORS OF THE PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL**WILLIAM IN BENGAL.**

The Rt. Hon. Baron Carmichael of Skirling, G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G. 1912

The Rt. Hon. Earl of Ronaldshay, G.C.I.E., 1917

The Rt. Hon. Lord Lytton 1922

The Rt. Hon. Sir Stanley Jackson, P.C., G.C.I.E. 1927

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Raja Manmohan Nath Roy Chaudhury of Santosh, *President*,
Khan Bahadur Moulvi Emdaduddin Ahmed, B.L., *Deputy President*.

Ex-officio—

The Hon'ble Mr. J. Donald, C.S.I., C.I.E.
" " Maharaja Kshausish Chandra Ray Bahadur, of Nadia.
" " Nawab Bahadur Sayid Nawab Ali Chaudhuri, Khan Bahadur, C.I.E., of
Dhanbari.
" " Mr. A. N. Moberly, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Official Nominated Members—

Mr. W. D. R. Prentice.
" K. C. De, C.I.E.
Major-General Godfrey Tate, I.M.S.
Mr. G. G. Dey.
" G. S. Dutt.
" J. A. Woodhead.
" H. O. Luddell.
" J. H. Lindsay.
" J. G. Drummond.
" C. Addams-Williams, C.I.E.
" F. A. Sachse.
" E. F. Oaten.
" S. C. Stuart Williams.
" M. Marr, C.I.E.
" R. N. Reed.
" R. N. Gilchrist.

Nominated Non-Officials—

Mr S. C. Mukerji.
Rai Sahib Rehmat Mohan Sarkar.
Mr. K. C. Ray Chaudhuri.
Maulvi Latafat Hossain.
Dr. Sir Deba Prasad Sarbadhikari, B.L., C.I.E., C.B.E.
Mr. D. J. Cohen.

Elected Members.

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Babu Subhas Chandra Bose	Calcutta North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Dr. Pramathanath Banerjee	Calcutta East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Prabhu Doyal Himatsingka	Calcutta West (Non-Muhammadian.)
Dr. J. M. Das Gupta	Calcutta Central (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. A. C. Banerjee	Calcutta South Central (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Bejoy Krishna Bose	Calcutta South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Amulya Chandra Datta	Hooghly Municipal (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Khagendra Nath Ganguly	Howrah Municipal (Non-Muhammadian.)
Dr. Bidhan Chandra Roy	24-Parganas Municipal North (Non-Muhammadian.)

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Babu Surendra Nath Ray	24-Parganas Municipal South (Non-Muhamma- dan.)
Mr. Jogesh Chandra Gupta	Dacca City (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. P. C. Basu	Burdwan South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Sarat C. Basu	Burdwan North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Jitendra Lal Banerjee	Birbhum (Non-Muhammadian.)
Sujat Bijoy Kumar Chatterjee	Bankura West (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Umes Chandra Chatterjee	Bankura East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Debendra Lal Khan	Midnapore North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Promotha Nath Banerjee	Midnapore South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Mahendra Nath Maity	Midnapore South-East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Sujat Taraknath Mukerjee	Hooghly Rural (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Hanmatha Nath Roy	Howrah Rural (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Hem Chandra Nasker	24-Parganas Rural Central (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Sasi Sekhar Basu	24-Parganas Rural South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Rai Harendranath Choudhuri	24-Parganas Rural North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Basanta Kumar Lahiri	Nadia (Non-Muhammadian.)
Maharaj Kumar Sris Chandra Nandy	Murshidabad (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. D. N. Roy, Bar-at-Law	Jessore South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Rai Jadunath Mazumdar Bahadur, C.I.E.	Jessore North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Nagendra Nath Sen.	Khulna (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Kiran Sankar Roy	Dacca Rural (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Amarendra Nath Ghose	Mymensingh West (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Nalinranjan Sarker.	Mymensingh East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Dr. Kumud Sankar Ray	Faridpur North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Surendra Nath Biswas	Faridpur South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Saral Kumar Datta	Bakarganj North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Rai Satyendra Nath Roy Choudhuri Bahadur	Bakarganj South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. J. M. Sen Gupta	Chittagong (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Akhil Chandra Datta	Tippera (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Satyendra Chandra Ghose Maulik	Naokhali (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Sachindra Narayan Sanyal	Rajshahi (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Jogindra Chandra Chakravarti	Dinajpur (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Nagendra Narayan Ray	Rangpur West (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Jotindra Nath Chakraburttty	Rangpur East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Sujat Jogindra Nath Maitra	Bogra cum Pabna (Non-Muhammadian.)

Name of Member.	Name of	ency
Babu Romes Chandra Bagchi, B.L.	Malda (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Prassana Deb Raitat	Jalpaiguri (Non-Muhammadian.)
Sir Abdur Rahim, K.C.S.I.	Calcutta North (Muhammadian.)
Mr. H. S. Suhrawardy	Calcutta South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Abdul Razzak Haji Abdul Sattar	Hooghly <i>even</i> Howrah Municipal (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Muhammad Solaiman	Barraekpore Municipal (Muhammadian.)
Mr. Gholam Hossain Shah	24 Parganas Municipal (Muhammadian.)
Nawab Khwaja Habibullah	Dacca City (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Abdul Kasem	Burdwan Division North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Abdul Karim	Burdwan Division South (Muhammadian.)
Mr. A. F. M. Abdur Rahman	24-Parganas Rural (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Azizul Haque	Nadia (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Ekramul Hup	Murshidabad (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Syed Abdur Rauf	Jessore North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Syed Nausher Ali	Jessore South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Shamsur Rahman	Khulna (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Abdul Latif Biswas	Dacca West Rural (Muhammadian.)
Mr. Razsur Rahman Khan	Dacca East Rural (Muhammadian.)
Azizur Rahman Mia	Mymensingh North-West (Muhammadian.)
Haji Mr. A. K. Abu Ahmed Khan Ghuznavi	Mymensingh South-West (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Syed Muhammad Atiquallah	Mymensingh East (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muhammed Ismail	Mymensingh Central (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Tamizuddin Khan	Faridpur North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Chaudhury Gholam Mawla	Faridpur South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Khorsheed Alam Choudhury	Bakarganj North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Syed Mahamud Afzal	Bakarganj West (Muhammadian.)
Mr. Khwaja Nazimuddin, C.I.E.	Bakarganj South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Syed Maqbul Hossain, M.A., B.L.	Chittagong North (Muhammadian.)
Khan Sahib Maulvi Abdus Sattar	Chittagong South (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur K. G. M. Farouqi	Tippera North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Asimuddin Ahmad	Tippera South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Mohamed Sadeque	Noakhali East (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Abdul Gofran	Noakhali West (Muhammadian.)
Mr. Ashraf Ali Khan Chaudhuri	Rajshahi North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Eader Baksh, B.L.	Dinajpur (Muhammadian.)

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Maulvi Kasiruddin Ahmad	Rangpur West (Muhammadan.)
Kazi Emdadul Huq	Rangpur East (Muhammadan.)
Mr. Altaf Ali	Bogra (Muhammadan.)
Khan Sahib Maulvi Muazzam Ali Khan ..	Pabna (Muhammadan.)
Nawab Musharruf Hossain, Khan Bahadur ..	Malda cum Jalpaiguri (Muhammadan.)
Mr. J. Campbell Forrester	Presidency and Burdwan (European.)
„ F. E. James, O.B.E.	Do.
„ W. C. Wordsworth	Do.
„ J. E. Ordish	Dacca and Chittagong (European.)
„ W. L. Travers, C.I.E., O.B.E.	Rajshahi (European.)
„ L. T. Maguire	Anglo-Indian.
„ E. T. McCluskie	Do.
Raja Bhupendra Narayan Sinha Bahadur, of Nashipur.	Burdwan Landholders.
Sir Provash Chunder Mitter, Kt., C.I.E. ..	Presidency Landholders.
Babu Saroda Kripa Lala	Chittagong Landholders.
Maharaja Jogindra Nath Ray of Nator ..	Rajshahi Landholders.
Mr. S. C. Bose	Calcutta University.
Maharaja Shoshi Kanta Acharyya	Dacca University.
Mr. A. Mc. D. Eddis	Bengal Chamber of Commerce.
„ J. Y. Phillip	Do.
„ C. C. Miller	Do.
„ G. Morgan	Do.
„ S. A. Skinner	Do.
„ W. H. Thompson	Do.
„ R. B. Laird	Indian Jute Mills Association.
„ C. G. Cooper	Do.
„ J. A. MacDean	Indian Tea Association.
„ J. H. Jennaway	Indian Mining Association.
„ T. J. Phelps	Calcutta Trades Association.
„ Byomkes Chakravarti	Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.
„ Sarish Chandra Sen	Do.
Rai Badridas Goenka Bahadur	Bengal Marwari Association.
Mr. Ananda Mohan Poddar	Bengal Mahajan Sabha.

The United Provinces.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh lie in practically the centre of Upper India. They are bounded on the north by Tibet, on the north-east by Nepal, on the east and south-east by Bihar, on the south by two of the Chota Nagpur States of the Central India Agency and the Sango district of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the States of Gwalior, Dholpur, Bharatpur, Sirmoor, and Jubbah, and by the Punjab. Their total area amounts to 106,295 square miles, to which may be added the area of the two Indian States of Tehri and Rampur, both of which lie within the United Provinces. 5,392 square miles and the newly-created State of Benares with an area of 875 square miles, giving a total of 112,562 square miles. The total population is 46,510,668.

The Provinces, originally termed the North-Western Provinces and so amalgamated in 1877, receiving their present designation in 1902, include four distinct tracts of country: portions of the Himalayas, including the Kumaon division which consists of three hill districts, two of which are entirely in the hills and one is half in the submontane belt, the sub-Himalayan tract; the great Gangetic plain, and portions of the hill systems of Central India including Bundelkhand. The Gangetic plain is protected by an extensive Canal system, which though somewhat liable to run short of water in extremely dry years, is of great benefit in all ordinary years and years of limited drought. The first two of these tracts are infertile and support a very sparse population and the Central Indian plateau is almost equally infertile, though better populated. The soil of the Gangetic plain, however, possesses an extreme fertility and here the density of population rises from 512 persons per square mile in the west, to 649 in the centre and 718 in the east, which gives the Provinces as a whole a greater population pressure on the soil than any other Provinces in India. In the south there are low rocky hills, broken spurs of the Vindhyan mountains, covered with stunted trees and jungle, and in the North the lower slopes of the Himalayas, clothed with dense forest, affording excellent big and small game shooting, and rising beyond in a tangled mass of ridges, ever higher and higher, until is reached the line of the eternal snows, but the greater part of the provinces consists of level plain, teeming with highly-cultivated fields and watered by three rivers—the Ganges, Jumna, and Gogra.

The People.

The population is mainly Hindu, 85 per cent. ranking as such whilst Mahomedans number 14 per cent., the total of all other religions being a little over 1 per cent. composed of Christians (Europeans and Indians) Jains, Aryas and Sikhs. The Aryas are the followers of the Arya Samaj sect, which obtains widely in the Punjab and has extended its influence to the United Provinces. The three main physical types are Dravidian, Aryan and Mongoloid, the latter being confined to the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan districts and the former to South Mirzapur and Bundelkhand, whilst the high-caste Aryans frequent the Western districts of the Provinces. Most of the people, however, show

a mixed Arya-Dravidian origin. Three languages are spoken by the great majority of the people in the plains—Western Hindi, Eastern Hindi and Bihari; Urdu, or Hindustani is a dialect of Western Hindi, though it contains a large admixture of Persian and Arabic words, which makes it a *lingua franca*.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports no less than 75 per cent of the population. The soils of the Provinces fall into three groups; the valley soils of the Himalayas, the main alluvium and the Central Indian alluvium; the chief characteristic soil of the Central Indian alluvium is the black soil, with a lighter variant, though here also there are light loams and gravel. The Himalayan soils are of local origin and vary with the nature of the rock from which they have been formed, whilst the main alluvium soils are sand, clay and loam, the loam being, naturally, the most productive. The soil generally yields excellent crops of rice, millet, maize, linseed, cotton, wheat, sugarcane, pulses, barley, and poppy, rice being grown mostly in low-lying, heavy clays. The greater part of the Provinces is highly cultivated, the rainfall varies from 50 to 60 inches in the Hills, to 40 inches in the Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions, whilst the Agra Division receives about 25 to 30 inches annually only. Drought seriously affected Bundelkhand and the Agra Division, in the past, but improved drainage, and irrigation (a protective system of irrigation works exists and is being extended) have enabled a complete recovery to be made and the agricultural prosperity of the Provinces is now high, though it varies with the rainfall. Land is held mostly on the ryotwari tenure in Bundelkhand and Kumaon, on zamindari tenure in Agra and taluqdari tenure in Oudh. The principal land owners in Oudh are the Taluqdars, some of whom own very large estates. The area held in taluqdari tenure amounts to 54 per cent. of the total area in Oudh.

Manufactures.

The Provinces are not rich in minerals. Coal exists in Southern Mirzapur, iron and copper are found in the Himalayan districts, and there were mines of importance there formerly, but increased difficulty of working them as veins became exhausted resulted in the closure of most of them. Gold is found in minute quantities by washing in some of the rivers in the Hills. Limestone is found in the Himalayas and in the Meerut district, and stone is largely quarried in the Mirzapur district. Cotton is ginned and spun throughout the provinces as a home industry; and weaving, by means of hand-looms, is carried on in most districts. According to the census of 1921, 190,993 persons were dependent on cotton spinning, cleaning and pressing, and 52,069 on spinning and weaving. The largest industry is in the Azamgarh district, where there are 8,585 looms. Silk spinning is confined almost entirely to the district of Benares, where the famous *chikhab* brocade is made. Embroidery is manufactured in Lucknow, where the noted *chikan* work of silk on cotton or muslin is produced, and in Benares, where gold and

silver work on velvet, silk, crepe and sarsenet obtains. The glass industry is important in some districts. Benares and Moradabad are noted for their lacquered brass work, Farrukhabad for its calico prints and Agra for its carpets and marble and alabaster articles; porcelain is manufactured in Ghazipur, and other industries are those of paper-making (Lucknow) dyeing, leather and fireworks. The chief centre of European and Indian industry is Cawnpore, which, situated in the most advantageous position on the Ganges, possesses tanneries, cotton, woollen and other mills, which have a large and ever increasing output (the woollen mill is the largest in India). There are cotton factories at Aligarh (famous for its locks), Meerut and Bareilly; Mirzapur (which produces also excellent carpets), Hardoi and Hathras have cotton mills. Excellent furniture is made at Bareilly, at Allahabad there are stone works, at Rosa there is a large English distillery, with patent still.

The largest trade centres are Cawnpore, Allahabad, Mirzapur, Benares, Lucknow, Meerut, Aligarh, Hathras, Muttra, Agra, Farrukhabad, Moradabad, Chandausi, Bareilly, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Ghaziabad, Kherja, Gorakhpur, Ghazipur, Firozabad and Shahjahanpur.

Administration.

The Province was until the close of 1920 administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, chosen from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Reform scheme the Province was raised to the status of a Governor-in-Council, the Governor being assisted by two members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers from Jan. 12, 1926, in charge of the Transferred Subjects. The medium for the transaction of public business is the Secretariat, the Staff of which consists of 7 Secretaries and 4 Deputy Secretaries. The Director of Public Instruction is also *ex-officio* Deputy Secretary in the Education Department. The Chief Secretary is in charge of Appointment, General Administration, Executive, Political, Newspaper and Police Departments; the Finance Secretary deals mainly with the Finance Department; the Revenue Secretary is in charge of the Revenue, and Forest Departments and Public Works Department, (Buildings and Road); the Education Secretary looks to the Education and Industries Departments; the L. S. G. Secretary to the local Self-Government, Municipal, Medical and Public Health Departments & the Judicial Secretary is in charge of the Judicial and Legislative Departments. The seventh Secretary belongs to the Public Works Department, (Irrigation Branch) and is also Chief Engineer or the Irrigation Branch of the P.W.D. Government spends the cold weather, October to April, in Lucknow and Allahabad, mostly in Lucknow, though the Secretariat remains throughout the year at Allahabad. The Governor and the Secretaries spend the hot weather in Naini Tal, but during the monsoon the Governor tours the plains as he does also in the cold weather. The Board of Revenue is the highest court of appeal in revenue and rent cases, and it has important executive duties, being the chief revenue authority in the province. There are forty-

eight British districts, thirty-six in Agra and twelve in Oudh, average area 2,000 square miles and average population 1 million. Each district is in charge of a District Officer, termed a Collector and Magistrate in Agra and a Deputy Commissioner in Oudh and Kumaon. The districts are grouped together in divisions under a Commissioner. There are ten divisions, having an average area of nearly 12,000 square miles and a population of from 5 to 6 millions. The districts are sub-divided into *tahsils*, with an average area of 500 square miles and a population of 220,000. Each *Tahsil* is in charge of a *Tahsildar*, who is responsible for the collection of revenue, and also exercises judicial powers. *Tahsils* are divided into *parganas* which are units of importance in the settlement of land revenue. Subordinate to the *Tahsildars* are *namb tahsildars* and *kamungos*. Ordinarily there are three *kamungos* and one *namb tahsildar* to a *tahsil*. The *Kamungos* supervise the work of the *patwaris*, or village accountants, check their papers and form a link direct between the villagers and Government. For judicial purposes (revenue and criminal), the District Officer assigns a sub-division, consisting of one or more *tahsils*, as the case may be to each of his subordinates, who may be covenanted civilians (Joint and Assistant Magistrates and Collectors) or members of the Provincial Service (Deputy Collectors and Magistrates). The Commissioner of the Rohilkhand and Kumaon Divisions are Political Agents for the Native States of Rampur and Tehri respectively and the Commissioner of Benares is the Political Agent for Benares State.

Justice.

Justice is administered by the High Court of Judicature at Allahabad in the province of Agra and by the Chief Court in Oudh sitting at Lucknow which are the final appellate authorities in both criminal and civil cases. The former consists of a Chief Justice and eight permanent and two temporary puisne judges five of whom are Indians, and the latter consists of a Chief Judge and four judges three of whom are Indians. There are thirty-one posts (twenty-four in Agra and seven in Oudh) of district and sessions judges of which eight are held by Indians not belonging to the Indian Civil Service as they have been listed to the provincial service and the bar. They have both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases and occasional appellate jurisdiction in rent cases. District Officers and their assistants including *tahsildars*, preside in criminal courts as magistrates and as collectors and assistant collectors, in rent and revenue courts and dispose of a good deal of the work. Kumaon has been brought under the Civil jurisdiction of the High Court from 1-4-26. The deputy and assistant commissioners exercise inferior civil powers in this division which has no separate civil courts. In the rest of the provinces there are subordinate judges, judges of small cause courts and *munsifs* who dispose of a large number of civil suits. In Agra the jurisdiction of a subordinate judge extends to all original suits without pecuniary limit and a *munsif* can hear cases ordinarily of a value not exceeding Rs. 2,000, and if specially empowered up to Rs. 5,000. In Oudh the ordinary jurisdic-

tion of a subordinate judge extends to suits valuing not more than Rs. 20,000 and the ordinary jurisdiction of a munsif to suits of Rs. 2,000 value, provided that in special cases the limit of pecuniary jurisdiction can be removed altogether in the case of a subordinate judge and that of the munsif raised up to Rs. 5,000. Appeals from munsif always lie to the district judge while those from the subordinate judges go to the High Court or the Chief Court except in cases of a value of Rs. 5,000 or less which are heard by the district judge. Small cause court judges try suits to the value of Rs. 500. There are also honorary munsifs limited to Rs. 200 suits, and village munsifs whose jurisdiction is fixed at Rs. 20.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is exercised by means of District and Municipal Boards, the former levying local rates on land-owners; the latter deriving their revenue from octroi and other forms of taxation. The aim was to abolish octroi, but Indian opinion is reacting on this decision, because it interferes with through trade. All the principal Boards now have non-official Chairman, with an Executive Officer who is directly responsible to the Board in all matters.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is divided into the Buildings and Roads branch and the Irrigation branch. The Buildings and Roads branch is administered by a Civilian Secretary who has a Chief Engineer under him and the Irrigation branch by two Chief Engineers who are also Secretaries to Government. The Province is divided into circles and divisions both for buildings and roads and for irrigation purposes. Each circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer or a Deputy Chief Engineer and each division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The whole of the irrigation works constructed or maintained by Government are in charge of the Irrigation branch. All metal roads maintained from Provincial funds and construction of all buildings costing more than Rs. 20,000 are in charge of the Buildings and Roads branch. In the Irrigation branch there is a separate Chief Engineer with a full staff for the construction of the Bara Canal, a work of the first magnitude which when completed will introduce irrigation into most of the districts of Oudh.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into District and Railway Police and is administered by an Inspector-General, with four Deputies and two Assistants, forty-six District Superintendents, three Railway Superintendents, fifty-one Assistant Superintendents and forty-three Deputy Superintendents. There is a Police Training School at Moradabad. There is a local C. I. D. forming a separate detective department, under a Deputy Inspector-General, with three assistants. There is an armed police, specially recruited, and armed with the Martini Rifle. The administration of the Jail Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Prisons, who is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

Education.

Education is maintained in part by the State and partly by means of grants-in-aid. There are five universities, the four residential universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, Aligarh (Muslim) and Benares (Hindu) and the non-residential University of Agra. The last named was established in 1927 and consists of the eight colleges, formerly associated with Allahabad University on its external side, viz., the Agra and St. John's Colleges at Agra, the Christ Church, D.A.V. and Cawnpore, the Meerutilly College, Bareilly and Orakhpur. There are a

Colleges which prepare boys for the high school and intermediate examinations conducted by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, which controls high school and intermediate education. The Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow and the Crosthwaite Girls' College at Allahabad impart university education to Indian girls and the Theosophical National Girls' School and Women's College at Benares teach up to the intermediate stage. The St. George's Intermediate College, Mussoorie, the Philander-Smith College, Naini Tal, the St. Joseph's College, Naini Tal, the Martiniere College, Lucknow and the Boys' Intermediate College, Allahabad, are a few of the well known institutions for European and Anglo-Indian children in the province; besides these, there are many excellent private educational institutions for European boys and girls both in the hills and plains which are attended by students from all over India. Government maintain Training Colleges for teachers in Lucknow, Allahabad and Agra, and there are training departments attached to the Aligarh Muslim University and the Benares Hindu University. There is a Government Engineering College at Roorkee (Thomason College), a School of Art in Lucknow and an Agricultural College, and a Technological Institute at Cawnpore; there is also a non-Government Agricultural Institute at Naini, Allahabad. Education in law is given at the four residential universities and at the Agra and Meerut colleges. Instruction in commerce for the B. Com. degree of the Agra University is given in the Sanatan Dharma College, Cawnpore. The King George's Medical College, Lucknow, now merged in the Lucknow University, prepares candidates for the M.B.B.S. degree of the Lucknow University. Besides this there are two medical schools at Agra for males and females. Public schools for secondary and primary vernacular education are almost entirely maintained or aided by district and municipal boards and vernacular education is almost entirely in their hands.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. A Civil Surgeon is in charge and is responsible for the medical work of each district, and in a few of the larger stations he has an assistant. In two stations (Ranlchet and Roorkee) Medical Officers in military employ hold collateral civil charge. There are eighty-three Provincial Medical service officers in charge of important dispensaries and a large number of Indian Provincial subordinate medical service

officers. Lady doctors and women sub-assistant surgeons visit *purdanashin* women in their own homes and much good work is done in this manner.

The best equipped hospitals for Indian patients are the Thomason Hospital at Agra, King George's Hospital and the Balrampur Hospital at Lucknow. The Ramsay Hospital for Europeans at Naini Tal is a first class institution and

there are also the Lady Dufferin Hospital, King George's Medical College is one of the best equipped in the country, with a staff of highly efficient professors, and the hospital is the first in the Provinces. There is an X-Ray Institute at Dehra Dun, where valuable research work has been carried out, and there are sanatoria for British soldiers in the hills.

THE FINANCES OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

As explained in the chapters on the new constitution of India, under the Reform Act of 1919 the financial position of the Provinces underwent a remarkable change. The Provinces are for all practical purposes financially independent of the Government of India, subject to a fixed annual contribution, which it is intended shall be gradually reduced to vanishing point when the position of the Central Government permits. As the finances of the Provinces thus become of greater importance, the position is set out in some detail in the following pages:—

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1927-28.

Principal Heads of Revenue.										Rs.
Taxes on Income	8,91,15,050
Land Revenue	1,38,43,000
Excise	1,81,90,000
Stamps	54,80,000
Forests	1,45,000
Registration
Scheduled Taxes
Total										10,85,28,059

Railways.

Subsidised Companies	1,90,000
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Irrigation.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—

(1) Productive Works—

Net receipts	1,05,74,782
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(2) Un-productive Works—

Net receipts	—4,05,800
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Total, net receipts	1,01,08,982
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Works for which no capital accounts are kept	23,000
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Total Irrigation	1,01,31,982
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Debt Services.

Interest	10,32,200
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Total	10,32,200
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Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	14,59,700
Jails and Convict Settlements	7,82,900
Police	2,43,300
Education	10,85,000
Medical	2,61,200
Public Health	2,07,545
Agriculture	5,60,860
Industries	55,765
Miscellaneous Departments	71,580

Total	46,28,550
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Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—

Civil Works	5,09,000
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5,09,000

Miscellaneous.

	Rs.
Transfers from Famine Insurance Fund	19,42,442
Receipts in aid of superannuation	8,63,500
Stationery and Printing	3,84,240
Miscellaneous	10,17,300
Total ..	42,07,482

Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments
Total Revenue ..	12,92,22,573

Debt, deposits and advances :—	
(a) Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments ..	1,51,03,000
(b) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments ..	18,38,000
(c) Famine Insurance Funds	18,17,000
(d) Deposits of Sinking Funds for Provincial Loans	28,25,000
(e) General Police Fund
(f) Government Press Depreciation Fund
Total ..	2,20,83,000

Total receipts ..	15,13,05,573
Opening Balance ..	15,78,440

Grand Total ..	15,28,84,013
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ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1926-27.*Direct demands on the Revenues.*

	NL.
Taxes on Income	88,13,484
Land Revenue	12,70,545
Excise	3,61,965
Stamps	33,17,332
Forests	1,35,770
Forest Capital outlay charged to revenue	4,78,102
Registration
Total ..	1,43,77,548

Railway Revenue Account.

State Railways—Interest on debt	9,400
subsidised companies	5,200
Miscellaneous railway expenditure
Total ..	14,600

Irrigation Revenue Account.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—	
Interest on debt	75,23,859
Miscellaneous irrigation expenditure	2,55,730
Do. financed from Famine Insurance grant	7,260
Total ..	77,86,849

Irrigation Capital Account (charged to revenue).

Construction of Irrigation Works—	
A.—Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	5,31,240
B.—Financed from ordinary revenues	1,56,160
Total ..	6,90,400

Debt Services.

Interest on ordinary debt	36,92,205
Sinking Fund	26,65,000
Other appropriations
Total ..	63,57,205

Civil Administration.										Rs.
General Administration	1,30,41,625
Administration of Justice	72,04,359
Jails and Convicts Settlements	35,25,030
Police	1,62,79,593
Scientific Departments	21,586
Education	1,76,20,463
Medical	33,41,133
Public Health	25,97,689
Agriculture	30,24,911
Industries	12,78,315
Miscellaneous Departments	84,075
Exchange	Nil.
Total										8,80,14,379
<i>Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements.</i>										
Civil Works	62,04,085
Total										62,04,085
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>										
Famine Relief and Insurance—										
A—Famine Relief	15,500
B—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund	
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	53,32,800
Stationery and Printing	11,31,899
Miscellaneous	4,22,519
Total										69,02,318
Expenditure in England—										
Secretary of State	48,000
High Commissioner	36,15,860
<i>Contributions and Assignments.</i>										
Contribution to the Central Government
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.
Total									
<i>Irrigation and other capital not charged to revenue.</i>										
(a) Construction of irrigation works	1,06,36,957
(b) Forest outlay	
(c) Outlay on Agricultural improvement	1,22,630
(d) Outlay on Improvement of public health
Total										1,07,59,587
Debt, Deposits and Advances—										
(a) Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments	13,61,000
(b) Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments	26,08,093
(c) Civil Contingencies Fund	1,00,000
(d) Famine Insurance Fund	32,42,442
(e) Government Press Depreciation Fund	21,817
60-B. Payment of Commuted Value of Pensions	2,35,750
60 Civil Works	48,15,344
60-A. Other Provincial Works not charged to revenue	4,50,000
Sinking Fund Investment Account	23,25,000
General Police Fund
Total										1,54,80,051
Total Disbursements										14,02,31,382
Closing Balance										1,26,52,631
Total										15,28,84,013

Administration

Governor. His Excellency Sir Alexander Muddiman, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Private Secretary—Major R. O. Chamber

Ades-de-Camp.—Flight Lieut. R. Pyne, D.F.C., and Capt. J. M. Paterson.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Lt. Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan, C.I.E., M.B.,

The Hon'ble Sir Samuel P. O'Donnell, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Rai Rajeshwar Mali, B.A., O.B.E.

The Hon'ble Nawab Muhammad Yusuf, Bar-at-Law.

The Hon'ble Thakur Rajendra Singh.

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary to Government, G. B. Lambert, C.S.I., I.C.S.

Financial Secretary to Government, E. A. H. Blunt, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

Revenue, P. W. D., H. A. Lane, I.C.S.

Judicial Secretary, R. L. Youke, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government, Public Works Dep. (Buildings & Roads, & Railways), A. C. Verriere, C.I.E.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Opium Agent, Allahpur, W. Gaskell, I.C.S.

Chief Conservator of Forests, F. F. R. Channer, O.B.E.

Director of Public Instruction, A. H. Mackenzie, M.A.

Inspector-General of Police, R. J. S. Dodd.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. R. T. Bahad, I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lieut-Colonel Euthbert Lindsay Dunn.

Inspector-General of Registration, Rai Bahadur Brij Lal.

Commissioner of Excise, T. Gibb.

Accountant-General, Hanumanta Bhimasena Rai, B.A.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Major J. E. Clements, M.B., D.F.H., I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, Promotho Nath Bose, M.A.

Director of ... George Clarke, F.I.C.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES.

Sir C. T. Metcalfe, Bart., G.C.B. .. 1836
The Right Hon. the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Auckland).

L. C. Robertson 1840

The Right Hon. the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Ellenborough).

Sir G. R. Clerk, K.C.B. 1843

James Thomson, Died at Bareilly .. 1843

A. W. Bogle, *In charge* 1843

J. R. Colvin, Died at Agra 1853

E. A. Reade, *In charge* 1857

Colonel H. Fraser, C.B., Chief Commissioner, N.-W. Provinces. 1857

The Right Hon. the Governor-General administering the N.-W. Provinces (Viscount Canning).

Sir G. F. Edmonstone 1859

R. Mosey, *In charge* 1863

The Hon. Edmund Drummond 1863

Sir William Muir, K.C.S.I. 1868

Sir John Strachey, K.C.S.I. 1874

Sir George Couper, Bart. C.B. 1876

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND CHIEF COMMISSIONERS OF OUDH.

Sir George Couper, Bart. C.B., K.C.S.I. 1877

Sir Alfred Comyns Lyall, K.C.B. 1882

Sir Auckland Colvin, K.C.M.G., C.I.E. .. 1887

Sir Chas. H. T. Crosthwaite, K.C.S.I. .. 1892

Alan Cadell (*Officiating*) 1895

Sir Antony P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (a) .. 1895

Sir J. J. D. LaTouche, K.C.S.I. 1901

(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH.

Sir J. J. D. LaTouche, K.C.S.I. 1902

Sir J. P. Hewett, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1907

L. A. S. Porter, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1913

Sir J. S. Meston, K.C.S.I. 1913

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1918

- GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1920

Sir William Marria, K.C.I.E. 1921

Sir A. Muddiman, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

UNITED PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT :

The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Lala Sitaram, M.A., LL.B.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

Mukandi Lal, B.A., Bar-at-Law.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name
City (non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Lachmi Narayan Gorb
City (non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Babu Ganesh Shankar Vidyastha
City (non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Mr. A. P. Dube, Bar-at-Law
City (non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Pandit Rahas Behari Tewari
City (non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Babu Sampurna Nand.
City (non-Muhammadian Urban) ..	Vacant.
City-cum-Aligarh (non-Muhammadian Urban)	Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Lala Sita Ram
City-cum-Shahjahanpur (non-Muhammadian Urban)	Babu Bhagwati Sahai Bedar
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Thakur Manjit Singh Rathor
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Chaudhri Mangat Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Rai Sahib Lala Jagdesh Prasad
City district (North) (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Chaudhri Vijaypal Singh, B.A., LL.B.
City district (South) (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Chaudhri Dharamvir Singh
City district (East) (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Pandit Nanak Chand, M.A., LL.B.
City district (West) (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Thakur Manak Singh
City district (East) (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Thakur Pratapbhan Singh
City district (West) (non-Muhammadian Rural)	Thakur Bikram Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Thakur Mukum Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Raja Kushalpal Singh, M.A., LL.B.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Thakur Gulab Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Rao Krishna Pal Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Honor. Lieut Raja Kuli Chaman Singh
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Lala Nani Saran, B.Sc., LL.B.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Chaudhri Badan Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Rao Sahab Kunwar Sardar Singh
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Thakur Sadho Singh, B.A.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Pandit Prijnandan Prasad Mishra
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Pandit Bhagwat Narayan Bhatnagar
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Rao Udaibir Singh.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Thakur Har Prasad Singh
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Babu Kishori Prasad, M.A., LL.B.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Vacant.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Pandit Deota Prasad.
City district (non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Babu Lal, M.A.

United Provinces Legislative Council.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Fatehpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Uma Shankar.
Allahabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Venkatesh Narayan Tovar
Benares district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Kanendra Narayan Singh.
Mirzapur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Pandit Shri Sadayatan Pande.
Jannpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Sri Krishna Dutt Dube
Ghazipur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Shiva Shankar Singh.
Ballia district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Thakur Hahuman Singh
Gorakhpur district (West (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Rai Bahadur Bahu Abbanunandan Prasad
Gorakhpur district (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Raja Indrajit Pratab Bahadur Sahi
Basti district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Bhaya Hanumat Prasad Singh.
Azamgarh district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Ganga Prasad Roy.
Naini Tal district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Govind Ballabh Pant, B.A., LL B
Almora district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Pandit Badari Dutt Pande.
Garhwal district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Mr. Mukandi, B.A. (Oxen).
Lucknow district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Sardar Nihal Singh.
Unao district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Chaudhri Jagannath Prasad
Rae Bareilly district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Bahadur Bishwanath Saran Singh
Sitapur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Hon'ble Thakur Rajendra Singh.
Hardoi district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Rai Bahadur Babu Mohan Lal, M.A., LL B
Khuri district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Rai Bahadur Pandit Sankata Prasad Bai
Fyzabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Mahendra Deva Varma alias Lalji
Gonda district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Raghuraj Singh, O.B.E.
Bahraich district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Maharaj Kumar Major Mahjit Singh
Sultanpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Vacant.
Partabgarh district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. C. Y. Chintamani.
Bara Banki District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Hon'ble Rai Rajashwar Bai, B.A., O.B.E.
Allahabad-cum-Benares (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Zahur Ahmad.
Lucknow-cum-Cawnpore (Muhammadan Urban)	Haji Abdul Quayum.
Agra and Meerut-cum-Aligarh (Muhammadan Urban).	Mr. Mohammad Abdul Bari.
Bareilly and Shahjahanpur-cum-Moradabad (Muhammadan Urban).	Maulvi Zahur-ud-Din, B.A., LL.B.
Delhra Dun district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Maulvi Tufai Ahmed.
Shaharanpur district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Shaikh Ziaul Haq.
Meerut district (Muhammadan Rural) .	Lieut. Nawab Jamshed Ali Khan.
Muzaffarnagar district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Nawabzad Muhammad Liaqat Ali Khan
Bijnor district (Muhammadan Rural) .	Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim, B.A., LL B
Bulandshahr district (Muhammadan Rural) .	Khan Bahadur Lieut. Abdul Sami Khan
Aligarh, Muttra and Agra district (Muhammadan Rural).	Maulvi Obaidur Rahman Khan.
Munpuri, Etah and Farrukhabad districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Shaikh Abdulla.
Etawah, Cawnpore and Fatehpur districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Hidayat Husam, B.A., LL B
Jhansi division (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Maulvi Saiyid Habib Ullah.
Allahabad, Jannpur and Mirzapur districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Hon'ble Nawab Muhammad Yusuf.
Ghazipur Ballia and Azamgarh districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Shah Badre Alam

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Gorakhpur district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Muhammad Ismail.
Basti district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Mr. Shaikh Ghulam Husain.
Moradabad (North) (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Dr. Shafaat Ahmad Khan, M.A., Litt. D., I. R.S.
Moradabad (South) (Muhammadian Rural)	Khan Bahadur Sayyid Jafar Husain, Bar-at-Law.
Budaun district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Ghadun Sayyid Muhammad Ahas Malik Mun.
Shahjahanpur district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muhammad Fazlur Rahman Khan, B.A., LL.B.
Bareilly district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Hakim Mahabub Ali Khan.
Kanouna division-cum-Philbhat (Muhammadian Rural).	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Fasih Uddin.
Gonda and Bahraich districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Khwaja Khulfi Ahmad Shah.
Kheri and Sitapur districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Shaikh Muhammad Habib Ullah, C.M.S.
Hardi, Lucknow and Unao districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Raja Sayyid Ahmad Ali Khan Ali.
Fyzabad and Bara Banki districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Chandni Niamat Ullah.
Sultanpur, Partabgarh and Rae Bareilly districts (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr. Muhammad Habub.
European	Mr. St. George M. S. Jackson.
Agra Landholders (North)	Raj Bahadur Munshi Amba Prasad.
Agra Landholders (South)	Raj Bahadur Lala Behari Lal.
Taluqdars	Raj Bahadur Lala Mathura Prasad-Mehmotra B.A.
	Raja Shambhu Dayal.
	Kunwar Bisheshwar Dayal Seth.
	Raja Jagannath Lakshmi Singh.
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	Vacant.
	Mr. J. P. Silvastana
United Provinces Chamber of Commerce ..	Raj Bahadur Babu Vikramajit Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Allahabad University	Pandit Iqbal Narayan Gupta, M.A., LL.B.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS.

The Hon'ble Sir Samuel C. Donnell, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S. Finance Member.
The Hon'ble Lieut. Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan, C.I.E., M.D.S., Home Member.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mr. G. E. Lambert, C.S.I., I.C.S.
Mr. H. S. Crusthwate, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Kunwar Jagdish Prasad, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
Mr. J. M. Clay, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
Mr. Panu Lal, I.C.S.
Mr. H. A. Lane, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Mr. R. J. Yorke, I.C.S.
Mr. R. Oakten, C.S.I., O.B.E., I.C.S.
Mr. A. W. McNair, C.S.I., O.B.E., I.C.S.
Khan Bahadur Chaudhri Waji Hussain.
Mr. E. L. Norton, I.C.S.
Mr. F. R. Channer, O.B.E., I.R.S.
Mr. E. J. S. Dodd, I.P.S.
Lieut.-Col. R. F. Baird, I.M.S.
Mr. A. H. Mackenzie, M.A., B.Sc. I.R.S.
Mr. G. Clarke, C.I.E.
Mirza Muhammad Sajjad Ali Khan.
Khan Bahadur Munshi Masudul Hasan.
Mr. H. C. Desanges, Barrister-at-Law.
Mr. E. Ahmad Shah, M.A., B. Litt.
Debu Rama Charana B.A., LL.B.

STAFF.

M. W. K. Porter Bar-at-Law
Mr. O. W. Jones, S. at.

The Punjab.

The Punjab or land of the five rivers, is so called from the five rivers by which it is enclosed, namely, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. Together with the North-West Frontier Province and the Indian State of Jammu and Kashmir which lie to the north, the Punjab occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, and with the exception of the above-mentioned province comprises all of British India north of Sind and Rajputana and west of the river Jamma. Previous to October 1912, the Punjab with its dependencies embraced an area of 136,330 square miles and a population at the Census of 1911 of 24,187,750 (inclusive of 28,587 trans-frontier Baluchis) that is to say, about one-thirteenth of the area and population of the Indian Empire. But the formation of a separate province of Delhi reduced the area and population of the Punjab by about 450 square miles and 330,000 souls respectively. The total population of the Province in 1921, including the Baluch tribes on the border of the Dehra Ghazi Khan District was 23,101,060 of whom 4,416,036 were in the Indian States.

Physical Features.

The greater part of the Punjab consists of one vast alluvial plain, stretching from the Jamma in the east to the Suleman Range in the west. The north-east is occupied by a section of the Himalayas and the Salt Range forms its north-western angle. A few small spurs of the Aravalli mountain system traverse the extreme south-east and terminate in the Ridge at Delhi. The Punjab may be divided into five natural divisions. The Himalayan tract includes an area of 22,000 square miles, with a scanty population living scattered in tiny mountain hamlets. The Salt Range tract includes the districts of Attock, Rawalpindi and Jhelum and part of Shahpur district. Its physical configuration is broken and confused and the mountainous tracts of Murree and Kahuta approximate closely in characteristics to the Himalayan tract. Except in the hills, the rainfall leaves little margin for protection against distress in unfavourable seasons and irrigation is almost unknown. Skirting the base of the hills and including the low range of the Siwaliks, runs the narrow sub-montane tract. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall, and traversed by streams from the hills, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly populated portions of the province. Its population of over four millions is almost wholly agricultural and pastoral but it includes one large town in Sialkot. Of the plains of the Punjab, the eastern portion covers an area of some 86,000 square miles with a population of 10½ millions. East of Lahore, the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons, but over the greater part of the area the margin is so slight that, except where irrigation is employed, any material reduction in the rainfall involves distress, if not actual famine. Within the eastern plains lie the large cities of Lahore and Amritsar, and the population in comparison with the western Punjab is largely urban. The plains cover an area of 86,000 square miles, with a popu-

lation of a little over six millions. The rainfall in this area, heaviest in the north and east and decreasing towards the west and south is everywhere so scanty that cultivation is only possible with the aid of artificial irrigation or upon the low-lying river-banks left moist by the retreating floods. In this very circumstance, these tracts find their security against famine, for there cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass. So little rain is sufficient, and absolute drought occurs so seldom that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. The western plains embrace the great colony areas on the Chelab and Jhelum Canals which now challenge the title of the eastern plains as the most fertile, wealthy and populous portions of the province. Multan and Lyallpur are the largest towns in the western area. Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to its wide expanse of untilled plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other portion of India. The summer, from April to September, is scorchingly hot, and in the winter, sharp frosts are common. But the bright sun and invigorating air make the climate of the Punjab in the cold weather almost ideal

States.

The Indian States of the Punjab were formerly in the Political charge of the Punjab Government. In 1921, however, the thirteen most important States, including Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind and Nabha, were formed into a separate "Punjab States Agency" under the control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States. The only States remaining in the charge of the Punjab Government, are the Simla Hill States, for which the Deputy Commissioner of Simla is Political Officer, and three small States in the Ambala Division, Kalsia, Patandi and Dujana, which are supervised by the Commissioner of Ambala.

The People.

Of the population roughly one-half is Mahomedan, three-eighths Hindu and one-eighth Sikh. Socially the landed classes stand high and of these the Jats, numbering nearly five millions, are the most important. Roughly speaking, one half the Jats are Mahomedan, one-third Sikh and one-sixth Hindu. In distribution they are ubiquitous and are equally divided over the five divisions of the province. Next in importance come the Rajputs, who number over a million and a half. The majority of them are Mahomedans by religion about a fourth are Hindus and a very few Sikhs. They are widely distributed over the province. Both Jats and Rajputs of the Punjab provide many of the best recruits for the Indian Army. In fact all the agricultural classes of the Punjab, except in the south-western districts, made a magnificent response to the appeal for recruits in the great war and the province's contribution of upwards of 400,000 men to the man power of the Empire speaks for itself. The Gujars are an important and pastoral tribe, chiefly found

in the attendance of the province and in the extreme north-west. In organisation they closely resemble the Jats and are often absorbed into that tribe. There are many minor agricultural tribes, priestly and religious castes (Brahmans, Sayads and Kureshis), most of whom are landholders, the trading castes of the Hindus (Khatris, Aroras and Bantias) and trading castes of the Mahomedans (Khojas; Parachas and Khakhias), and the numerous artisan and menial castes. There are also vagrant and criminal tribes, and foreign elements in the population are represented by the Baluchis of Dera Ghazi Khan and neighbouring districts in the west, who number about half a million and maintain their tribal system, and the Pathans of the Attock and Mianwali districts. Pathans are also found scattered all over the province engaged in horse-dealing, labour and trade. A small Tibetan element is found in the Himalayan districts.

Languages.

The main language of the province is Punjabi, which is spoken by more than half the population. Western Punjabi may be classed as a separate language, sometimes called Lahndi, and is spoken in the north and west. The next most important languages are Western Hindi, which includes Hindustani, Urdu (the polished language of the towns) and other Hindi; Western Pakari, which is spoken in the hill tracts; and Rajasthani, the language of Rajputana. Baluchi, Pushto, Sindhi and Tibeto-Burman languages are used by small proportions of the population.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is the staple industry of the province, affording the main means of subsistence to 50 per cent. of the population. It is essentially a country of peasant proprietors. About one-sixth of the total area in British districts is Government property, the remaining five-sixths belonging to private owners. But a large part of the Government land is so situated that it cannot be brought under cultivation without extensive irrigation. Thus the Lower Chenab Canal irrigates nearly 2,000,000 acres or what was formerly waste land and the Lower Jhelum Canal, 1,000,000 acres, and the Lower Bari Doab Canal, when the colonisation scheme is completed, will add 1,580,000 acres to this total. Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 8,700 square miles. Of the crops grown, wheat is the most important and the development of irrigation has led to a great expansion of the wheat area. Next in importance to wheat is gram. Other important staples are barley, rice, millets, maize, oilseeds (rape, toria and sesamum), cotton and sugarcane. Cotton is grown generally throughout the province. On the Canal irrigated areas the Cotton grown is chiefly American but elsewhere it is the short stapled variety, known as 'Bengals.' The country being preponderantly agricultural, a considerable proportion of the wealth of the people lies in its live-stock. Large profits are derived from the cattle and dairy trades and wool is a staple product in the south-west in Kulu and

Kangra and throughout the plains generally. The production of hides and skins is also an important industry.

Industries.

The mineral wealth of the Punjab is small, rock salt, saltpetre and limestone for road building being the most important products. There are some small coal mines in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Mianwali districts with an output of about 75,000 tons a year, and gold washing is carried on in most of the rivers not without remunerative results. Iron and copper ores are plentiful but difficulties of carriage and the absence of fuel have hitherto prevented smelting on a large scale. The Punjab is not a large manufacturing country, the total number of factories being only 564, the majority of which are cotton ginning and pressing factories. Cotton weaving as a domestic industry is carried on by means of hand looms in nearly every village. The Salvation Army and the five Government Weaving Schools have shown considerable enterprise in improving the hand-weaving industry. Blankets and woollen rugs are also produced in considerable quantities and the carpets of Amritsar are famous. Silk weaving is also carried on and the workers in gold, silver, brass, copper and earthenware are fairly numerous and ivory carving is carried on at Amritsar and in the Patiala State and Muzaffargarh District. Mineral Oil is being extracted and refined in the Attock District and a cement industry has been started

Administration.

Prior to the passing of the Indian Reform Act of 1919 the system of administration was that of a Lieutenant-Governor, drawn from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under that Act the Province was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers, the Governor in Council being in charge of the Reserved Subjects and the Governor with his Ministers of the Transferred Subjects. The general system of provincial administration under this scheme is sketched in the section Provincial Government (q. v.) where is also given a list of the Reserved and Transferred Subjects. Associated with the Governor and the Council and Ministers is an enlarged Legislative Council, with wide powers, whose scope and authority are given under the Legislative Councils (q. v.), the system being common to all the major Provinces. The business of Government is carried on through the usual Secretariat which consists of five Secretaries, designated (1) Chief, (2) Home, (3) Finance, (4) Revenue Secretaries and Secretary, Transferred Departments, one Deputy Secretary, two Under-Secretaries and two Assistant Secretaries. In the Public Works Department, there are also three Secretaries (Chief Engineers), one in the Buildings and Roads Branch and two in the Irrigation Branch. The heads of the Police and Educational Departments are also Under-Secretaries to Government. The Government spends the winter in Lahore and the summer (from the middle of May to the middle of October) in Simla. Under the Governor, the province is administered by five Commissioners (for Am-

Salah, Jullunder, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan) who exercise general control over the Deputy Commissioners—29 in number—each of whom is in charge of a district.

The principal heads of Department in the province are the two Financial Commissioners (who are the highest Court of Revenue Jurisdiction, and heads of the departments of Land and Separate Revenue and of Agriculture and the Court of Wards), the three Chief Engineers, the Inspector-General of Police, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Directors of Agriculture and Industries, the Inspector-General of Registration, the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Joint Stock Companies and the Legal Remembrancer.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to a High Court, which is the final appellate authority in civil and criminal cases, and has powers of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences and original civil jurisdiction in special cases. The Court sits at Lahore and is composed of a Chief Justice and six puisne judges (either civilians or barristers), and four additional judges. Subordinate to the High Court are the District and Sessions Judges (22 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a civil and sessions division comprising one or more districts. In districts in which the Frontier Crimes Regulation is in force the Deputy Commissioner on the finding of a Council of Elders (Jirga) may pass sentence up to four years' imprisonment.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is secured in certain franchises of the administration by the constitution of District Boards, each exercising authority over a district; of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees each exercising authority over an Urban area, and of Panchayats, each exercising authority over a revenue estate or a compact group of revenue estates. The funds of District Boards are derived from a cess on the land revenue of the district supplemented by Government grants, profession taxes and miscellaneous fees, and those of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees from octroi and in some cases other forms of taxation and Government grants. The Panchayat is an attempt to revive the traditional village community, the elected committee or Panchayat possessing certain powers in respect of taxation, local option, civil and criminal justice and other matters. The elective principle is now practically universal in all classes of local self-governing bodies. Under the reformed system of Government the public has begun to show considerable interest in elections.

Police.

The Police force is divided into District and Railway Police. The combined force is under the control of the Inspector-General, who is a member of the Gazetted force and has under him three Deputy Inspector-Generals and a fourth Deputy Inspector-General in charge of Criminal Investigation Department and Finger Print Bureau at Phillaur. There is a Police Training School at Phillaur controlled by a Principal of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The Railway Police are under an Assistant Inspector-General. The District Police are controlled by Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of a district and has under him one or more Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents.

Education.

The strides which have been made in the past decade, especially in the concluding years of the period, have brought the Punjab into line with the older and more forward provinces. The advance has not been confined to any one form of education but is spread over all grades and varieties. In addition to institutions maintained in all parts of the province by private enterprise, Government itself maintains ten arts colleges, (including one for Europeans and another for women), one central training college, twelve separate schools and a number of training classes for teachers of both sexes, 86 secondary schools for boys and girls, a reformatory school and 40 centres for vocational training. Apart from these institutions for general education, Government maintains ten higher grade professional institutions, viz., the medical and veterinary colleges and the arts and technical schools at Lahore, the medical school at Amritsar, the agricultural college at Lyallpur, the Engineering college at Mughalpur and school at Rasul, and the Institute of Dyestuff and Calico printing and the Model tannery at Shahdara. In addition a hosier institute has been established at Ludhiana and a central weaving institute at Amritsar; while there are sixteen industrial schools scattered over the province.

The Department of Education is in charge of the Minister for Education who is assisted in the work of administration by the Director of Public Instruction. The Punjab University controls higher education.

Forests.

Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 8,700 square miles.

Medical.

The Medical Department is controlled by the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals (a member of the Indian Medical Service). The Department of Public Health is controlled by Director of Public Health (also a member of the Indian Medical Service) who for the present has under him two Assistant Directors of Public Health and is advised by the Sanitary Board, with the Sanitary Engineer as Technical Adviser.

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1927-28.	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.
REVENUE RECEIPTS.	(In thousands of Rupees.)	<i>Buildings and Roads.</i>
<i>Principal Heads of Revenue.</i>		XXX—Civil Works ..
II—Taxes on Income ..	4.23	
V—Land Revenue ..	4,91.18	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>
Deduct—Revenue credit- ed to Irrigation.	—2,06.55	XXXII—Transfers from Famine Insurance Fund
Net Land Revenue ..	2,84.63	XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Su- perannuation.
VI—Excise	1,09.06	XXXIV—Stationery and Printing
VII—Stamps	1,08.00	XXXV—Miscellaneous ..
VIII—Forests	41.54	
IX—Registration	91.56	
Total ..	5,57.02	Total
<i>Irrigation.</i>		<i>Contributions and Assignments between Central and Provincial Governments.</i>
XIII—Irrigation—Works for which capital accounts are kept—		XXXIX-A—Miscellaneous adjust- ments between the Cen- tral and Provincial Gov- ernments.
Direct Receipts ..	4,34.28	
Indirect credits (Land Revenue due to Irriga- tion).	2,06.55	Total Revenue Receipts .
Gross amount	6,40.81	<i>Extraordinary Items.</i>
Deduct—Working Expenses.	—1,74.37	XL—Extraordinary Receipts .
Net XIII—Irrigation Receipts.	4,66.44	
XIV—Irrigation—Works for which no capital ac- counts are kept.	98	CAPITAL RECEIPTS.
Total ..	4,67.42	Loans and Advances ..
<i>Debt Services.</i>		Famine Insurance Fund ..
XVI—Interest	11.08	Permanent Debt, Irrigation Loan
<i>Civil Administration.</i>		Permanent Debt, Hydro-Electric Loan.
XVII—Administration of Justice	10.97	Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt.
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settle- ments.	4.95	Repayment of Loan by Provincial Loans Fund.
XIX—Police	1.29	Deposit to Sinking and Revenue Reserve Funds.
XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments	2.36	
Total ..	19.57	Total Capital Receipts
<i>Beneficent Departments.</i>		BALANCE.
XXI—Education	13.23	Opening Balance in Famine In- surance Fund.
XXII—Medical	2.51	Other Opening Balance ..
XXIII—Public Health	2.19	
XXIV—Agriculture	10.21	Total Balance
XXV—Industries	92	
Total	29 2	Total

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Bud et Estimate, 1927-28.	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budg t Estimate, 1927-28.
EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE.	(In thousands of Rupees.)	Miscellaneous.	(In thousands of Rupees.)
<i>Direct demands on the Revenue.</i>		43—Famine Relief and Insurance	8,51
5—Land Revenue	41,29	45—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions.	31,47
6—Excise	15 05	46—Stationery and Printing (Reserved).	8,84
7—Stamps	2,68	46—Stationery and Printing (Transferred).	97
8—Forests	27,55	47—Miscellaneous (Reserved) ..	22,04
8 A —Forests	3,75	47—Miscellaneous (Transferred) ..	14,63
9—Registration	1,05		
Total ..	91,37	Total ..	81,76
<i>Irrigation Revenue Account.</i>		<i>Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments.</i>	
14—Works for which capital accounts are kept (Interest on debt.)	1,17,84	51—Contribution and Assignments to Central Government.
15—Miscellaneous Irrigation Expenditure.	18,47	51-A—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.
Total ..	1,36,31	Total
<i>Irrigation Capital Accounts charged to Revenue.</i>		Civil Contingencies Fund	1,50
16—Irrigation Works	1,60,71	Total Expenditure charged to Revenue.	11,52,14
<i>Debt Services.</i>		CAPITAL EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE	
19—Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	—10,61	52-A—Forest Capital Expenditure
21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt.	2,00	55—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works.
Total ..	—17,61	56-C—Industrial Development—Capital Expenditure.	182
<i>Civil Administration.</i>		56-D—Hydro-Electric Scheme—Capital Expenditure.	40,13
22—General Administration (Reserved).	1,08,67	60—Civil Works—Capital Expenditure.	68,38
22—General Administration (Transferred).	1,98	60-B.—Payment of Commuted Value Pensions, Capital Expenditure.	5,15
24—Administration of Justice ..	53,44	Permanent Debt discharged ..	1,15
25—Jails and Convict Settlements ..	37,90	Loans and Advances (Reserved) ..	12,04
26—Police	1,08,55	Loans and Advances (Transferred)	13,35
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Reserved).	75	Deposit with the Government of India.	80,00
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Transferred).	25	Loans between Central & Provincial Governments.	1,48
Total ..	2,11,54	Total Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue.	1,98,49
<i>Beneficent Departments.</i>		BALANCE.	
30—Scientific Departments	20	Sinking and Revenue Reserve Funds Closing Balance.	25,00
31—Education (Reserved)	6,86	Closing Balance in Famine Insurance Fund.	15,78
31—Education (Transferred)	1,48,80	Other Closing Balance	88,39
32—Medical	47,86	Total Balance ..	1,29,17
33—Public Health	20,82	Total Disbursements ..	15,79,05
34—Agriculture	54,59		
35—Industries	8,77		
Total ..	2,87,50		
<i>Buildings and Roads.</i>			
41—Civil Works { Reserved ..	1,40		
{ Transferred ..	1,98,77		
Total ..	2,00,26		

Administration.

Governor, H. E. Sir William Malcolm Hailey, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, Major D. Pott, D.S.O., M.C.
Aides-de-Camp, Captain E. J. O'D Inghs and Captain R. C. W. Johns.
Hon. Aides-de-Camp, Dhand Ram, Hon. Lieut. Attar Khan, Hon. Captain, and Kishan Singh, Hon. Captain Risalpur Major.

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Sir Geoffrey Fitzhervey de Montmorency, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S.
 The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazl-i-Husain, Kt.

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Sardar Jogendra Singh, Minister for Agriculture.
 The Hon'ble Mr. Manohar Lal, Minister for Education.
 The Hon'ble Malik Firoz Khan, Noon, Minister for Local Self-Government.

CIVIL SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, H. D. Craik, C.S.I., I.C.S.
Home Secretary, B. H. Dobson, C.B.E., I.C.S.
Financial Secretary, H. W. Emerson, C.I.E., C.B.L., I.C.S.

SECRETARY, TRANSFERRED DEPARTMENTS.

J. G. Beazley, I.C.S.

Revenue Secretary, H. M. Cowan, I.C.S.

Public Works Department.**Irrigation Branch.**

Secretary, (Southern Canals), N. White.
Secretary, (Northern Canals), J. B. G. Smith, C.I.E.
Secretary, (Construction), B. P. Hadow, C.I.E.

Buildings and Roads Branch.

Secretary, A. R. Astbury, M. Inst. C.E.
Financial Commissioners, C. M. King, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Revenue) and C. A. Barron, C.S.I., C.I.E., C.V.O., I.C.S. (Development).

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS

Director of Industries, R. C. Rawbey Sc., D.S.O., (Lond.).
Director of Agriculture, D. Milne, B.Sc. (Aberdeen).
Director of Land Records and Inspection & Registration, Rai Sahib Lala Arjun D. LL.B.
Director of Public Instruction, Sir George son, Kt., M.A., C.I.E.
Inspector General of Police, G. A. Cocks,
Chief Conservator of Forests, W. Mayne.
Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, C. R. Bakhle, I.M.S.
Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. W. Forster, M.B., D.P.H., I.M.S.
Inspector General of Prisons, Lt. Col. Barker, C.B.E., I.M.S.
Accountant-General, J. G. Bhandari, M.A.
Postmaster-General, J. R. T. Booth

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB

Sir John Lawrence, Bart. G.C.B.
 Sir Robert Montgomerie, K.C.B.
 Donald Finell, McLeod, G.C.B.
 Major-General Sir Henry Durand K.C.S.I., C.S., died at Tonk, January 1871.
 R. H. Davies, C.S.I.
 R. E. Evertson, C.S.I.,
 Sir Charles U. Aitchison, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
 James Broadwood Lyal
 Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, K.C.S.I. ..
 William Macworth Young, C.S.I., ..
 Sir G. M. Rivaz, K.C.S.I.
 Sir D. C. J. Ibbotson, K.C.S.I., resigned 22nd January 1908.
 T. G. Walker, C.S.I. (Offg.)
 Sir Louis W. Dana, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., ..
 James McCrone Downe, (Offg.)
 Sir M. F. O'Dwyer, K.C.S.I.
 Sir Edward MacLagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB

Sir Edward MacLagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.
 Sir Malcolm Hailey, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

PUNJAB LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Chaudhri Shahab-ud-Din, B.A., LL.B.—*President*,
 Sardar Buta Singh, B.A., LL.B.—*Deputy President*.

MEMBERS AND MINISTERS.**Ex-Officio.**

The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir Abdul Kadir, Kt., Bar-at-Law.
 The Hon'ble Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, K.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.
 The Hon'ble Sardar Jogendra Singh, Minister for Agriculture, (Sikh), Landholders.
 The Hon'ble Mr. Manohar Lal, M.A., Minister for Education, Punjab University.
 The Hon'ble Malik Firoz Khan, Noon., Minister for Local Self-Government, Shahpur (Muhammadan), Rural.

NOMINATED.**Officials.**

Barron, Mr. Claud de A.R. C.M. S. F. Co e and Secy
 Government, Punjab Development D t

Townsend, Mr. C. A. E., C.I.E., I.C.S., Financial Commissioner and Secretary to Government, Punjab, Revenue Department, Lahore.
 Crick, Henry Duffield, C.S.I., I.C.S., Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab, Lahore.
 Dobson, Mr. Bernard Henry, C.B.E., I.C.S., Home Secretary to Government, Punjab, Lahore.
 Emerson, Mr. Herbert William, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Punjab, Finance Department, Lahore.
 Cowan, H. M., I.C.S., Senior Secretary, Financial Commissioners, Punjab, Lahore.
 Beazley, Mr. J. G., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Punjab Transferred Departments, Lahore.
 Anderson, Sir George, Kt., C.I.E., Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, Lahore.
 Bhide, Mr. Mahaleva Vishnu, I.C.S., Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government, Punjab, Legislative Department, Lahore.
 Dorman, Mr. W. S., M.I.C.E., Officiating Chief Engineer, P.W.D., Buildings and Roads Branch, Punjab, Lahore.
 Smith, Mr. Joseph Benjamin George, C.I.E., Secretary to G. P., P. W. D., Irrigation Branch, Northern Canals.
 Foster, Lieutenant-Colonel W. C. H., M.B., D.P.H., I.M.S., Director of Public Health, Punjab, Lahore.
 Muzaffar Khan, Khan Bahadur Nawab, Director, Bureau of Information, Punjab, Lahore.

NOMINATED.

Non-officials.

Roberts, Mr. Owen, care of Clements Robson & Co., Hall Road, Lahore.
 Rattan Chand, R. D., Lala, O.B.E., Honorary Magistrate, Amritsar.
 Shree Narayan Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, B.I.E., Jullundur.
 Maya Das, M. Ernest, B.A., Secretary, District Board, Ferozepore.
 Abdul Kadir, Sir Khan Bahadur Seikh, Kt., Bar-at-Law, Lahore.
 Dalpat Singh, Honorary Captain, S.B., I.O.M., M.V.O., Rohtak.
 Keyas Byrne, Mr. Fredrick, Bar-at-Law, Lahore.
 Ghani, M. A., Bar-at-Law, Lahore.

ELECTED.

Name of Member.	Constituency.
Afzal Haq, Chaudhri	Hosiarpur-cum-Judhiana, Rural.
Ahmad Yar Khan, Daultana, Mian	Multan East (Muhammadan), Rural.
Akbar Ali, Pir, B.A., LL.B.	Ferozepore (Muhammadan), Rural.
Ali Ahmad, Chaudhri	Gujranwala (Muhammadan), Rural.
Balbir Singh, Rao Bahadur, Lieut., Rao, O.B.E.	Gurgaon (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Baldeo Singh, Chaudhri, B.A., B.T.	North-West Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Bishan Singh, Sardar	Sialkot-cum-Gurdaspur (Sikh), Rural.
Bodh Raj, Lala, M.A., LL.B.	West Punjab Towns (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.
Buta Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Multan Division and Sheikhupura (Sikh), Rural.
Chhajju Ram, Chaudhri, C.I.E.	Hissar (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.
Chhotu Ram, Rai Sahib, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B. .	South-East Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Daulat Ram, Kalla, Rai Bahadur, Pandit, M.B.E.	East and West Central Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Dhanpat Rai, Rai Bahadur, Lala	Punjab Industries.
Din Muhammad, Mr.	East and West Central Towns (Muhammadan), Urban.
Duli Chand, Chaudhri	Karnal (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Faiz Muhammad, Sheikh, B.A., LL.B.	Dera Ghazi Khan (Muhammadan), Rural.
Fatch Singh, Sardar Sahib Sardar	Ferozepore (Sikh), Rural.
Fazi Ali, Khan Bahadur, Chaudhri, M.B.E. ..	Gujrat East (Muhammadan) Urban.
Froz-ud-Din Khan, Rana, B.A., LL.B.	South-East Towns (Muhammadan), Urban.
Ganga Ram, Rai Sahib, Lala	Ambala-cum-Simla (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Gokul Chand Narang, D.L., M.A., Ph. D. ..	North-West Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Gopal Das, Lala	Lahore and Ferozepore cum-Sheikhupura (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.

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Name of Member.	Constituency.
Habib Ullah, Sardar	Lahore (Muhammadan), Rural.
Hans Raj, Raizada	Jullundur-cum-Ludhiana (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.
Harbakhsh Singh, Sardar	Sheikhpura.
Hari Singh, Sardar	Ambala Division (Sikh), Rural.
Hira Singh, Sardar	Lahore (Sikh), Rural.
Joti Parshad, Lala	South-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan)
Kartar Singh, Bedi, Baba	Lyallpur (Sikh), Rural.
Kesar Singh, Chaudhri	Amritsar cum-Gurdaspur, (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.
Kesho Ram, Sikri, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	Amritsar City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.
Khan Muhammad Khan, Wagha, Malik	Sheikhpura (Muhammadan) Rural.
Kundan Singh, Mahton, Sardar	Hoshiarpur and Kangra (Sikh), Rural.
Lah Singh, Mr., M.A., LL.B. (Cantab).	Rawalpindi Division and Lahore Division (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Maqbool Mahmood, Mir, B.A., S. Lit.	Amritsar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Mohan Lal, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	North-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan)
Mohinder Singh, Sardar	Ludhiana (Sikh), Rural.
Mubarak Ali Shah, Sayad	Jhang (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Abdullah Khan, Khan	Muzaffargarh (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Abdul Rahman Khan, Chaudhri	Jullundur (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Alam, Dr., Shaikh	West Punjab Towns (Muhammadan) Urban.
Muhammad Amin Khan, Khan Bahadur, Malik C.B.E.	Attock (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Hayat, Qureshi, Khan Bahadur, Mian, C.I.E.	Shahpur West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Husain, Sayad	Montgomery (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Iqbal, Dr. Sir, M.A., Ph.D.	Lahore City (Muhammadan), Urban.
Muhammad Jamal Khan, Leghari, Khan Bahadur Nawab.	Baloch Towns (Landholders).
Muhammad Raza Shah, Makhdomzada Sayad Chuni.	Multan West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Sadiq, Shaikh	Amritsar City (Muhammadan), Urban.
Muhammad Saif Ullah Khan, Khan Sahib, Khan	Mianwali (Muhammadan), Rural.
Nanak Chand, Pandit, M.A.	Hoshiarpur (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Narain Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Rawalpindi Division and Gujranwala Division (Sikh), Rural.
Narendra Nath, Diwan Bahadur Raja, M.A.	Punjab Landholders (General).
Nur Khan, Rasalder Bahadur	Rawalpindi (Muhammadan), Rural.
Parlap Singh, Sardar	Jullundur (Sikh), Rural.
Rahim Bakhsh, Maulvi, Sir, K.C.I.E.	Ambala Division, North-East (Muhammadan) Rural.
Ram Singh, Chaudhri	Kangra (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Sadullah Khan, Mian	Lyallpur South (Muhammadan), Rural.
Raghubir Singh, Sardar	Amritsar (Sikh), Rural.
Sewak Ram, Rai Bahadur, Lala	Multan Division (Non-Muhammadan)
Shahadat Khan, Rai	Lyallpur North (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sikandar Hayat Khan, Lieut, Sardar, M.C.E.	(Muhammadan) Landholders.
Tahb Mehdi Khan, Malik Nawab Major	Jhelum (Muhammadan), Rural.
Manohar Lal, M.A., Bar-at-Law	Lahore City (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Ujjal Singh, Sardar	Sikh (Urban).
Umar Hayat, Chaudhri	Gujrat, West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Yasin Khan, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Gurgaon-cum-Hissar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Zafrullah Khan, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Stalkot (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sardar Abnasha Singh, Secretary, Legislative Council.	
Hakim Ahmad Shuja, Assistant Secretary, Legislative Council.	

Burma

The Province of Burma lies between Assam on the North-West and China on the North-East, and between the Bay of Bengal on the West and South-West and Siam on the South-East. Its area is approximately 263,000 square miles, of which 184,000 are under direct British Administration, 16,000 are unadministered and 63,000 belong to semi-independent Native States. The main geographical feature of the country is the series of rivers and hills running fan-like from North to South with fertile valleys in between, widening and flattening out as they approach the Delta. Differences of elevation and rainfall produce great variations in climate. The coastal tracts of Arakan and Tenasserim have a rainfall of about 200 inches, the Delta less than half that amount. The hot season is short and the monsoon breaks early. The maximum shade temperature is about 96°, the minimum about 60°. North of the Delta the rainfall decreases rapidly to 30 inches in the central dry zone which lies in a "rain shadow" and has a climate resembling that of Bihar. The maximum temperature is twenty degrees higher than in the wet zone, but this is compensated by a bracing cold season. To the north and east of the dry zone lie the Kachin hills and the Shan plateau. The average elevation of this tableland is 3,000 feet with peaks rising to 9,000. Consequently it enjoys a temperate climate with a rainfall of about 70 inches on the average. Its area is over 50,000 square miles. There is no other region of similar area in the Indian Empire so well adapted for European colonization. The magnificent rivers, the number of hilly ranges (Yomas) and the abundance of forests, all combine to make the scenery of Burma exceedingly varied and picturesque.

The People.

The total population of Burma at the census of 1921 was 13,169,039. There were 3,822,335 Burmans, 1,077,987 Shans, 1,220,356 Karens, 118,845 Kachins, 288,847 Chins, 300,700 Arakanese, 323,809 Talangs and 122,257 Talangs. There is also a large alien population of 149,060 Chinese and 887,877 Indians, while the European and Anglo-Indian population numbered 25,005, and Indo-Burmans, 120,271.

The Burmans, who form the bulk of the population, belong to the Tibetan group and their language to the Tibeto-Chinese family. They are essentially an agricultural people, 80 per cent of the agriculture of the country being in their hands. The Burmese, and most of the hill tribes also, profess Buddhism, but Animism, or the worship of nature spirits, is almost universal. The interest taken by the Burmese in the course of the war, their response to the call for recruits and their generous contributions to war loans and charitable funds seem to show that their apathy towards the government of the country is giving way to an intelligent loyalty to British rule.

In appearance the Burman is usually somewhat short and thick set with Mongolian features. His dress is most distinctive and exceedingly comfortable. It consists of a silk band bound round his forehead a loose

jacket on his body and a long skirt or longyi tied round his waist, reaching to his ankles. The Burmese women, perhaps the most pleasing type of womanhood in the East, lead a free and open life, playing a large part in the household economy and in petty trading. Their dress is somewhat similar to the men's minus the silk kerchief on the head, and the longyi is tucked in at the side instead of being tied in front. A well-dressed and well-groomed Burmese lady would, for grace and neatness, challenge comparison with any woman in the world.

Communications.

The Irrawaddy, and to a less extent the Chindwin, afford great natural thoroughfares to the country. At all seasons of the year these rivers, especially the Irrawaddy, are full of sailing and steam craft. In the Delta the net-work of waterways is indeed practically the only means of communication. The Irrawaddy Flotilla Company, with a fine fleet of mail, cargo and ferry boats, gives the Irrawaddy and the Delta rivers and creeks a splendid river service.

The Burma Railways Company has a length of 1,679 miles open line. The principal lines are from Rangoon to Mandalay; from Sagaya to Myitkyna, the most northern point in the system; the Rangoon-Prome line; and the Pegu-Martaban line, which serves Moulmein on the further bank of the Salween River.

Industry.

Agriculture is the chief industry of the province and supports nearly three-fourths of the population. The nett total cropped area is 16½ million acres of which nearly 7 million acres are cropped more than once. Irrigation works supply water to nearly 1 million acres. India is very largely dependent on Burma for her supplies of kerosene, benzine and petrol which rank second to rice in order of importance. Teak wood is exported in large quantities from Burma to India.

Forests play an important part in the industrial life of the Province. The forest reserves cover some 31,714 square miles, while unclassified forests are estimated at about 116,093 square miles. Government extracts some 64,408 tons of teak annually, private firms, of whom the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation and Steel Brothers are the chief extract over 411,374 tons. Other timber extracted by licensees amounts to over 449,683 tons and firewood over 1,011,768 tons.

Tin and wolfram are found chiefly in the Tavoy and Mergui Districts. Wolfram and tin are found together in most mining areas in Tavoy, the proportion varying from almost pure tin to almost pure wolfram. The rise in the price of tin has revived the tin mining industry in the Tavoy and Mergui Districts.

Owing to a depression in the market, most of the wolfram mines have closed down. Silver, lead and zinc ore are extracted by the Burma Corporation at Bawdwin in the Northern Shan States. Copper in small quantities is also found there. There are small deposits of Mo'ybenite in Tavoy and Mergui and of plat-

num in Myitkyina. The output of precious stones from the ruby mines has declined. Gold dredging in the Myitkyina District has proved unprofitable and the company has been wound up. From the mines in the Hukong valley jade and amber are won. The oldest and largest oil field in the province is at Yenangyang in Magwe district where the Burma Oil Company has its chief wells. But borings in other districts have shown that the oil-bearing strata extend over a large part of the dry zone, and the output from the smaller fields in Pakokku and Minbu districts is now considerable, while the wells sunk in Thayetmyo district are also showing satisfactory returns. Two-thirds of the total production comes from the Yenangyang and Singu fields. The Burma Oil Company take their oil to the refineries at Rangoon by pipe line from Singu and Yenangyang. Other companies take it down by river flats. The area under rubber is 86,000 acres.

Manufactures.

There are 981 factories, over three-fifths of which are engaged in milling rice and over one-sixth are sawmills. The remainder are chiefly engineering works, cotton ginning mills, oil mills for the extraction of oil from groundnuts, and oil refineries connected with the petroleum industry. The average daily number of operative is over 100,000. At the Census of 1921, 1,935,729 or 28.48 per cent. of the total population were engaged outside agriculture and production.

As is the case in other parts of the Indian Empire, the imported and factory made article is rapidly ousting the home-made and indigenous. But at Amarapura in the Mandalay District a revival has taken place of hand silk-weaving. Burmese wood-carving is still famous and many artists in silver still remain, the finish of whose work is sometimes very fine. Bassein and Mandalay parasols are well known and much admired in Burma. But perhaps the most famous of all hand-made and indigenous industrial is the lacquer work of Pagan with its delicate patterns in black, green, and yellow traced on a ground-work of red lacquer over bamboo. A new art is the making of bronze figures. The artists have gone back to nature for their models, breaking away from the conventionalized forms into which their silver work had crystallized and the new figures display a vigour and life that make them by far the finest examples of art the province can produce.

Administration.

Burma, which was at that time administered as a Lieutenant-Governorship, was deliberately excluded from the operation of the Reform Act of 1919. It was felt that the Province differed so markedly from the other Provinces in the Indian Empire that its requirements should be separately considered. After repeated discussions the question was referred to a special Burma Reforms Committee, which in 1922 recommended that all the essential provisions of the Reform Act should be applied to the Province. This recommendation was accepted and its proposals became law. Under this Act Burma became a Governor's Province, with an Executive Council and a Legislative Council.

conforms to the provinces recreated under the Act of 1919 (q.v.). The main difference is in the size of the electorate. Under the franchise accepted, the rural electorate is estimated at 1,738,871 and the urban electorate has been put as high as 82,478. The Legislative Council consists of 104 members, of which 79 are elected and the balance nominated. Owing to the special status of women in Burma, female franchise was adopted from the beginning.

Burma is divided administratively into Upper Burma (including the Shan States and Chin Hills) and Lower Burma. The Shan States are administered by the Chiefs of the States, subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Federated Shan States, who is also Superintendent for the Southern Shan States, and the Superintendent of the Northern Shan States. The Northern and Southern Shan States were formed into a Federation on the 1st October 1922, and are designated the 15 States. The other Shan States in Burma are subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaing Division. The Civil Criminal and Revenue administration is vested in the Chief of the State, subject to the restrictions contained in the sanad. The law administered is the customary law of the State.

Under the Governor are eight Commissioners of divisions, three in Upper, four in Lower Burma and one in the Federated Shan States.

Justice.

The administration of Civil and Criminal Justice is under the control of the High Court of Judicature at Rangoon, which consists of a Chief Justice and ten other permanent Judges. The Superior Judicial Service consists of District and Sessions Judges; there are also separate Provincial and Subordinate Judicial Services.

All village headmen have limited magisterial powers and a considerable number are also invested with civil jurisdiction to a limited extent.

In pursuance of the policy of decentralization steps were taken in 1917 to restore to the village headmen the power and influence which they possessed in Burmese times before the centralizing tendencies of British rule made them practically subordinate officers of the administration.

Public Works.

This Department is administered by two Chief Engineers. There are 11 permanent Superintending Engineers (i.e., 7 for Buildings and Roads and 4 for Irrigation) and 37 Executive Engineers and Assistant Executive Engineers. A temporary Chief Engineer for Roads in the Province has been appointed for a period of two years. There are also a Consulting Architect, Electrical Inspector, Water and Sewerage Engineer (specialist posts) and a River Training Expert, the incumbents of which are stationed at Headquarters.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into Civil, Military and Rangoon Town Police. The first two are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the latter is under the orders of the Commissioner of Police, an officer of the rank of

	CENTRAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE.	Rs.
Administration of Justice	12,88,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	5,44,000
Police	5,63,000
Ports and Pilotage	80,000
Education	5,60,000
Medical	2,76,000
Public Health	62,000
Agriculture	75,000
Industries	4,000
Miscellaneous Departments	1,96,000
Total	36,48,000

	Buildings and Roads.	Rs.
Civil Works	17,52,000
	Miscellaneous	Rs.
Grants in aid of Superannuation	1,36,000
Stationery and Printing	1,05,000
Miscellaneous	3,88,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Government
Total	5,82,000

(B) REVENUE RECEIPTS—EXTRAORDINARY		
Extraordinary receipts
Total

(C) DEBT HEADS.		
Life Insurance Fund	78,000
Depreciation Fund—Government Presses	88,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments	30,00,000
Advances from Provincial Loan Fund	85,00,000
Total	1,16,40,000
Opening Balance	1,00,00,000
Grand Total	12,50,20,000

ESTIMATED DISBURSEMENTS FOR 1927-28.
(A) EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE

1. ORDINARY.		
Land Revenue	64,16,000
Excise	23,46,000
Stamps	1,73,000
Forest	81,30,000
Registration	1,70,000
State Railways
Miscellaneous Railway Expenditure
Interest on works for which Capital accounts are kept	15,60,000
Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenues	7,28,000
Interest on Ordinary Debt	—21,76,000
General Administration	1,08,07,000
Administration of Justice	67,78,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	30,19,000
Police	1,50,02,000
Ports and Pilotage	11,62,500
Scientific Departments	64,000
Education	1,11,85,000
Medical	27,75,000
Public Health	40,95,000
Agriculture	20,91,000
Industries	4,51,000
Miscellaneous Departments	3,51,000
Civil Works	1,20,31,000
Famine Relief and Insurance	67,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	45,09,000
Stationery and Printing	12,70,000
Miscellaneous	17,38,000
Contributions to the Central Government by the Provincial Government
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments

Total 12,50,02,500

	Rs.
Brought forward, Total (a) 1	9,50,92,500
(A) EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE—Concluded.	
2 OTHER.	
(a) For which loans are admissible	
Land Revenue	1,20,000
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	35,00,000
Police	17,000
Ports and Pilotage	1,00,000
Public Health	5,00,000
Civil Works	65,33,000
Extraordinary Charges	7,50,000
Payment of Counted Value of Pensions	18,91,000
Total (b)	1,29,11,000
(ii) For which loans are not admissible.	
Land Revenue	1,00,000
Forest Capital Outlay Charged to Revenue	9,46,000
Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from Ordinary Revenues	10,14,000
Ports and Pilotage	2,68,500
Scientific Departments	1,45,000
Education	23,80,000
Medical	1,19,000
Public Health	9,50,000
Civil Works	68,78,000
Total (c)	1,29,68,500
Total 2	2,58,79,500
Total (a)	12,09,72,000
(B) EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE.	
(C) DEPT HEADS.	
Famine Insurance Fund	48,000
Depreciation Fund—Government Process	28,44,000
Loans and Advances	28,92,000
Total (c)	28,92,000
Total (a), (b) and (c)	12,38,64,000
Closing Balance	11,59,000
Grand Total	13,50,23,000

Administration.

Governor, H. E. Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I.,
C.I.E., I.C.S.
Private Secretary, F. H. Fearnby-Whitings
Hall
Aide-de-Camp, Captain Donald Charles Bascry
Tozer, M.C.
Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Capt. Charles Richard
Gosd, R.A.M., and Lieut.-Col. H. H. McKean,
I.C.S.
Incan Aide-de-Camp, Subadar-Major and Hon.
Lt. Bhagbir Yakkho, Bahadur, Naib Com-
mandant Surrau Singh, Sardar Bahadur, and
Naib Commandant Jalal Din, Khan Bahadur.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Sir William John Keith, Kt.,
C.I.E., M.A., I.C.S.
The Hon'ble Sir Joseph Augustus Maung Gyi,
Kt., Bar-at-Law.

Ministers.

The Hon'ble U Ba Yin, M.B. Ch.B.
The Hon'ble Mr. Lee Ah Yau, Bar-at-Law

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Director of Agriculture, Andrew McKerral, M.A.
Consulting Architect, S. P. Bush.
Commissioner, Federated Shan States, Taunggyi,
Southern Shan States, James Leslie Mc
Callum, I.O.S.
Officiating Superintendent, Northern Shan States,
Alan Arthur Cameron
Director of Public Instruction, C. A. Snow, M.A.
Inspector-General of Police, Lt.-Col. R. W.
Macdonald, D.S.O.
Chief Conservator of Forests, H. W. A. Watson.
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Lt.-Col.
A. Feuton, I.M.S.
Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. E. Bisset, I.M.S.
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. F. K. Tara-
pore, I.M.S.
Commissioner of Excise, Offg., Gilbert Charles
Tew, C.I.E.
Offg. Financial Commissioner, Thomas Coupe-
r, M.A.
General Frank de Monte

Chief Commissioners of Burma.

Lieut.-Colonel A. P. Phayre, C.B.	..	1862	D. M. Smaison	..	1890
Colonel A. Fytche, C.S.I.	..	1867	Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I.	..	1895
Lieut.-Colonel E. D. Ardagh	..	1870	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.	..	1905
The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	..	1871	Lieutenant-Governors of Burma.		
A. R. Thompson, C.S.I.	..	1875	Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I.	..	1897
C. U. Aitchison, C.S.I.	..	1878	Sir H. S. Barnes, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.F.	..	1903
C. E. Bernard, C.S.I.	..	1880	Sir H. T. White, K.C.I.B.	..	1905
C. H. T. Crosthwaite	..	1883	Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., LL.D.	..	1910
Sir C. E. Bernard, K.C.S.I.	..	1886	Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	..	1915
C. H. T. Crosthwaite, C.S.I.	..	1887	Sir Reginald Craddock, K.C.S.I.	..	1917
A. P. MacDonnell, C.S.I. (a)	..	1889	Governors of Burma.		
Alexander Mackenzie, C.S.I.	..	1890	Sir Harcourt Butler, C.I.E., K.C.S.I.	..	1922
			Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.B., K.C.S.	..	1927

SECRETARIES, DEPUTY SECRETARIES, UNDER-SECRETARIES, Etc., TO
GOVERNMENT.

J. Clague, B.A., I.C.S.	Officiating Chief Secretary, Home and Political Department.
A. E. Gilliat, I.C.S.	Secretary, Finance Department.
W. H. Payton, B.A., I.C.S.	Officiating Secretary, Education Department
C. R. P. Cooper, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Revenue Department.
A. R. Morris, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Forest Department.
U. Moung Gale (S) K.S.M., D.A.	Secretary, Local-Government Department.
H. L. Nichols, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Judicial Department.
J. B. G. Bradley, B.A., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Home and Political Department.
U. Kyaw Min, B.A., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Finance Department.
U. Khin Maung Yin, B.Sc., <i>Barr-at-Law</i>	Under-Secretary, Education Department.
U. Shwe Sain, B.A.	Under-Secretary, Forest Department.
U. O. Edge	Under-Secretary, Revenue Department.
U. Kyaw (S), B.A.	Under-Secretary, Judicial Department.
U. Moung Maung, I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Local-Government Department.
Rai Sahib A. T. Basu	Assistant Secretary, Finance Department
Rai Sahib K. M. Basu, B.A.	Assistant Secretary, Home and Political Department
J. U. D'Costa	Registrar, Home and Political Department.
H. W. Boyne	(Afg.) Registrar, Office of Secretary, Education and Local Government Department.
S. C. Gupta	(Offg) Registrar, Finance and Revenue Secretary's Office
S. B. Ghosh, B.A., B.L.	Registrar, Office of Secretary, Forest Department.
J. M. Smith	Registrar, Public Works Department.

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONERS.

T. Couper, M.A., I.C.S.	Financial Commissioner. (Reserved Subjects.) (Officiating.)
C. W. Dunn, C.I.E., B.A.	Financial Commissioner. (Transferred Subjects.) (Officiating.)
U. Ba Zan, B.A.	Secretary to Financial Commissioner. (Reserved Subjects.)
U Ba Tin Zan, B.A.	Secretary to Financial Commissioner (Transferred Subjects.)

BURMA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

PRESIDENT.

The Hon. Mr. Oscar de Glanville, C.I.E., O.B.E., Bar.-at-Law.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT.

U Paw Tun, A.T.M., Bar.-at-Law.

Ex-Officio Members.

OFFICIALS.

The Hon'ble Sir William John Keith, K.T., C.I.E., M.A., I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Sir Joseph Augustus Maung Gyi, K.T. Barrister-at-Law.

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Dr. Ba Yin, M.B., Ch.B.

The Hon'ble Mr. Lee Ah Yain, E.I.L., Barrister-at-Law

Nominated Members.

OFFICIALS.

Charles Robert Plant Cooper, I.C.S.

John Clague, I.C.S.

James Douglas Stuart, A.M., I.C.S., M.I.E.

John Emerics Houldey, I.C.S.

Arthur Eggar, Barrister-at-Law.

Thomas Couper, M.A., I.C.S.

Harold Lacy Nichols

Charles Alfred Snow, M.A., I.E.S.

Wilfrid Hugh Payton, I.C.S.

Algernon Earle Gilliat, I.C.S.

Austin Robert Marris, I.C.S.

U Maung Gale, K.S.M.

Major Cyril de Montfort Wellborne, O.B.E.

Charles William Dunn, C.I.E., I.C.S.

NON-OFFICIALS.

Adamjee Rajee Dawood, Merchant.

A. Narayan Rao, M.A.

J. R. D. Glascott, C.I.E., Agent. Burma Railways.

Dr. Nasarwanji Nawroji Parakh, L.F.P. & L.M.S. (Glasg.), L.S.A. (Lon.), Medical Practitioner

U. Po Thin, A.T.M.

U. Lun.

U. Po Yin.

K. B. Harper.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name of Member.						Name and class of constituency represented
U Mrs Tun	Akyab Town (General Urban).
S. Jone Bin	Bassein Town (General Urban).
U Ba Sein	Henzada Town (General Urban).
U Aye Maung	Mandalay Town (General Urban).
U Maung Gale	
U Ba U.	
U Pe Aung	Moulmein (General Urban)
U Tun Win	

Name of Member.	Name and class of constituency represented.
U Ni, Bar-at-Law	Prome Town (General Urban).
The Hon'ble Dr. Ba Yin, M.B., C.H.B.	East Rangoon (General Urban).
U Ba Pe, B.A.	
Keng Beng Chong	West Rangoon (General Urban).
U Maung Gye, M.A., Bar-at-Law	
L. H. Wellington	Tavoy Town (General Urban).
R. K. Ghose	Akyab Indian Community (Indian Urban).
Promotha Nath Chowdhury	Bassein Indian Community (Indian Urban).
L. K. Mitter	Mandalay Indian Community (Indian Urban).
Mirza Mahomed Rafi, Bar-at-Law	Moulmein Indian Community (Indian Urban).
S. A. S. Tyabji	East Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban).
D. Venkataswamy	
Mahomed Auzam, Bar-at-Law	West Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban).
J. K. Munshi, Bar-at-Law	
Saw Po Chit, Bar-at-Law	Amherst Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Sra Shwe Ba	Bassein Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Saw Toe Khut	Ma-ubin Karen Community (Karen Rural).
U Myat Pon	Myanungmya Karen Community (Karen Rural).
U Thein Maung	Thahton Karen Community (Karen Rural).
U Chit Pu	Amherst (General Rural).
U Saw Hla Aung	Akyab District East (General Rural).
E. G. Maracan	Akyab District West (General Rural).
U Aung Gyi	South Arakan (General Rural).
U Kala	Bassein District (General Rural).
U On Pe, Bar-at-Law	Hanthawaddy East (General Rural).
U Ba So, Bar-at-Law	Hanthawaddy West (General Rural).
U Tun Lin, T.P.S.	Henzada District North (General Rural).
U Ba Myin	Henzada District South (General Rural).
U Po Hla	Insein (General Rural).
U Po Thin	Katha (General Rural).
U San Pe	Kyaukse (General Rural).
U Ko Gyi	Lower Chindwin East (General Rural).
U Po Shein	Lower Chindwin West (General Rural).
U Khant	Magwe East (General Rural).
.. .. .	Magwe West (General Rural).
U Kyaw Dun, T.P.S.	Mandalay District (General Rural).
U Ba Thwe	Ma-ubin (General Rural).
U Po Tun, T.P.S.	Meiktila East (General Rural).
U Mya	Meiktila West (General Rural).
U Shwe Yun	Mergui (General Rural).
U Pan	Minbu (General Rural).

Name of Member.	Name and class of constituency represented.
U Po Lu	Mayungmya (General Rural).
U Mya, T.P.S.	Myingyan North (General Rural).
U Ba Zone	Myingyan South (General Rural).
U Myint Them, Bar.-at-Law	Pakokku East (General Rural).
U Me, T.P.S.	Pakokku West (General Rural).
U Lun Maung, A.T.M.	Pegu North (General Rural).
U Kya Gaing, Bar.-at-Law	Pegu South (General Rural).
U Thein Maung, B.A., M.M.F.	Prome District (General Rural).
U Ba Byu	Pya pon (General Rural).
U Naung Maung	Sagaing East (General Rural).
U Tha Zan	Sagaing West (General Rural).
U Maung Lu	Shwabo East (General Rural).
U Ba Din	Shwabo West (General Rural).
Mr. C. Soo Don	Tavoy District (General Rural).
U Ba Han	Tharrawaddy North (General Rural).
U Lu Gyi	Tharrawaddy South (General Rural).
U Po Chit	Thaton (General Rural).
U San Lu	Thayemyo (General Rural).
U Maung Maung	Toungoo North (General Rural).
U Pa	Toungoo South (General Rural).
U Paw Tun, A.T.M., Bar.-at-Law (Deputy President).	Yamethin North (General Rural).
U Pu, B.A., Bar.-at-Law	Yamethin South (General Rural).
Charles Haswell Campagnac, M.D.E., Bar.-at-Law.	Anglo-Indian (Anglo-Indian).
Oscar de Glanville, O.B.E., Bar.-at-Law	European (European).
Jules Emile Du Bern, O.B.E.	Burma Chamber of Commerce (Commerce).
The Hon'ble Mr. Lee Ah Yau, K.F.H., Bar.-at-Law.	Chinese Chamber of Commerce (Commerce).
James Donald	Rangoon Trades Association (Chambers).
Lieut.-Colonel U Ba Ket, I.M.S. (Retd.).	Rangoon University.

SECRETARY

U Ba Dun, Bar.-at-Law.

Bihar and Orissa.

and Orissa lies between 19°-02' and 25°-14' latitude and between 82°-31' and 88°-10' longitude and includes the three provinces of Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur, and extends to the north by Nepal and the Province of Bengal; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and the Rajputana Provinces.

The area of the British territories which are under the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa is 88,880 square miles inclusive of the large rivers. In addition to the districts which are directly under British rule, there are 14 petty States which lie to the north and south-west of the Province and which are known as the Feudatory States of Bihar and Chota Nagpur are governed each by a Chief under the superintendence and advice of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The area of the territories is 28,648 square miles and as it is to include them when speaking of Bihar and Orissa the area of the whole Province may be estimated at 117,528 square miles. Two of the provinces of the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa, viz., Bihar and Orissa, comprise the great river valleys, the third, Chota Nagpur, is a mountainous region which separates the Central Indian Plateau. Orissa comprises the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and other neighbouring rivers and is bounded by the Province of Bengal on the south-east and walled in on the north-west by the hilly country of the Feudatory States. Bihar lies on the north of the Province and comprises the valley of the Ganges from the spot where it issues from the foot of the Himalayas to the mouth of the river of the Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh till it enters Bengal at Rajshahi. Between Bihar and Orissa lies Chota Nagpur. Following the main geographical features there are five Civil Divisions with headquarters at Patna, Muzaffarpur (for Bihar), Bhagalpur, Cuttack (for Orissa) and Ranchi (for Chota Nagpur).

The People.

The headquarters of Government are at Patna. The new capital which lies between the 25th Cantonment of Dinapore and the old town of Bankipore is known as "Patna," the town being called "Patna City."

The Province has a population of 37,961,358 which is very little less than that of the United Kingdom and rather more than that of the Bombay Presidency. The province is almost entirely unpopulated. Even so with 339 persons per square mile, Bihar and Orissa is more densely populated than Germany. There are three towns which can be classed as cities, namely, Patna, Gaya and Bhagalpur. During the last thirty years the population of Patna has been steadily diminishing. Hindus form an overwhelming majority of the population. Though the Muham-

medans form less than one-tenth of the total population they constitute more than one-fifth of the urban population of the province. Animists account for 6.16 per cent. These are inhabitants of the Chota Nagpur plateau and the Santal Parganas, the latter district being a continuation of the plateau in a north-easterly direction.

Industries.*

The principal industry is agriculture, Bihar more especially North Bihar, being the "Garden of India." Rice is the staple crop but the spring crops, wheat, barley, and the like are of considerable importance. It is estimated that the normal area cultivated with rice is 15,320,700 acres or 48 per cent. of the cropped area of the Province. Wheat is grown on 1,265,901 acres, barley on 1,406,100 acres, maize or Indian-corn on 1,637,500 acres, the latter being an autumn crop. Oil-seeds are an important crop, the cultivation having been stimulated by the demand for them in Europe. It is estimated that 2,091,400 acres of land are annually cropped with oil-seeds in the Province. There is irrigation in Shahabad, Gaya, Patna and Champaran districts in Bihar and in Balasore and Cuttack in Orissa. The indigo industry is steadily on the decline, the total area sown having decreased from 342,000 acres in 1896 to 25,000 acres in 1923. The principal cause of this was the discovery of the possibilities of manufacturing synthetic or chemically prepared indigo on a commercial scale. Its place as a crop manufactured for export has been largely taken by sugarcane, the cultivation of which has been considerably extended owing to the high prices given by sugar factories. In the district of Purnea and in Orissa, and parts of the Tirhut Division jute is grown, but the acreage varies according to the price of jute. The last serious famine was in 1895-96, but there was a serious shortage of foodstuffs in the south of the Province in 1919. In any year in which monsoon currents from either the Bay of Bengal or the Arabian Sea are unduly late in their arrival or cease abruptly before the middle of September the agricultural situation is very grave. It may be said that for Bihar the most important rainfall is that known as the *kuttia*, due towards the end of September or up to middle of October. Rain at this time not only contributes materially to an increased outturn of the rice crop, but also provides the moisture necessary for starting the spring or *rabi* crops.

Manufactures.

Opium was formerly, with indigo, the chief manufactured product of Bihar, but in consequence of the agreement with the Chinese Government the Patna Factory has been closed. At Monghyr the Peninsular Tobacco Company have erected one of the largest cigarette factories in the world and as a result tobacco is being grown much more extensively. The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur in Singhbhum district are also one of the largest

* The figures given in this

table relate to British

only

in the world and numerous subsidiary industries are springing up in their vicinity. The most important of these are the Tinplate Company of India, Agricultural Implements, Ltd., Enfield Cable Company of India, Enamelled Ironware, Limited, and Indian Steel Wire Products. The population of Jamshedpur is rapidly approaching 100,000 and it consumes 1½ million tons of coal annually. This part of the province has also some of the richest and most extensive iron mines in the world and supplies the iron and steel works in both Bengal and Bihar and Orissa with raw materials, but the raising of coal is still the most important of the mineral industries in the province. The coalfields in the Manbhum District have undergone an extraordinary development in the past twenty years, while valuable new fields are being developed at Ramgarh, Bokaro and Karanpura in Hazaribagh. This same district is the most important mica mining centre in the world both on account of the quality as well as the size of its output. Manbhum, Palaman, Ranchi, the Santal Parganas and Gaya are also the chief centres for the production of lac and the manufacture of shellac the latter of which is exported from India to the value of ten crores annually.

Administration.

The Province on first constitution was administered by a Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, thus being unique in India as the only Lieutenant Governorship with a Council. Under the Reform Act of 1919 it was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers. The principles of the provincial administration are fully explained in the section. The Provincial Governorships, where the division of the administration into Reserved Subjects, in charge of the Governor and his Executive Council, and Transferred Subjects, in charge of the Governor and Ministers chosen from the Legislative Council, is set out in detail. In all these respects Bihar and Orissa is on the same plane as the other Provinces in India.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department in the Province of Bihar and Orissa consists of two separate branches, viz. :—(1) the Buildings and Roads and (2) Irrigation which also deals with railways. Each has a Chief Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Local Government with an Engineer Officer as Under-Secretary in the Buildings and Roads branch and a non-professional Assistant Secretary in the Irrigation branch under him. The Electrical work of the Province is carried out by an Electric Inspector and an Electrical Engineer and a staff of subordinates.

Justice.

The administration of justice is controlled by the High Court of Judicature at Patna. In the administration of civil justice below the High Court are the District Judges as Courts of Appeal, the Subordinate Judges and the Munsifs. The jurisdiction of a District Judge or Subordinate Judge extends to all original suits cognizable by the Civil Courts. It does not, however, include the powers of a Small Cause Court, unless these be specially conferred. The ordinary jurisdiction of a Munsif extends to all suits in which the value of the subject matter in

though the limit may be extended to Rs. 4,000. On the criminal side the Sessions Judge hears appeals from Magistrates exercising first class powers while the District Magistrate is the appellate authority for Magistrates exercising second and third class powers. The District Magistrate can also be, though in point of fact be very rarely is, a court of first instance. It is usual in most districts for a Joint Magistrate or a Deputy Magistrate to receive complaints and police reports, cases of difficulty or importance being referred to the District Magistrate who is responsible for the peace of the district. In the non-regulation districts the Deputy Commissioner and his subordinates exercise civil powers and hear rent suits.

Land Tenures.

Estates in the Province of Bihar and Orissa are of three kinds, namely, those permanently settled from 1793 which are to be found in the Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions, those temporarily settled as in Chota Nagpur and parts of Orissa, and estates held direct by Government as proprietor or managed by the Court of Wards. The passing of the Bengal Tenancy Act (VIII of 1885) safeguarded the rights of the cultivators under the Permanent Settlement Act. Further, the Settlement Department under the supervision of the Director of Land Records makes periodical survey and settlement operations in the various districts both permanently and temporarily settled. In the former, the rights of the under tenants are recorded and at tested, while in the latter there is the re-settlement of rents. In the re-settlement proceedings, rents are fixed not only for the landlords but also for all the tenants. A settlement can be ordered by Government on application made by land lords or tenants.

The tenures of Orissa are somewhat different. Under the zamindars, that is, the proprietors who took settlement from Government and pay revenue to Government direct, is a class of subordinate proprietors or proprietary tenure holders, who were originally village headmen dealing more or less direct with the revenue authorities. They have a variety of names, such as *mukadam*, *padhan*, *maurus*, *sarbarakar*, *pursahi*, *khariidar* and *shikmi* zamindar. These sub-proprietors or proprietary tenure holders pay their revenue through the zamindars of the estates within which their lands lie. In Chota Nagpur, Orissa and the Santal Parganas, the rights of village headmen have been recognised. The headman collects the rents and is responsible for them minus a deduction as remuneration for his trouble.

Both Orissa and Chota Nagpur have their own Tenancy Acts.

Police.

The Departments of Police, Prisons and Registration are each under the general direction of Government, supervised and inspected by an Inspector-General with a staff of assistants. The Commissioner of Excise and Salt is also Inspector-General of Registration.

Under the Inspector-General of Police are four Deputy Inspectors-General and 29 Superintendents. There are also 23 Assistant Superintendents of Police and 28 Deputy Superintendents. The force is divided into the District Police, the Railway Police and the Military Police. A Criminal Investigation Department has also been for the collection and

does not Rs. 1,000

dist but on of nfo mat on elating to pro es
signa c minas and crimina t bes whose
operations extend beyond a single district
and to control, advise, and assist in investiga-
tions of crime of this class and other serious
action which its assistance may be invoked.
There are three companies of unmounted
Military Police and one company of Mounted
Military Police which are maintained as reserves
to deal with serious and organised disturbances
and perform no ordinary civil duties.

Education.

The position of education in the Province
with the numbers attending schools, is set out in
the section Education and the tables attached
thereto (g. v.) showing in great detail the edu-
cational status of the administration.

There is a University at Patna, whose func-
tions are described under the Indian Uni-
versities. (g. v.)

Medical.

The Medical Department is under the control
of the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals who

is a Member of the Indian Medical Service
Under him the a e e 2 t. Sug on, who are
responsible for the medical work of the dis-
tricts at the headquarters of which they are
stationed. 59 Dispensaries are maintained by
Government in addition to 574 Dispensaries
maintained by Local bodies, Railways, private
persons, etc. 4,716,068 patients (including
52,180 in-patients) were treated in all the dispen-
saries in 1926. The total income of the dispen-
saries maintained by Government and Local
Bodies including that of the private aided insti-
tutions amounted to Rs. 39,32,602.

A large mental hospital for Europeans has
been opened at Ranchi which receives patients
from Northern India. A similar institution for
the Indians has been opened at Ranchi since
September 1925 for the treatment of patients
from Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. An institute
for radium treatment has also been established
at Ranchi.

A medical college has been opened at Patna
and the Medical School which was in existence
at Patna has been transferred to Darbhanga.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

As Bihar now enjoys practical financial autonomy, the finances are set out in greater detail

		Revenues and Receipts.		(In thousands of Rupees)
		Budget Estimate		1927-28
II.—Taxes on Income	4 88
V.—Land Revenue	1,65,48
VI.—Excise	1,37 60
VII.—Stamps	1,08 00
VIII.—Forest	10,64
IX.—Registration	15,25
Irrigation—				
XIII.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which capital accounts are kept	18,90
XIV.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no capital accounts are kept	1,03
XVI.—Interest	6 13
XVII.—Administration of Justice	5 34
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements	4,95
XIX.—Police	1 80
XX.—Ports and Pilotage
XXI.—Education	6,11
XXII.—Medical	1,73
XXIII.—Public Health	20
XXIV.—Agriculture	2,24
XXV.—Industries	85
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Department
XXX.—Civil Works	6,28
XXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	3,87
XXXIV.—Stationery and Printing	1,10
XXXV.—Miscellaneous	4,79
XX XIXA.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Govern-ments	35
TOTAL REVENUE				5,67,42
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government	2,92
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments
Famine Insurance Fund	19,42
Suspense	5,70
TOTAL RECEIPTS				5,95,46
Opening Balance	(b) 1,82,80
GRAND TOTAL				7,78,26
<hr/>				
(b) Ordinary balance	1,16,77
Famine Insurance Fund	66,03
Total				1 82,80

										(In thousands of Rupees.)
										Budget Estimate. 1927-28.
<i>Expenditure.</i>										
5.—Land Revenue	24,03
6.—Excise	19,63
7.—Stamps	3,05
8.—Forest	8,03
8A.—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue	1,41
9.—Registration	6,28
Irrigation—										
14.—Interest on Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept	20,46
15.—Irrigation Revenue Account—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from ordinary Revenue	4,10
15 (1)—Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance Grants	2
16.—Irrigation Capital Account—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	0
19.—Interest on Ordinary Debt	1,37
22.—General Administration	71,75
24.—Administration of Justice	39,13
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements	18,48
26.—Police	38,24
27.—Ports and Pilotage	1
30.—Scientific Departments	46
31.—Education	88,69
32.—Medical	29,87
33.—Public Health	15,04
34.—Agriculture	15,38
35.—Industries	8,93
37.—Miscellaneous Departments	37
41.—Civil Works	93,20
43.—Famine Relief and Insurance	11,48
45.—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	26,44
48.—Stationery and Printing	9,40
47.—Miscellaneous	1,34
51.—Contribution to the Central Government by Provincial Government
51A.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.	24
Total expenditure charged to Revenue	6,00,48
60B. Commuted value of pension	3,01
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government	7,43
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments	7,31
Famine Insurance Fund	4,80
Suspense	5,50
Total expenditure not charged to revenue	27,58
Amount earmarked for supplementary estimates	4,98
Total expenditure	6,33,00
Closing Balance										(a) 1,45,26
GRAND TOTAL										7,78,26
Provincial { Surplus
Dedict										37,54

(c) Ordinary balance	64,11
Famine Insurance Fund	81,15
Total	1,45,26

Administration.

GOVERNOR.

His Excellency Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson,
K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, A. J. Mainwaring, I.C.S.

Aide-de-Camp, Capt. I. F. Hossack.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Lieut. Muhammad
Raza, Khan Bahadur Lieut Colonel Cecil
George Lees and Major F C Temple

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon. Maharaja Bahadur Keshav Pershad
Singh.

The Hon. Mr. James David Sifton, C.I.E.,
I.C.S.

Ministers.

The Hon. Sir Saiyid Mahmud Fakhr-ud-din,
Khan Bahadur, Kt., (Education).

Hon. Babu Datta Singh 'Local Self
)

Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council

SECRETARIAT.

Secretary to Government, Political and Administrative Departments, (Offg.) M. G. Hallett.
Secretary to Government, Finance Department, (Offg.) L. C. S.
Secretary to Government, Revenue Department, (Offg.) L. Russell, I.C.S.
Secretary to Government (P. W. D.), Irrigation and Public Works Department, (Offg.) Rai Bahadur Bisun Svarup.
Secretary to Government, Public Works and Roads Branch, (Offg.) H. A. Gubbay.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, G. E. F. Sweeney, M.A.
Inspector-General of Police, Walter Swain, C.I.E.
Conservator of Forests, Alexander James Gibson.
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. W. S. Willmore, M.D., I.M.S.
Director of Public Health, (Offg.) Lt.-Col. J. A. S. Phillips.
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. I. M. Macrae, C.B.E., M.D., I.M.S.
Accountant-General, (Offg.) O. A. Travers.
Director of Agriculture, A. C. Dobbs.

GOVERNORS OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Lord Sinha of Raipur, P.C., K.C. 1920
Sir Henry Wheeler 1921
Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. 1927

Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council.

The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Khwaja Muhammad Nur (President.)
Sir B. Lakshmidhar Mahanti (Deputy President)
J. A. Samuel, Bar-at-Law (Secretary.)

Members.

NOMINATED.

Officials.

Sir Blanchard Foley, C.S.I., I.C.S.
Henry Salford Stoner Forest, I.C.S.
Birendra Chandra Sen, I.C.S.
William Basil Haycock, I.C.S.
Maurice Garnier Hallett, I.C.S.
Philip Chitt Sallents, I.C.S.
Herbert Ellis Horsfield, I.C.S.
Eric Cecil Anson, I.C.S.
Robert Edwin Russell, I.C.S.
Henry Abraham Gubbay.
Walter Swain, C.I.E.
George Ernest Fawcett, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.M.S.

Non-Officials.

Sri Devaki Nandan Prasad Singh.
Khan Bahadur Sri Krishna Mahapatra.
Khan Bahadur Shah Muhammad Zahya.
Khan Bahadur Kalipada Sarkar (Domiciled Bengali Community.)
Mr A. H. D'Silva (Anglo-Indian Community.)
Sri Brajananda Das (Depressed Classes.)
Sri Sridhar Samal (Depressed Classes.)
Sri E. H. Whitley (Aborigines.)
Mr Daniel Lakra (Aborigines.)
Sri Harendra Nath Banerji (Labouring Classes.)
Khan Bahadur Radha Krishna Jalan (Industrial interests other than planting and mining.)
Mr S. S. Day (Indian Christian Community.)

ELECTED.

Name	Constituencies.
Sir Saiyid Muhammad Fakhr-ud-Din, Khan Bahadur (Minister.)	West Patna Muhammadan Rural.
Sri Babu Ganesh Datta Singh (Minister.)	East Gaya Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Sri Narayan Lal	Patna Division Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Sri Abdul Aziz	Patna Division Muhammadan Urban.
Sri Harihar Prasad Narayan Singh ..	Patna Division Landholders.
Sri Krishna	Patna Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Sri Shama	West Patna Non-Muhammadan Rural.

Name.	Constituencies.
Babu Gur Sahay Lal	East Patna Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Maulavi Saiyid Muhammad Husain	East Patna Muhammadian Rural.
Mr Rajkishore Lal Nandkeolyar	West Gaya Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Bhagwati Saran Singh	Central Gaya Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Maulavi Ahmad Husain Kazi	Gaya Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Sidheshvari Prashad	Arrah Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Pandit Dudhnath Pande	Central Shahabad Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Rajivaranjan Prashad Sinha	South Shahabad Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Mr Saiyid Athar Husain	Shahabad Muhammadian Rural.
Rai Bahadur Dwarka Nath	Tirhut Division Non-Muhammadian Urban.
Maulavi Abdül Ghani	Tirhut Division Muhammadian Urban.
Babu Chandreshvar Prashad Narayan Sinha	Tirhut Division Landholders.
Babu Shrinandan Prashad Narayan Singh Sharma	North Saran Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Nusu Narayan Singh	South Saran Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Maulavi Saiyid Mubarak Ali Sahib	Saran Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Harbans Sahay	North Champaran Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Rameshvar Prashad Dutt	South Champaran Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Khun	Champaran Muhammadian Rural.
Thakur Ramanandan Sinha	North Muzaffarpur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Ramdayalu Sinha	East Muzaffarpur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Mahanth Badri Narayan Das	West Muzaffarpur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Dip Narayan Sinha	Hajipur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Maulavi Muhammad Ishaque	Muzaffarpur Muhammadian Rural.
Mahanth Ishvar Gir	North-West Darbhanga Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Shiva Shankar Jha	North-East Darbhanga Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Gurudra Mohan Misra	South-East Darbhanga Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Satya Narayan Singh	Samastipur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Maulavi Abdul Hamid Khan	Darbhanga Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Rameshvar Narayan Agrawal	Bhagalpur Division Non-Muhammadian Urban.
Khan Bahadur Abdül Wahab Khan	Bhagalpur Division Muhammadian Urban.
Rai Bahadur Dalip Narayan Singh	Bhagalpur Division Landholders.
Babu Rajendra Misra	North-Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadian Rural.

Name.	Constituencies.
Rai Bahadur Lakshmi Narayan Sinha ..	Central Bhagalpur, Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Kailash Bihari Lal	South Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Khan Bahadur Saiyid Muhammad Naim ..	Bhagalpur Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Sri Krishna Sinha	East Monghyr Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Ram Charitra Singh	North-West Monghyr Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Kalika Prasad Singh	South-West Monghyr Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Chaudhuri Muhammad Nazirul Hasan ..	Monghyr Muhammadian Rural.
Rai Bahadur Prithwi Chand Lal Chowdry ..	Purnea Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Mr. Sayid Moin-ud-din Mirza	Kishanganj Muhammadian Rural.
Maulvi Haji Muhammad Bux Chaudhuri ..	Purnea Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Pratapendra Chandra Pande	Santal Parganas (North) Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Rameshwar Lal Marwari	Santal Parganas (South) Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Maulavi Abdul Bari	Santal Parganas Muhammadian Rural.
Rai Sahib Loknath Misra	Orissa Division Non-Muhammadian Urban.
Maulavi Saiyid Muhammad Nurul Huda ..	Orissa Division Muhammadian Rural.
Raja Rajendra Narayan Dhanja Deo, O.B.E. ..	Orissa Division Landholders.
Babu Narayan Bihari Samant	North Cuttack Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Lakshmidhar Mahanti	South Cuttack Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Nandkishore Das	North Balasore Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Harekrishna Mahtap	South Balasore Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Godvaris Misra	North Puri Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Lingaraj Misra	South Puri Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Brajamohan Pande	Sambalpur Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Mr. Jimut Behan Sen	Chota Nagpur Division Non-Muhammadian Urban.
Khan Bahadur Khwaja Muhammad Nur ..	Chota Nagpur Division Muhammadian Rural.
Bhaiya Rajkishore Deo	Chota Nagpur Division Landholders.
Rai Bahadur Sarat Chandra Ray	Ranchi Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Krishna Ballabh Sahay	Hazaribagh Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Ganendra Nath Ray	North Manbhum Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Nilkantha Chatterji	South Manbhum Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Devendra Nath Samanta	Singbhum Non-Muhammadian Rural.
Babu Baldeva Sahay	Patna University.
Mr. W. O. MacGregor	European Constituency.
Mr. E. J. Finch	Bihar Planters' Constituency.
Mr. Amritlal Ojha	Indian Mining Federation.

The Central Provinces and Berar comprise a triangular area midway between Bombay and Bengal. Their area is 131,032 sq miles, of which 92,000 are British territory proper. 18,000 (inc. Berar) held on perpetual lease from the Nizam and the remainder held by Feudatory Chiefs. The population (1921) is 13,912,700 under British administration, including 3,075,316 in Berar. Various parts of the Central Provinces passed under British control at different times in the wars and tumult in the first half of the 19th century and the several parts were amalgamated after the Mutiny, in 1861, into the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Berar was, in 1853, assigned to the East India Company as part of a financial arrangement with the Nizam for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent, and was leased in perpetuity to the Central Provinces in 1903, as the result of a fresh agreement with the Nizam.

The Country.

The Central Provinces may roughly be divided into three tracts or upland, with two intervening ones of plain country. In the north-west, the Vindhyan plateau is broken country, covered with poor and stunted forest. Below its precipitous southern slopes stretches the rich wheat growing country of the Nerbudda valley. Then comes the high Satpura plateau, characterised by forest-covered hills and deep water-cut ravines. Its hills decline into the Nagpur plain, whose broad stretches of "deep" black cotton soil make it one of the more important cotton tracts of India and the wealthiest part of the C. P. proper. The Eastern half of the plain lies in the valley of the Wainganga and is mainly a rice growing country. Its numerous irrigation tanks have given it the name of the "lake country" of Nagpur. Further east is the unrelenting rice country of Chattisgarh, in the Mahanadi basin. The south-east of the C. P. is again mountainous, containing 24,000 square miles of forest and precipitous ravines, and mostly inhabited by jungle tribes. The Feudatory States of Bastar and Ankur lie in this region. Berar lies to the south-west of the C. P. and its chief characteristic is its rich black cotton-soil plains.

The People.

The population of the province is a comparatively new community. Before the advent of the Aryans, the whole of it was peopled by the Gond's and these aboriginal inhabitants fared better from the Aryans than their like in most parts of India because of the rugged nature of their home. But successive waves of immigration flowed into the province from all sides. The early inhabitants were driven into the inaccessible forests and hills, where they now outnumber all the other hill and forest tribes and form nearly a quarter of the whole population of the C. P. being found in large numbers in all parts of the province, particularly in the south-east. The main divisions of the new comers are indicated by the language division—
brought in by the
ples of the North,
Marathi in Berar and the west and centre of the C. P. Hindi is spoken by 58 per cent. of the population and is the *lingua franca*. Marathi by 3 per cent. and Gond by 7 per cent. The

have Hindu names, being descendants of former Hindu officials who on the Mahomedan invasion adopted Islam rather than lose their positions. The last census shows that a gradual Brahmanizing of the aboriginal tribes is going on. The tribes are not regarded as impure by the Hindus and the process of absorption is more or less civilizing.

Industries.

When Sir Richard Temple became first Chief Commissioner of the C. P. the province was landlocked. The only road was that leading in from Jabulpore to Nagpur. The British administration has made roads in all directions, the two trunk railways between Bombay and Calcutta run across the province and in the last few years a great impetus has been given to the construction of subsidiary lines. These developments have caused a steady growth of trade and have aroused vigorous progress in every department of life. The prime industry is, of course, agriculture, which is assisted by one of the most admirable agricultural departments in India and is now receiving additional strength by a phenomenal growth of the co-operative credit movement. The land tenure is chiefly on the zamindari, or great landlord system, ranging with numerous variations, from the great Feudatory chief-ships, which are on this basis, to holdings of small dimensions. A system of land legislation has gradually been built up to protect the individual cultivator. Berar is settled on the Bombay riyaswari system. About 19,503 square miles of the C. P. is Government Reserved forest; in Berar the forest area is about 2,310 square miles, the total forest area being one-sixth of the whole Province. The rugged nature of the greater part of the country makes forest conservation difficult and costly. Excluding forest and waste 66 per cent of the total land is occupied for cultivation, in the most advanced districts the proportion is 80 per cent and in Berar the figure is also high. The cultivated area is extending continuously except for the temporary checks caused by bad seasons. Rice is the most important crop of the C. P. Wheat comes next, with 19 per cent, then pulses and other cereals used for food and oil-seeds with 51 per cent, and cotton with 9 per cent. In Berar cotton occupies 48 per cent. of the cropped area, jowar covers 33 per cent. then wheat and oil seeds. In agriculture more than half the working population is female.

Commerce and Manufactures.

Industrial life is only in its earliest development except in one or two centres, where the introduction of modern enterprise along the railway routes has laid the foundations for great future developments of the natural wealth of the province. Nagpur is the chief centre of a busy cotton spinning and weaving industry. The Empress Mills, owned by Parsi manufacturers, were opened there in 1877 and the general prosperity of the cotton trade has led to the addition of many mills here and in other parts of the province. The total amount of spun yarn exported from the Province during the year ending 31st March 1926 was about 118,423 manins valued at nearly 85 lakhs of rupees.

The largest numbers engaged in any of the modern industrial concerns are employed in manganese mining which in 1926 employed 31,057 persons and raised 756,148 tons. Then follow coal mining with an output of 635,174 tons and 8,321 persons employed, the Jabalpur marble quarries and allied works, the limestone quarries and the mines for pottery clay, soapstone, &c.

The total number of factories of all kinds legally so described was 747 in 1926, the latest period for which returns are available and the number of people employed in them 67,106. The same economic influences which are operative in every progressive country during its transition stage are at work in the C. P. and Berar, gradually sapping the strength of the old village industries, as communications improve, and concentrating industries in the towns. While the village industries are fading away, a large development of trade has taken place. The last pre-war reports showed an increase in volume by one third in eight years.

Administration.

The administration of the Central Provinces and Berar is conducted by a Governor-in-Council, who is appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by eight Secretaries and six under-secretaries. Under the reform Scheme the administration is conducted by a Governor with an Executive Council of two members, one of whom is a non-official and two Ministers, the latter being in charge of the transferred subjects.

The local legislature consists of 70 members at least 70 per cent. of whom are elected and not more than 20 per cent. are officials. The Governor (who is not a member of the Council) has the right of nominating two additional members with special knowledge on any subject regarding which legislation is before the Chamber. The C. P. are divided for administrative purposes into four divisions and Berar constitutes another division. Each of these is controlled by a Commissioner. The divisions are sub-divided into districts, each of which is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, immediately subordinate to the Commissioner. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Record, Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages and Inspector General of Registration, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Inspector General of Police, the Inspector General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Excise Commissioner, the Director of Agriculture, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Industries, the Legal Remembrancer and the two Chief Engineers, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches. The Deputy Commissioners of districts are the chief revenue authorities and District Magistrates and they exercise the usual powers and functions of a district officer. The district forests are managed by a forest officer, over whom the Deputy Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each

whose work is also in various respects supervised by the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar and manages the estates of his district which are under the Court of Wards. In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by (a) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service; (b) one or more Extra Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Provincial Civil Service, usually natives of India, but including a few Europeans and Anglo-Indians and (c) by Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars, or members of the Subordinate service, who are nearly always natives of India. The district is divided for administrative purposes into tahsils, the average area of which is 1,500 square miles. In each village a lambardar or representative of the proprietary body, is executive headman.

Justice.

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of appeal in civil cases, and also the highest court of criminal appeal and revision for the Central Provinces and Berar including proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects.

The Court sits at Nagpur and consists of a Judicial Commissioner and 4 Additional Judicial Commissioners of whom one at least must be an advocate of the Court or a Barrister or pleader of not less than 10 years' standing.

Subordinate to the Judicial Commissioner's Court are the District and Sessions Judges (11 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a Civil and Sessions district comprising one or more Revenue districts. The civil staff below the District and Sessions Judges consists of Sub-Judges of the 1st and 2nd class.

Local Self-Government.

Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts and the Municipality of Nagpur dates from 1864. Several revising Acts extend its scope and the C. P. Municipalities Act passed towards the end of the year 1922 has considerably increased the power of the Municipal Committees. The C. P. Municipalities Act has also been extended to Berar. Viewed generally, municipal self-government is considered to have taken root successfully. The general basis of the scheme is the Local Board for each tahsil and the District Council for each district. The larger towns have municipalities, there being 65 such bodies in the Province.

Under the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act passed in 1920 the Local Boards consist of elected representatives of circles and nominated members other than Government officials not exceeding in number one-fourth of the Board, and the constitution of the District Council is a certain proportion of elected representatives of Local Boards, of members selected by those representatives and of members, other than Government servants, nominated by Government.

has a Civil Surgeon who is generally also an officer of the Jail and the District in the Central Provinces have of within

limits and Local Boards derive their funds in allotments from the District Councils. The new Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act has also been applied to Berar. The Office Bearers of the District Councils and Local Boards are with few exceptions non-officials.

Rural education and sanitation are among the primary objects to which these bodies direct their attention, while expenditure on famine relief is also a legitimate charge upon the District Council funds.

The Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act was passed in the year 1920. So far 92 Panchayats have been established. A Committee was appointed last year to look into the question of Panchayats and in accordance with one of its recommendations a Village Panchayat Officer has been appointed whose main duty is to do propaganda work and assist in the establishment of Panchayats.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is controlled by two Chief Engineers, who are also Secretaries to the Government. There are three Superintending Engineers for Roads and Buildings and three for Irrigation. The Province is well covered by a network of roads, some of which have been constructed as famine relief works. In most cases these roads are not fully bridged and are, therefore, impassable to traffic at times during the rains. During recent years Government has adopted the policy of transfer of State roads and

present century mainly as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Commission (1901-03). The Irrigation Branch of the department was separated from the Roads and Buildings Branch in 1920. During the last twenty years a sum of about Rs 8 crores has been expended

of which
Tandula,
projects,
and Wainganga Canals and the Asola Mendha tank were originally sanctioned as productive works and the remainder were all sanctioned as unproductive works. The Mahanadi Canal and the Asola Mendha tank have since been transferred to the unproductive list and it is now to transfer the Wainganga Canal also to that list. The conditions in the province are such that irrigation works cannot be expected to be productive and their construction is justified only on account of their value as a protection against famine. The normal area of annual irrigation is at present about 450,000 acres, and the income from these works is approximately equal to the expenditure incurred on their maintenance and management.

Police.

The police force was constituted on its present basis on the formation of the Province, the whole of which including the Cantonments and the Municipalities, is under one force. The strength is equal to one man per 9 square miles of area. The superior officers comprise an Inspector-General, whose jurisdiction extends over Berar, three Deputy Inspectors-General, for in the administrative control and

supervision of the Police force, including the Criminal Investigation Department, and the usual cadre of District Superintendents of Police, Assistant and Deputy Superintendents and subordinate officers. On railways special Railway Police are employed under the control of two Superintendents of Railway Police with headquarters at Raipur and Hoshangabad. A Special Armed Force of 600 men is distributed over the headquarters of eight districts, for use in dealing with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. There is a small force of Mounted Police. The Central Provinces has no rural police as the term is understood in other parts of India. The village watchman is the subordinate of the village headman and not a police official and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect.

Education.

The Education Department of the Central Provinces and Berar is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, a Deputy Director, five Inspectors and two Inspectresses who in their turn are assisted by eight Assistant Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectresses. An Agency Inspector supervises the schools in the Feudatory States. Schools are divided into schools for general education and schools for special education. The latter are schools in which instruction is given in a special branch of technical or professional education. The main divisions of schools for general education is into Primary and Secondary. In the Primary Schools the teaching is conducted wholly in the vernacular and these schools are known as Vernacular Schools. The Secondary Schools are divided into Middle and High Schools. The former may be either Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given wholly in the Vernacular, or Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given both in English and the Vernacular. In the High School classes instruction until recently was given in English but the vernacular was adopted as the medium of instruction at the beginning of the school year 1922-23. For the convenience of pupils whose mother tongue is not a recognised vernacular of the locality a few English medium classes are still maintained. For administrative purposes schools are further divided according to their management into schools under public management and schools controlled by private bodies. The former consist of (a) schools controlled by Government and (b) schools controlled by Local Bodies or Boards. The latter consist of (a) Schools which are aided by grant from Government or from Local and Municipal Funds and (b) unaided schools. All schools under public management and all aided schools conform in their courses of study to the standards prescribed by the Education Department or by the High School Education Board. They are subject to inspection by the Department and to the general rules governing schools of this type. They are "recognised" by the Department and their pupils may appear as candidates for any prescribed examination for which they are otherwise eligible. Unaided schools do not follow the rules of the Department, nor are they subject to inspection by the Department. They are mostly indigenous schools which have been too long opened

to have acquired "recognition." Their pupils may not appear as candidates at any of the prescribed examinations without the previous sanction of the Department.

As an experimental measure the inspection and administration of Board Vernacular schools have been transferred to the District Councils at Bhandara, Balaghat, Amraoti and Hoshaungabad.

The Primary Education Bill which was passed by the Local Legislative Council in March 1926 marks an important stage by giving Local Bodies power to introduce compulsory education in the areas under their jurisdictions.

Higher education is at present given in five colleges. In Nagpur Morris College teaches up to the M.A. standard in Arts. Hislop College is affiliated up to the M.A. standard in Arts. The Victoria College of Science teaches up to the M.Sc. standard in Science. Up to the B.Sc. standard it works in conjunction with Morris College and Hislop College. In Jabulpore Robertson College teaches up to the B.A. and B.Sc. standards. The King Edward College, capable of accommodating 350 students with spacious grounds and well-built hostels for two hundred boarders, is now established at Amraoti. It teaches up to the B.A. degree in Arts and the Intermediate degree in Science. The province contains also a Teacher's Training College at Jabulpore, and Normal Schools at different centres, and an Engineering School at Nagpur. There is a Technical Institute at Amraoti, which is controlled by the Dept. of Industries. There is also an Agricultural College at Nagpur under the Department of Agriculture.

Collegiate Education is now under control of the University of Nagpur to which the colleges of the province are affiliated. A University Law College has been established at Nagpur with effect from the 1st July 1925. The Nagpur University Act of 1925 provided for a University which "in the first instance, will be of an examining and affiliating type though it may subsequently and without further legislation undertake wider functions as necessity arises and funds permit." In this connection the speech with which the Hon'ble the Minister for Education introduced the Bill is interesting. He pointed out that from the outset the University will exercise a marked control over its colleges with regard to instruction, the qualifications of teachers, the residence and discipline of students. It will also act as adviser to the Local Government with regard to the financial needs of the colleges and institutions connected with it. "Finally, the Bill is so drafted that the University may, at any moment without further Legislation, supplement or replace collegiate instruction by instruction of its own. It may take over the management of existing colleges with the consent of their managing bodies, whether Government or private, or it may institute and maintain colleges of its own." The second important point of difference between the Nagpur Act and other University Acts subsequent to the publication of the Calcutta University Commission's Report is with regard to Intermediate Education. The Bill definitely follows the recommendations of the Central University Committee of 1914 and of the Commission recommending the High

schools from the control of the University. It differs from the Sadler Commission Report and subsequent University legislation in adopting the High School Certificate Examination as the standard of admission to the University and in placing Intermediate Education under the control of the University. The constitution of the University as provided in the Act is in accordance with other recent University legislation in India and is to consist of a Court, an Academic Council and an Executive Council with the Governor of the province as Ex-officio Chancellor.

As a corollary to the Central Provinces University Act the Central Provinces High School Education Bill was passed in 1927 on the lines of the United Provinces Intermediate and High School Education Act. Its aim is to free the High Schools of the Province from the control of the University and from this point of view to substitute for the University a Board of Secondary Education for the regulation and control of Secondary Education. In order however, that the connection between Secondary and University Education may still be maintained the Bill provides that one-third of the members of the Board will be drawn from men experienced in university affairs and that of this one-third not less than two-thirds shall be teachers in the University or in colleges affiliated thereto. At the same time teachers engaged in school work will be adequately represented on the Board.

In order to meet an ever increasing demand for English, the introduction of the teaching of English is now being allowed in Vernacular Middle Schools on certain conditions.

Medical.

The medical and sanitary services of the province are respectively controlled by an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and a Director of Public Health. The medical department has made much progress since the year 1911. A striking advance has been made in recent years with urbanisation and the opening of a Medical School at Nagpur. The principal medical institutions are the Mayo Hospital, at Nagpur, opened in 1874, with accommodation for 172 in-patients; the Viceroy's Hospital, opened in 1886 and the Lady Dufferin Memorial Hospital at Nagpur and the Lady Hilgins Hospital and the Clump Children's Hospital at Jabulpore, these last four being for women and children and containing together accommodation for 126 in-patients. The Mayo Hospital, Nagpur was provincialised in 1922. The Main Hospital at Amraoti was provincialised in 1925. The Victoria Hospital at Jabulpore was provincialised in 1928. In accordance with the recent policy 105 local fund dispensaries have been transferred to the administrative and executive control of local bodies. The Province has one Mental Hospital at Nagpur. Vaccination is compulsory in some Municipal towns to which the Vaccination Act has been extended. The Government in 1913 sanctioned the opening of peripatetic dispensaries in unhealthy areas. There is at the present time one such dispensary at each district in the Province. There is also 1 peripatetic dispensary in the Hattia Zamindari of Balaghat district which is contributed by the Zamindar of Hattia.

Finance.

The main source of Government income in the province has always been the land revenue, but under Mahratta rule many petty imposts were added in all branches of trade and industry and life in general. Thus there was a special tax on the marriage of Banias and a tax of a fourth of the proceeds of the sale of houses. The scheme of Provincial finance was introduced in 1871-72. Special settlements under this system have been necessitated in view of the

special circumstances of the province and the recurrence of famine, which at the end of the 19th century caused a severe economic strain upon the province. The wave of prosperity which has spread over the country in the past 20 years has more than trebled the funds available for the administration, compared with what they were before the several years of scarcity, and the progress of the administration and of expenditure has increased correspondingly.

FINANCES OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1927-28.

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs.
Taxes on Income	1,00,000
Land Revenue	2,49,13,000
Excise	1,46,14,000
Stamps	82,00,000
Forest	56,34,000
Registration	6,57,000
Total ..	5,21,18,000

Irrigation.

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	1,34,000
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,49,000
Total ..	2,83,000

Debt Services.

Interest	2,62,000
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Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	6,52,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	3,78,000
Police	1,91,000
Education	5,17,000
Medical	64,000
Public Health	77,000
Agriculture	3,23,000
Industries	38,000
Miscellaneous Departments	67,000
Total ..	23,02,000

Civil Works.

Civil Works	5,00,000
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Miscellaneous.

Receipts in aid of Superannuation	89,000
Stationery and Printing	66,000
Miscellaneous	5,14,000
Total ..	6,69,000

Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments ..	12,000
Extraordinary receipts	2,30,000

Total Provincial Revenue 6,68,000

The Central Provinces and Berar.

169

	Rs.
Civil Works—	
Reserved	49,000
Transferred	1,00,81,899
Total	1,01,30,899
Miscellaneous.	
Famine Relief and Insurance.—	
A.—Famine Relief
B.—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund	86,84,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	16,39,000
Stationery and Printing—	
Reserved	6,12,000
Transferred	20,000
Miscellaneous—	
Reserved	90,000
Transferred	8,00,000
Total	68,45,000
Provincial Contributions and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments —	
Contributions	22,00,000
Miscellaneous Adjustments
Total	22,00,000
Extraordinary charges
Expenditure in England	15,66,000
Total Provincial Expenditure	5,83,36,463
Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, Drainage and other Works not charged to Revenue—	
Forest Capital outlay	1,80,000
Construction of Irrigation Works	25,50,000
Miscellaneous Capital outlay not charged to Revenue—	
Commuted Value of Pensions	8,94,000
Total	30,24,000
Debt Heads.	
Deposits and Advances—	
Famine Insurance Fund	26,25,000
Depreciation Fund for Government Press	10,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	9,83,998
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Governments of India	5,56,000
Total Expenditure and Disbursements	6,69,41,462
Closing balance { Ordinary	18,52,588
{ Famine Insurance Fund	2,14,25,000
Grand Total	9,02,19,000
Deficit	24,60,403

GOVERNOR.

His Excellency Sir Montagu Butler, Kt., K.C.S.I.,
C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S.

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Mr. Shripad Balwant Tambe,
B.A., LL.B.

The Hon'ble Mr. Arthur Edward Nelson, M.A.,
(Oxen), C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Mr. E. Raghavendra Rao, Barrister-
at-Law

The Hon'ble Mr. Ramraso Madhaurao Deshmukh,
Barrister-at-Law.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, Hyde Clarendon Gowan, B.A.,
C.I.E., V.D., I.C.S.

Financial Secretary, Birendra Nath De, B.A.,
I.C.S.

Revenue Secretary, Richard Marsh Crofton,
B.A., (T.O.D.), I.C.S.

Settlements Secretary, Charles Francis Waterfall,
B.A., I.C.S.

Legal Secretary, Frederick Louis Grille, M.A.,
Barrister-at-Law, I.C.S.

Education Secretary, Richard Henry Beckett,
B.Sc.

Secretary, Public Works Department, (Buildings
and Roads Branch), J. A. Baker, C.I.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, (Irrigation
Branch), Colonel H. de L. Pollard Lowsley,
C.M.G., C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E.

Under Secretaries, Samuel Harrison Yardley
Oulnam, M.C., B.A., I.C.S., Donald Ross Rut-
nam, B.A., I.C.S., Ramanuj Prasad, Clarence
L. Higher, B. St. J. Newton, B.Sc., A.O.G.I.

(P. W. D., Irrigation), G. M. McKelvie, B.Sc.,
(P. W. D., Buildings and Roads).

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS.

Commissioner of Settlements, Director of Land
Records, Registrar General of Births, Deaths
and Marriages and Inspector General of Re-
gistration, Charles Francis Waterfall, B.A.,
I.C.S.

Chief Conservator of Forests, Edgar Ralph Stevens
Eccise Commissioner and Superintendent of
Stamps, Geoffrey Pownall Burton, M.A., I.C.S.

Commissioner of Income-Tax, Khan Bahadur
Wah Muhammad, B.A.

Postmaster General, C. J. E. Clerici, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Accountant General, John Fowler Mitchell, B.Sc.,
I.C.S.

Judicial Commissioner, Charles Stewart Findlay,
M.A., LL.B., I.C.S.

Inspector General of Prisons, Lieutenant-
Colonel William Jackson Powell, B.A., I.M.S.

Inspector General of Police, Thomas Henry
Morony, C.I.E.

Director of Public Instruction, Richard Henry
Beckett, B.Sc.

Lord Bishop, The Right Reverend Alex. Wood,
M.A., O.B.E.

Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, Colonel
John Norman Walker, I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lieutenant-Colonel
H. G. Stiles-Webb, I.M.S.

Political Agent, Central Provinces Feudatory States,
Kismet Leland Brewer Hamilton, B.A., I.C.S.

one of Secretaries, Hon'ble Joseph Pymon,
A.O.G.I.

Veterinary Adviser to Government, Charles
house Wilson, M.R., C.V.S.

Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-
Societies, Chief Customs Authority, Ch-
gistrar, Joint Stock Companies, Ch-

Madhavlal Trivedi, I.C.S.

Chief Engineer (Irrigation Branch),
H. de L. Pollard Lowsley, C.M.G.,
D.S.O., R.E.

Chief Engineer (Buildings and Roads B-
J. A. Baker, M.I.E., C.I.E.

CHIEF COMMISSIONERS.

Colonel B. K. Elliot
Lieut.-Colonel

R. Temple
Colonel E. A. Lush

J. S. Campbell (Officialing)

R. Temple

J. S. Campbell (Officialing)

R. Temple

J. H. Morris (Officialing)

E. Campbell

J. H. Morris (Officialing)

Confirmed 27th May 1870

Colonel B. H. Keatinge, V.C., C.S.I. (Off.)

J. H. Morris, C.S.I.

C. Grant (Officialing)

J. H. Morris, C.S.I.

W. B. Jones, C.S.I.

C. H. T. Crosthwaite (Officialing)

Confirmed 27th January 1880

D. Fitzpatrick (Officialing)

J. W. Neill (Officialing)

A. Mackenzie, C.S.I.

R. J. Crosthwaite (Officialing)

Until 7th October 1880.

J. W. Neill (Officialing)

A. P. MacDonell, C.S.I.

J. Woodburn, C.S.I. (Officialing)

Confirmed 1st December 1893

Sir C. J. Lyall, C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

The Hon'ble Mr. D. C. J. Ibbetson, C.S.I.

Sh. A. H. L. Fraser, K.C.S.I.

(Officialing) Confirmed 8th March 1902

The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Hewett, C.S.I., C.I.E.

(Officialing) Confirmed 2nd November 1903

The Hon'ble Mr. F. S. P. Lely, C.S.I., K.C.I.F.

(Officialing) Confirmed 23rd Dec. 1904

The Hon'ble Mr. J. O. Miller, C.S.I.

S. Jsmay, C.S.I. (Officialing)

Until 21st October 1900.

A. F. T. Phillips (Officialing)

Until 24th March 1907. Also from 20

May to 21st November 1909

The Hon'ble Sir R. H. Craddock, K.C.S.I.

Mr. H. A. Crump, C.S.I.

Sub. pro tem. from 28th January 1912 to 1

February.

The Hon'ble Mr. W. Fox-Strangways, C.S.I.

(Sub. pro tem.)

The Hon'ble Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Mr. Crump, C.S.I. (Officialing)

Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I.

Sir Frank George Sly, K.C.S.I.

I.C.S.

GOVERNORS.

H. E. Sir Frank Sly, K.C.S.I.

H. E. Sir Montagu Butler Kt., C.B. C.I.E.,
C.V.O. O.B.E.

CENTRAL PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRÉSIDENT.

The Hon. Sir Shankarrao Chitambar, Kt., B.A., I.S.O.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS.

The Hon'ble Mr. Shripad Balwant Tambe, B.A., LL.B., Member of the Executive Council.

The Hon'ble Mr. Arthur Edward Nelson, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S., Member of the Executive Council.

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Mr. Raghavendra Rao, Bar-at-Law.

The Hon'ble Mr. Ramrao Madhavrao Deshmukh, Bar-at-Law.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Officials.

Mr Hyde Clarendon Gowan, C.I.E. V.D., I.C.S., J.P., Chief Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.

Mr Birendra Nath De, I.C.S., Finance Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.

Mr Frederick Louis Grille M.A., Bar-at-Law, Legal Remembrancer and Legal Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces—(Secretary to the Council.)

Mr Richard Henry Beckett, I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction and Secretary in the Education Department to the Government of the Central Provinces.

Colonel H. de L. Pollard-Lowsley, C.M.G., C.I.F., D.S.O., Chief Engineer, P.W.D., (Irrigation Branch.)

Mr Charles Francis Waterfall, I.C.S., Commissioner of Settlement, C.P.

Mr Chandulal Madhavlal Trivedi, I.C.S., Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-operative Societies, C.P.

Mr Edgar Ralph Stevens, I.F.S., Chief Conservator of Forests, C.P.

Non-Officials.

Raja Thakur Raghuraj Singh of Pandaria, District Bilaspur (Zamindari and Ragirdari Estates).

Mr George Paris Dick, C.I.E., Bar-at-Law, Nagpur (European and Anglo-Indian Communities).

Mr Rati Ram of Kewtadabri in the Bilaspur District (Depressed Classes).

Mr Ganesh Akaji Gavai of Nagpur (Depressed Classes)

Mr Sukhaji Urkuda Katangale of Nagpur (Depressed Classes).

Mr Laxman Krishna Ogle, Hindu Missionary Boarding, Badnera Road, Amraoti (Depressed Classes)

Mr A. H. Parry, C/o The Pench Valley Coal Company, Limited, Post Office Parasia, District Chhindum.

Mr R. W. Fulay, M.A., LL.B. (Urban Factory Labourers).

ELECTED MEMBERS.

A—Members elected from the Central Provinces.

Name.	Constituency.
Rai Bahadur Parbhat Chandra Bose, B.A., LL.B.	Jubbulpore City, Non-Muhammadan (Urban).
Mr Keshao Rao Khandekar	Jubbulpore Division (Urban)
The Hon'ble Mr. E. Raghavendra Rao, Bar-at-Law.	Chhattisgarh Division (Urban).
Mr Chandra Gopal Misra, B.A., LL.B.	Nerbudda Division (Urban).
Dr N. B. Khare, M.D.	Nagpur City-cum-Kamptee.
Mr G. B. Pradhan	Do. do.
Mr Tukaram Jairam Kedar, B.A., LL.B.	Nagpur Division (Urban).
Mr Rajendra Singh, M.A., B.A.	Jubbulpore District (South), Non-Muhammadan (Rural).
Pandit Kashi Prasad Pandey, M.A., LL.B.	Jubbulpore District (North).
Mr Gokulchand Singar	Damoh District.
Mr Kedar Nath Rohan, B.Sc., LL.B.	Saugor District.
Mr Durgashanker Kripashanker Mehta	Seoni District.
Mr Umesh Datta Pathak	Mandla District.
Yandav	Bilaspur District North

Name.	Constituency.
Seth Sheodas Daga	Rajpur District (South).
Thakur Chedilal, Bar-at-Law	Bilaspur District.
Mr. Ghansham Singh Gupta	Drug District.
Mr. Gajadhar Prasad Jaiswal, B.Sc., LL.B.	Hoshangabad District. 6
Seth Thakurdas Goverdhandas	Nimar District.
Chandhari Daulatsingh	Narsinghpur District.
Mr. Vishwanath Damodar Salpekar	Chhindwara District.
Mr. Dipchand Lakshmidhand	Betul District.
Mr. Krishnaji Pandurang Vaidya, B.A., LL.B.	Nagpur District (East).
Mr. Vinayak Vithal Kalikar	Nagpur District (West).
Mr. Govind Damodhar Charde, B.A., LL.B.	Wardha Tahsil.
Mr. Narayan Rajaram Nagle, B.A., LL.D.	Wardha District.
Mr. Nilkanth Yadaorao Deotale	Chanda District.
Mr. Ganpatrao Yadaorao Pande	Bhandara District.
Rao Bahadur Naraimao Krishnaram Kelkar,	Balaghat District.
Mr. Majiduddin Ahmed	Jubbulpore Division (Rural), Muhammadan (Rural)
Mr. Syed Wakil Ahmad Rizvi, B.A., LL.B.	Chhattisgarh Division (Rural).
Mr. Syed Hifazat Ali, B.A., LL.B.	Nerbudda Division (Rural).
Khan Sahib Syed Yasin Syed Lal, B.A., LL.B.	Nagpur Division (Rural.)
Mr. Shyam Sunder Bhargava	Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders, Special Constituencies.
The Hon'ble Sir Shankarrao Madhoo Chitnavis, Kt., I.S.O.	Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Landholders.
Mr. M. K. Golwalkar, B.A., LL.B.	Nagpur University.
Mr. L. R. Bartlett	Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association
Seth Mathuradas Mohola	Central Provinces Commerce and Industry.

B.—Members from Berar nominated after election.

Mr. Pannalal Bansilal	East Berar (Municipal), Non-Muhammadan (Urban).
Mr. Purushottam Balwant Gole	West Berar (Municipal).
The Hon'ble Mr. Ramrao Madhoo Deshmukh, Bar-at-Law	Amraoti (Central), Non-Muhammadan (Rural).
Mr. Ramrao Anandrao Deshmukh	Amraoti (East).
Mr. Uttamrao Sitaramji	Amraoti (West).
Rao Sahib Tukaram Sheoram Korde	Akola (East).
Mr. Namdeo Sadashoo Patil	Akola (North-West).
Mr. Naik Dinkarrao Dharrao Rajurkar	Akola (South).
Mr. Yadav Madhav Kale	Buddana (Central).
Mr. Panduraj Dhanuath Pundalik	Buddana (Malkapur and Jalgaon).
Mr. Mahadeo Paikaji Kolhe	Yestmal (East).
Mr. Baburao Krishnaji Patil	Yestmal (West).
Syed Mobinur Rahman, B.A., LL.B.	Berar (Municipal), Muhammadan-(Urban).
Mr. Muhammad Sharfuddin, B.A., LL.B.	East Berar (Rural), Muhammadan-(Rural).
Khan Bahadur Mirza Rahman Beg	West Berar (Rural).
Mr. Balkrishna Ganesh Khaparde	Berar Landholders. Special Constituencies.
M. Brijlal K. Bhanu	Berar Commerce and Industry

North West Frontier Province.

The North-West Frontier Province, as its name denotes, is situated on the north-west frontier of the Indian Empire. It is in form an irregular strip of country lying north by east and south by west and may generally be described as the tract of country, north of Baluchistan, lying between the Indus and the Durand boundary line with Afghanistan. To the north it extends to the mountains of the Hindu Kush. From this range a long broken line of mountains runs almost due south, dividing the province from Afghanistan, until the Sulaiman Range eventually closes the south of the Province from Baluchistan. The greatest length of the province is 408 miles, its greatest breadth 279 miles and its total area about 39,000 square miles. The territory falls into three main geographical divisions: the Cis-Indus district of Hazara; the narrow strip between the Indus and the Hills, containing the Districts of Peshawar, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan, and the rugged mountainous regions on the north and west between those districts and the border line of Afghanistan. Hazara and the four districts in the second division contain 18,418 square miles. The mountain regions, north and west, are occupied by tribes subject only to the political control of the Chief Commissioner in his capacity as Agent to the Governor-General. The area of this tract is roughly 25,500 square miles and is administered by the Deputy Commissioner of political divisions of the Province, who are internally administered by the Political Agents, but the bulk of the trans-border population is free from any internal interference, so long as offences are not committed and so long as the tribes observe the conditions on which allowances are paid to many of them.

The area of the Province is a little more than half that of Bombay (excluding Sind and Aden) and amounts to more than three-fifths of the size of England without Wales. The density of population throughout the Province equals 150 persons to a square mile, but in the more favoured portions the pressure of population is much greater. In the Hazara District there are 208 persons to a square mile and in the trans-Indus plains tract the number is 156. The key to the history of the people of the N.-W. F. P. lies in the recognition of the fact that the valley of Peshawar was always more closely connected politically with Eastern Iran than with India, though in pre-Mahomedan times its population was mainly Indian by race. Early history finds the Iranians dominating the whole Indus valley. Then came the Greek invasion under Alexander the Great, in B. C. 327, then the invasions of the Sakas, and of the White Huns and later the two great waves of Muhammadan invasion. Last came the Sikh invasion beginning

1818. The Frontier Territory was annexed by the British in 1849 and placed under the control of the Punjab Government. Frequent warfare occurred with the border tribes. The most serious phases of these disturbances were the war provoked by the aggression of Afghans in 1919 and the protracted punitive operations against the Waziris in 1919-1920. These have resulted in the establishment at Razmak, a position dominating the Mahsud Waziri country of a permanent garrison of 10,000 troops drawn mostly from stations lying in the Plains immediately below the hills. A circular road from Bannu, through Razmak to Sorogha, Jandola and back to the Derajat provides communications transport with this force and facilitates its mobility. The effect of this measure has been a marked improvement in the internal peace of the Tribal area.

The division of the Frontier Province from the Punjab has frequently been discussed, with the double object, in the earlier stages of these debates, of securing closer and more immediate control and supervision of the Frontier by the Supreme Government and of making such alterations in the personnel and duties of frontier officials as would tend to the establishment of improved relations between the local British representatives and the independent tribesmen. The province was eventually removed from the control of the Punjab administration in 1901. To it was added the political charge of Dir, Swat and Chitral, the Political Agent of which had never been subordinate to the Punjab. The new Province was constituted under a Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General, with headquarters at Peshawar, in direct communication with the Government of India in the Foreign and Political Department. In political questions there is no intermediary between the Chief Commissioner and the local officer, an arrangement designed to secure both prompt disposal of references and the utilisation of the expert knowledge of frontier conditions for which the head of the administration is selected. The advisability of re-uniting the Province with the Punjab was much discussed in certain Indian political circles and as a result of the views expressed upon the matter in the Legislative Assembly the Government of India in 1922 appointed a Committee of officials and unofficals to investigate it. The Committee presided over by Mr. D. de S. Bray, M.L.A. Joint Foreign Secretary, toured the Frontier Province and the Punjab and heard numerous witnesses. Its members were Messrs. Raza Ali, M.C.S., T. Bangachari, Chaudhri Shaha buddin, N. M. Samarth and K. B. Abdur Rahim Khan, members of the Legislative Assembly, H. N. Bolton, L.C.S., (Foreign Dept.) and A. H. Parker (C.S. Punjab) (members.) The inquiry developed practically into a contest between Mahomedans and Hindus on communal lines. The Hindus, allied in sympathy with their co-religionists in the Punjab demanded the reunion of the administered districts of the Province with the Punjab or, if that were not attainable then the placing of the judicial

administration of the Province under the Punjab High Court at Lahore. The Mahomedans on the other hand claimed the right of their Province to a status corresponding with that enjoyed by other Provinces of India and to immediate reforms initiating and providing for progress along that line. The Hindus argued that a separate Pathan Province on the Frontier would cause a dangerous sentimental division from the rest of India, with leanings towards the allied racial elements outside British India. The answer to that was that a contented Pathan Province would be a valuable buttress against hostile feeling across the Border. The Committee's deliberations ended in disagreement, the two Hindu members writing each a separate report favourable to the Hindu viewpoint already explained, and the majority of the Committee, comprised of all its other members, recommending advance on a Provincial basis. Their principal recommendations were for—

Retention of the Settled Districts and Tribal Tracts as a separate unit in charge of a minor administration under the Government of India;

Early creation of a Legislative Council for the Settled Districts and appointment of Member of Council and Minister;

Appointment of a second Judicial Commissioner which has since been sanctioned and reform of the judicial administration in various directions, including interchange of officers with the Punjab, so that the members of the Service in the smaller Province should have the advantage of experience in the larger one.

If (concluded the Majority) the Pathan nationality is allowed self-determination and given scope for that self-development within the Indian Empire under the Reforms Scheme after which it is now striving we are assured that with a contented Frontier population India can face with calm resolution the future that the Frontier has in store for her."

No action on the report has yet been taken and an important reason for the delay is understood to be the sharp accentuation of communal bitterness throughout the Frontier region as a result of political agitation at Kohat leading to a murderous and incendiary outbreak between the members of the two communities there last spring.

The People.

The total population of the N.-W. F. P. (1921) is 5,076,476, made up as follows:—

Hazara	622,349
Trans-Indus Districts	1,628,991
Trans-Border Area	2,825,136

This last figure is estimated. There are only 561.3 females per 1,000 males in the towns, and 872.2 females per 1,000 males in rural areas.

This disproportion of the sexes cannot at present be explained in the N.-W. F. P. any more than in other parts of Northern India where it also appears. The discrepancy is greater here than in any other Province of India. There is no ground for that the of girls in infancy has any effect in causing the

phenomenon. On the other hand the female population has to face many trials which are unknown to men. The evils of unskilled midwifery and early marriage are among them. Both the birth and death-rates of the Province are abnormally low. The birth rate in the administered districts, according to the last available official reports, is 28.9 and the death rate 19.6. The birth-rate was normal below the average for the preceding quinquennium—in Hazara 35 per cent below it—a figure indicating the unusually low vitality of the people after a preceding severe epidemic of malaria. The population is naturally increasing but emigration reduces the net result.

The dominant language of the Province is Pashtu and the population contains several lingual strata. The most important sections of the population, both numerically and by social position, are the Pathans. They own a very large proportion of the land in the administered districts and are the ruling race of the tribal areas to the west. There is a long list of Pathan, Baluch, Rajput and other tribal divisions. Gurkhas have recently settled in the Province. The Mahomedan tribes constitute almost the whole population, Hindus amounting to only 5 per cent. of the total and Sikhs to a few thousands. The occupational cleavage of the population confuses ethnical divisions.

Under the North-West Frontier Province Law and Justice Regulation of 1901, custom governs all questions regarding successions, betrothal, marriage, divorce, the separate property of women, dower, wills, gifts, partitions, family relations such as adoption and guardianship, and religious usages and institutions, provided that the custom be not contrary to justice, equity or good conscience. In these matters the Mahomedan or Hindu law is applied only in the absence of special custom.

Climate, Flora and Fauna.

The climatic conditions of the N.-W.F.P. which is mainly the mountainous region, but includes the Peshawar Valley and the riverine tracts of the Indus in Dera Ismail Khan District, are extremely diversified. The latter district is one of the hottest areas of the Indian continent, while on the mountain ranges the weather is temperate in summer and intensely cold in winter. The air is generally dry and hence the annual ranges of temperature are frequently very large. The Province has two wet seasons, one the S.-W. Monsoon season, when moisture is brought up from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal: the other in winter, when storms from Mesopotamia, Persia and the Caspian Districts bring widespread rain and snowfall. Both sources of supply are precarious and not infrequently either the winter or the summer rainfall fails almost entirely. The following description of the Daman, the high ground above the Indus, stretching across Dera Ismail Khan to the mountains on the west, occurs in an account written some years ago by Captain Crestwaite: "Men drink once a day and the cattle every second day. Washing is an impossible luxury. It is possible in the hot weather to ride thirty miles and hear

a dog bark nor see the smoke of a single fire." With the exception of the Kunhar River, in Hazara, which flows into the Jhelum, the whole territory drains into the Indus. The flora of the Province varies from the shrubby jungle of the south-eastern plains to barren hills, pine forests and fertile mountain valleys. Tigers used to abound in the forests but are now quite extinct; leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals and foxes are the chief carnivora. Bear, deer and monkeys are found; a great variety of fish is caught in the Indus.

The mountain scenery is often magnificent. The frontier ranges contain many notable peaks of which the following are the principal:—

Takht-i-Sulaiman, Sulaiman Range, in Dera Ismail Khan, 11,293 feet.

In a recent report P. A. South Waz calls it Pir Ghul and points out that the former spelling is incorrect. F. H. N. A.

Pir Ghul, Sulaiman Range, in Mahsud Waziristan, 11,583 feet.

Sika Ram, in the Safed Koh, in the Kurram Agency, 15,621 feet.

Kagan Peaks of the Himalayas, in the Hazara District, 10,600 to 16,700 feet.

Istragh Peak (18,000 ft.), Kachin Peak (22,641 ft.), Tiroh Mir (25,426 ft.), all in the Hindu Kush, on the northern border of Chitral Agency.

Trade and Occupations.

The population derives its subsistence almost wholly from agriculture. The Province is practically without manufactures. There is no considerable surplus of commercial products for export. Any commercial importance which the province possesses it owes to the fact that it lies across the great trade routes which connect the trans-border tribal territories and the marts of Afghanistan and Central Asia with India, but the influence of railways is diminishing the importance of these routes.

Linking Baluchistan, in the south-west of the N.-W. F. P., via Nushki with south-east Persia. The line connects with the north-west railway system of India and extends 343 miles to Durdap, within the Persian border. Two weekly trains run each way and the freight carried largely consists of carpets, wool and dates, from Persia and of tea, sugar and piece-goods from the Indian side. Though the railway is primarily strategic in purpose its commercial and political effects will be considerable. The travelling traders (or Powindahs) from the trans-frontier area have always pursued their wanderings into India and now, instead of doing their trading in towns near the border, carry it by train to the large cities in India. The Railway line from Pir to Lankitshma which is complete and open to public traffic now will similarly, in course of time, develop both the manner and amount of transport communications and trade. The new roads in Waziristan are already largely utilised by the Tribal inhabitants for motor traffic. Prices of agricultural produce have in recent years been high, but the agriculturists, owing to the poverty of the means of communication, have to some extent been deprived of access to Indian markets and have therefore been unable to profit by the rates prevailing. On the other hand, high prices are a hardship to the non-tribal. The

effects of recent extensions of irrigation have been important. Land tenures are generally the same in the British administered districts as in the Punjab. The cultivated area of the land amounts to 32 per cent. and uncultivated to 68 per cent.

The work of civilisation is now making steady progress, both by the improvement of communications and otherwise. Relations with the tribes have improved, trade has advanced, free medical relief has been vastly extended, police administration has been reformed and the desire of people for education has been judiciously and sympathetically fostered, though in this respect there is complaint against the limitations imposed by financial embarrassments. In the British administered districts 19 per cent. males and 7 per cent. females of the total population are returned as literates. The figures for males denote a very narrow diffusion of education even for India. Those for females are not notably low, but they are largely affected by the high literacy amongst Sikh women, of whom 13.3 per cent. are returned as literate. The inauguration of a system of light railways throughout the Province, apart from all considerations of strategy, must materially improve the condition of the people and also by that means strengthen the hold of the administration over them. The great engineering project of the Upper Swat River Canal, which was completed in 1914, and the lesser work of the Paharpur Canal, also completed a few years ago, will bring ease and prosperity to a number of peasant homes.

Administration.

The administration of the North-West Frontier Province is conducted by the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor General in Council. His staff consists of—

- (1) Officers of the Political Department of the Government of India.
- (2) Members of the Provincial Civil Service.
- (3) Members of the Subordinate Civil Service.
- (4) Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police.
- (5) Officers recruited for the service of departments requiring special knowledge—Militia, Engineering, Education, Medicine and Forestry.

The cadre posts reserved for officers coming under the first head above are:—

Chief Commissioner & Agent to the Governor-General	
Secretary	
Under-Secretary	5
Personal Assistant	
Revenue Commissioner	
Secretary	
Resident in Waziristan	1
Deputy Commissioners	5
Political Agents	3
District Judges	2
Commissioners and Assistants	3

Administration.

1 out P

Judicial Commr. = { Two Judicial Commrs on S. }
 { Two Divisional and Sessions Judges. } 4
 { One additional ditto. }

The districts under the Deputy Commissioners are divided into from two to five sub-collectorates, in charge of subildars, who are invested with criminal and civil and revenue powers, and are assisted by naib-subildars, who exercise only criminal and revenue powers. Some sub-divisions are in charge of Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners. The village community characteristic of some parts of India is not indigenous among the Pathans. Its place as a social unit is to some extent taken by the tribe, which is held together by the ties of kinship and ancient ancestry, real or imaginary. Modern municipal local government has been introduced in the towns. There are also district boards. The district is the unit for police, medical and educational administration and the ordinary staff includes a District Superintendent of Police, a Civil Surgeon, who is also the Superintendent of Jail and a District Inspector of Schools. The Province forms a single educational circle and only possesses one forest division, that of Hazara. There are four divisions of the Roads and Buildings Branch of the Public Works Department, each under an Executive Engineer. The Irrigation Department of the P. W. D. is in charge of a Chief Engineer, irrigation, who is also *ex-officio* Secretary to the Chief Commissioner. The administration of the civil police force of the districts is vested in an Inspector-General. There is a special force of Frontier Constabulary. The revenue and expenditure of the Province are wholly Imperial. Of the Agencies only Kurram and Focht Valley pay land revenue to the British Government. The revenue administration of all five administered districts is controlled by the Revenue Commissioner. For the administration of civil and criminal justice there are two Civil and Sessions divisions each presided over by a Divisional and Sessions Judge. The two Judicial Commissioners are the controlling authority in the Judicial branch, of the administration, and their Courts are the highest criminal and appellate tribunals in this Province. The improvements needed to bring the judicial administration up-to-date, in accord with the growth of the business of administration, are dealt with in the Inquiry Committee's report to which reference was made above. The principal officers in the present Administration are:—

Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, The Hon. Sir Horatio Norman Bolton, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S. (Assumed charge, 7th July 1923.)

Personal Assistant, Captain N. S. Allington, M.C. Resident, Peshawar, Lt.-Col. C. E. Erace, C.I.E., C.B.E.

Judicial Commrs on Off., J. L. Fraser C.I.E., C.B.E.

Additional Judicial Commissioners, K. B. Sandhu-Gin Khan, B.A., I.C.S.

Revenue Commissioner, (Offg.) T. L. Capeland Secretary to Chief Commissioner, R. A. T Metcalfe, M.V.O.

Under-Secretary to Chief Commissioner, K P S. Menon.

Assistant Financial Secretary to Chief Commissioner, (Offg.) Lala Gurnuditta Mal.

Indian Personal Assistant to Chief Commissioner, Khan Bahadur Iqbaldar Moghal Baz Khan, I.C.S., I.D.S.M.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads Branch, Col. C. H. Haswell.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Irrigation Branch, S. Walker.

Deputy Commissioner of Forests, E. A. Groswell, B.A.

Chief Medical Officer, Lieut.-Col. C. I. Brierley, I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Police, (Offg.) C. Stead C.I.E., M.V.O.

Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, V. H. Short.

Director of Public Instruction, J. H. Towle, I.C.S., M.A.

Superintendent, Archaeological Survey, H. Harcourt.

Divisional and Sessions Judge, R. B. Dhal Lehna Singh, M.A.B. (Dera), Lt.-Col. W. A. Garstin, C.I.E., Sessions Judge (Peshawar).

Political Agents.

C. Latham, C.I.E., Dir, Swat and Chitral, Lt.-Col. R. Garratt, Khyber.

Captain C. F. M. Edwards, North Waziristan.

Major E. W. O. Noel, C.I.E., D.S.O., Kurram.

Captain W. R. May, I.C.S., South Waziristan.

Deputy Commissioners.

Lt.-Col. M. E. Kae, Hazara.

Lt.-Col. R. E. H. Griffith, C.I.E., I.A., Peshawar.

Major A. B. B. Parsons, C.B.E., D.S.O., I.A., Bannu.

C. H. Gidney, I.C.S., Dera Ismail Khan.

Major Thompson Glover, C.B.E., Kohat.

Former Chief Commissioners.

Lieut.-Col. Sir Harold Deane, K.C.S.I. Died 7th July 1908.

Lieut.-Col. Sir George Roos-Keppler, C.I.E., K.C.S.I., to 30th September 1919.

The Hon. Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant, K.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., from September 1919 to 8th March 1921.

The Hon. Sir John Inlander Maffey, K.C.V.O., C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S., from 8th March 1921 to 6th November 1925.

A branch of the line runs from Badarpur to Silchar at the eastern end of the Surma Valley and another runs through the west of the Assam Valley from Lumding to Gauhati where it effects a junction with the Eastern Bengal Railway. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects Assam with the Bengal system via the valley of the Brahmaputra. The excellence of its water communication makes Assam less dependent upon roads than other parts of India; but in recent years the road system has been developed and there is an unmetalled trunk road through the whole length of the Brahmaputra Valley and an excellent road from Gauhati to Shillong. A large fleet of steamers maintained by the India General Steam Navigation Company and the Rivers Steam Navigation Company plies on the rivers of both valleys. An alternate day service of passenger boats runs between Goalundo and Dibrugarh.

Population.
The total population of the Province in 1921 was 7,990,246, of whom 334,016 were in Manipur. Of the population in 1921, 2½ millions were Mohammedans, 4½ millions Hindus and 1½ millions Arawmists. 4½ per cent. of the population speak Bengali, 22 per cent. speak Assamese; other languages spoken in the province are Hindi, Uriya and a great variety of languages classified under the general heading of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Owing to the great areas of waste and rivers the density of the province is only 130, which compared with that of most other parts of India is low, but is more than double that of Burma.

It has been pointed out that for which it would be difficult to find any in any part of India, climate, soil, rainfall and river systems all being alike favourable to cultivation. Rice is the staple food crop, nearly 5 million acres being devoted to this crop. Except in the Himalayan Terai irrigation is unnecessary. Tea and Jute are the most important crops grown for export. The area under tea consists of 20,164 acres. Wheat and tobacco are also grown and about 66 square miles are devoted to sugarcane.

Baifall is everywhere abundant, and ranges from 67 to 228 inches. The maximum is reached at Cherrapunji in the Khasi Hills, which is one of the wettest places in the world, having a rainfall of 458 inches. The temperature ranges from 58 at Shillong in January to 84-85 in July. Earthquakes of considerable severity have taken place, by far the worst being that which occurred in 1897.

The only minerals in Assam worked on a commercial scale are coal, limestone and petroleum oil. The most extensive coal measures are in the Naga Hills and the Lakhimpur

In common with the other Provinces of India, Assam secured substantial financial autonomy under the Reform Act of 1919. The present financial position is set out in the following table:—

Estimated Provincial Revenue for 1927-28.

(In Thousands of Rupees.)

[illegible]

Estimated 1

Expenditure for 1917-18.—(contd.)

(In Thousands of Rupees)

Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by the Provincial Government	15,00
Miscellaneous adjustment between central and Provincial Governments, Capital outlay on Forests (Goulpara tramway side)	
(Transferred)—										
Excise	8,38
Registration	1,48
General Administration	1,08
Scientific Depts.	1
Education (other than European)	27,86
Medical	11,42
Public Health	11,98
Agriculture	5,76
Industries	1,88
Miscellaneous Departments	2
Civil Works	8,16
Stationery and Printing	85
Miscellaneous	3,00
Expenditure in England	7,31
Total Disbursements	2,81,63
Closing balance	40,62
Grand Total	8,27,25

Administration.

The province of Assam was originally formed in 1874 in order to relieve the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal of part of the administration of the huge territory then under him. In 1905, as the result of further deliberations, it was decided to add to the small Province of Assam the eastern portion of its unwieldy neighbour and to consolidate those territories under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam as then constituted was again broken up on the 1st of April, 1912: the Eastern Bengal Districts were united with the Bengal Commissionerships of Burdwan and the Presidency to form the Presidency of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council, Bihar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa were formed into a separate province, while the old Province of Assam was re-constituted under a Chief Commissioner.

Under the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 the Province was raised in status to that of administration by a Governor-in-Council and was thereby ranked, with certain minor provisions to suit its undeveloped character with the older major provinces of India.

The capital is Shillong, a town laid out with great taste and judgment among the pine woods on the slopes of the Shillong Range which rises to a height of 8,450 feet above the sea. It was destroyed in the earthquake of 1897 and has been rebuilt in a way more likely to withstand the shocks of earthquake.

GOVERNOR.

H. E. Sir Egbert Lawrie Lucas Hammond, K.C.S.I., C.B.E.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Khan Bahadur Kutub-ud-din Ahmad.
The Hon. Mr. Arthur William Botham, C.S.I.
C.I.E., I.O.S.

MINISTER.

Maulavi Sayid Muhammad Saadulla, M.A. B.T.
The Hon. the Rev. James Joy Mohan Nichols
Roy, B.A.

PRIVATE SECRETARY TO H. E. THE GOVERNOR,
W. H. Calvert, I. P.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, G. E. Scames, I.C.S.
Secretary in the Transferred Departments R
Friel, I.C.S.

Secretary, Legislative Department, B. N. Rau,
I.C.S.

Secretary, Public Works Department, O. H.
Desenne, I.S.E.

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS.

Director of Land Records, etc., W. L. Scott, I.C.S.
Director of Agriculture, etc., Rai Bahadur K. L.
Barua.

Conservator of Forests, W. R. Le G. Jacob.
Director of Surveys, Lt.-Col. R. H. Phillimore

Director of Public Instruction, J. R. Cunningham
C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Police, W. C. M. Dundas,
C.I.E.

Inspector General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons,
Col. G. Hutcheson, I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Major T. D. Morrison,
I.M.S.

GOVERNORS OF ASSAM.

Sir Nicholas Dodd Beatson Bell, 1920.
Sir William Marris, 1921.
Sir John Kerr, 1922
Sir Egbert Lawrie Lucas Hammond, K.C.S.I.,
C.B.E., 1927.

ASSAM LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

on 5th March 1924. President,
Gopendralal Das Choudhuri (Deputy President)

Names.

Constituency.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

James Joy Mohon Nichol-Roy	Shillong (General Urban).
1 Jatindra Mohan Deb Baskar	Silchar (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
1 Hirendra Chandra Chakravarty	Hailakandi ditto.
1 Basanta Kumar Das	Sylhet Sadr ditto.
1 Brajendra Narayan Chaudhuri	Simamganj ditto.
1 Gopendralal Das Choudhuri	Habiganj (North) ditto.
1 Rasik Lal Nandy Mazumdar	Habiganj (South) ditto.
1 Paresih Lal Shome Chaudhuri	South Sylhet ditto.
1 Bahadur Ramani Mohan Das	Kaimranj ditto.
1 Mukunda Narayan Barua	Dhubri ditto.
1 Lepin Chandra Ghosh	Goalpara ditto.
1 Rohini Kumar Chaudhuri	Gaubat ditto.
1 Kameswar Das	Barpeta ditto.
1 Mahadev Sarma	Tezpur ditto.
1 Nabin Chandra Barotlal	Mangaldai ditto.
1 Bishnu Charan Borah	Nowgonj ditto.
1 Paraprasad Chaliha	Sibsagar ditto.
1 Rohini Kanta Hati Barua	Jorhat ditto.
1 Kuladhar Chaliha	Golaghat ditto.
1 Shwar Barua	Dibrugarh ditto.
1 Sarveswar Barua	North Lakhimpur ditto.
1 Avy Arzan Ali Majumdar	Cachar (Muhammadan Rural), ditto.
1 Avy Abdul Hamid	Sylhet Sadr (North) ditto.
1 Avy Abdul Hamid Chaudhuri	Sylhet Sadr (South) ditto.
1 Avy Minawwarali	Sunamganj ditto.
1 Bahadur Hazi Muhammad Bakht zumdar	Habiganj (North) ditto.
1 Avy Sayed Samir Rahman	Habiganj (South) ditto.
1 Avy Ali Haidar Khan	South Sylhet ditto.
1 Avy Mahmud Ali	Karimganj ditto.
1 Avy Sahib Maulavi Muhammad Abdul rif M.B.E.	Dhubri excluding South ditto.
1 Avy Mizanur Rahman	Salmara Thana ditto.
Hon'ble Maulavi Saiyid Muhammad adulla	Goalpara cum South Sal- ditto.
1 Avy Keramat Ali	maria Thana ditto.
1 Hon'ble Alexander Gardner	Kamrup and Darrang cum ditto.
1 Edgar Stuart Roffey	Nowgonj ditto.
1 Tenant-Colonel Walter Dorling Smiles, I.O., C.I.E.	Sibsagar cum Lakhimpur ditto.
1 H. M. James	Assam Valley Planting ditto.
1 W. D. D. Cooper	Ditto ditto.
1 Krishnath Saikia	Ditto ditto.
	Surma Valley Planting ditto.
	Ditto ditto.
	Commerce and Industry.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Officials.

G. E. Soames, I.C.S.,
O. H. Desenne, F.S.M.,
J. R. Cunningham, C.I.E.,
H. M. Prichard,
R. Friel, I.C.S.

Non-Officials

Bahadur Amar Nath Ray.
Bahadur Sadananda Dowera.
1 Bahadur Dewan Sahib Abdul Hamid Chaudhuri.
1 Avy Sayidur Rahman.
1 Douglas Smart Withers, representing the labouring classes.
1 John Ceredig Evans, representing the inhabitants of backward tracts.
1 Bahadur Radha Kanta Handique.
1 Babindra Narain Chaudhuri.

Baluchistan is an oblong stretch of country occupying the extreme western corner of the Indian Empire. It is divided into three main divisions: (1) British Baluchistan with an area of 9,476 square miles consisting of tracts assigned to the British Government by treaty in 1879; (2) Agency Territories with an area of 44,845 square miles composed of tracts which have, from time to time, been acquired by lease or otherwise brought under control and placed directly under British officers; and (3) the Native States of Kalat and Las Bela with an area of 73,484 square miles. The Province embraces an area of 134,838 square miles and according to the census of 1921 it contains 799,625 inhabitants.

The country, which is almost wholly mountainous, lies on a great belt of ranges connecting the Said Koh with the hill system of Southern Persia. It thus forms a watershed the drainage of which enters the Indus on the east and the Arabian Sea on the south while on the north and west it makes its way to the inland lakes which form so large a feature of Central Asia. Rugged, barren, sun-burnt mountains, rent by high chasms and gorges, alternate with arid deserts and stony plains, the prevailing colour of which is a monotonous slight. But this is redeemed in places by level valleys of considerable size in which irrigation enables much cultivation to be carried on and rich crops of all kinds to be raised.

The political connection of the British Government with Baluchistan commenced from the outbreak of the First Afghan War in 1839; it was traversed by the Army of the Indus and was afterwards occupied until 1842 to protect the British lines of communication. The districts of Kachi, Quetta and Mastung were handed over to the Amir of Afghanistan and Political Officers were appointed to administer the country. At the close of the First Afghan War, the British withdrew and these districts were assigned to the Khan of Kalat. The founder of the Baluchistan Province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman who broke down the close border system and welded the Baluch and Brahui Clans into a close confederacy. In the Afghan War of 1879 Pishin, Shoravud, Sibi, Zawara Valley and Thal-Chothali were handed over by Yakub Khan to the British Government and retained at Sir Robert Sandeman's strenuous insistence.

Industries.

Baluchistan lies outside the monsoon area and its rainfall is exceedingly irregular and scanty. Shahrig, which has the heaviest rainfall, records no more than 11½ inches in a year. In the highlands few places receive more than 10 inches and in the plains the average rainfall is about 5 inches, decreasing in some cases to 3. The majority of the indigenous population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, provision and care of animals and transport. The majority of the Afghan and the Baluch, as a rule, cultivate their own lands. The Brahuis dislike agriculture and prefer a pastoral life. Previous to the advent of the British life and property were so insecure that the cultivator was fortunate if he reaped his harvest. The establishment of peace and security has been accompanied by a marked

extension of agriculture which accounts for the increase in the numbers of the purely cultivating class. The industry is extensively grown and export is increasing.

Education is imparted in 94 public schools of all kinds, with 5,473 scholars. There is a distinct desire for education amongst the more enlightened headmen round about Quetta-Pishin and other centres where the Local Government with its officers stays at certain seasons, such as Sibi and Ziarat; but on the whole education is the desire of it has made little or no advance in the outlying districts. The mineral wealth of the Province is believed to be considerable, but cannot be exploited until railways are developed. Coal is mined at Shahrig on the Sind-Pishin railway and in the Bolan Pass. The output of coal in 1926-27 was 8,239 tons. Chromite is extracted in the Zhob District near Hindubagh. The Chrome output fell off owing to poorer demand. Lime-stone is quarried in small quantities. The output of Chromite during 1926-27 amounted to 14,833 tons.

Administration.

The head of the local administration is the officer styled Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner. Next in rank comes the Revenue Commissioner who controls the revenue administration and exercises the functions of a High Court as Judicial Commissioner of the Province. The keynote of administration in Baluchistan is self-government by the tribesmen, as far as may be, by means of their Jirgas or Councils of Elders along the ancient customary lines of tribal law, the essence of which is the satisfaction of the aggrieved and the settlement of the feud, not retaliation on the aggressor or the vindictive punishment of a crime. The District levies which normally numbered 2,300 odd play an unobtrusive but invaluable part in the work of the Civil administration not only in watch and ward and the investigation of crime, but also in the carrying of the mails, the serving of processes and other miscellaneous work. In addition to these district levies there are ordinarily two irregular Corps in the Province; the Zhob Levy Corps and the Makran Levy Corps. The Province does not pay for itself and receives large subsidies from the Imperial Government.

Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner. The Hon'ble Sir F. W. Johnston, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S.

Revenue and Judicial Commissioner, Lt.-Col. T. H. Kays, C.M.G., C.I.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Col. Comd'g G. H. Bollen, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, E. R. L. Wingate.

Political Agent, Zhob, Khan Bahadur Shariat Khan, C.I.E.

Political Agent, Kalat and Bolan Pass, C. L. Corfield, M.C.

Political Agent and Deputy Commissioner, Quetta, Lt.-Col. J. A. Broth, C.I.E.

Assistant Political Agent and Assistant Commandant, Quetta Police Force
Political Agent, Sibi, Major G. L. Betham, M.C.
Assistant Political Agent, Sibi, R. S. Mehta, B.A.

Political Agent, Loralai, Offg. Capt. D. G. H. de la Fargue.
Residency Surgeon and Chief Medical Officer, Lt.-Col. D. J. M. Deas, F.R.S.
Civil Surgeon, Sibi, Lt.-Col. J. Anderson.
Assistant Political Agent, Zhob, Offg. K. S. Murtaza Khan.
Civil Surgeon, Quetta, Lt.-Col. F. E. Wilson, F.R.S.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS.

This is a group of islands in the Bay of Bengal of which the headquarters are at Port Blair, by sea 780 miles from Calcutta, 740 miles from Madras and 380 miles from Rangoon, with which ports there is regular communication.

The land area of the islands under the administration is 3,143 square miles, namely, 2,508 square miles in the Andamans and 635 square miles in the Nicobars. The total population is 26,459. The islands are administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands who is also the Superintendent of the Penal Settlement. The penal settlement, which was established in 1858, is the most important in India.

Chief Commissioner of Port Blair, Lieut.-Col. M. L. Ferrar, C.S.I., C.I.E., D.S.O., I.A.

Commandant, Military Police, Lt.-Col. G. C. Wheeler, V.C., I.A.

Senior Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon, Major J. M. R. Kearney, F.R.S.

COORG.

Coorg is a small petty Province in Southern India, west of the State of Mysore. Its area is 1,582 square miles and its population 174,976. Coorg came under the direct protection of the

British Government during the war with Sultan Tipu of Seringapatam in May 1804, owing to misgovernment, it was annexed. The Province is directly under the Government of India and administered by the Chief Commissioner of Coorg who is the Resident in Mysore with his headquarters at Bangalore. In him are combined all the functions of a local government and a High Court. The Secretariat is at Bangalore where the Assistant Resident is styled Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Coorg. In Coorg his chief authority is the Commissioner whose headquarters are at Mercara and whose duties extend to every branch of the administration. A Legislative Council consisting of 15 elected members and five nominated members was created in 1923. The chief wealth of the country is agriculture and especially the growth of coffee. Although owing to over-production and insect pests coffee no longer commands the profits it once enjoyed, the Indian output still holds its own against the severe competition of Brazil. The bulk of the output is exported to France.

Chief Commissioner, Coorg—The Hon. Mr. S. E. Pears, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

AJMER-MERWARA.

Ajmer-Merwara is an isolated British Province in Rajputana. The Agent to the Governor General in Rajputana administers it as Chief Commissioner. The Province consists of two small separate districts, Ajmer and Merwara, with a total area of 2,711 square miles and a population of 501,295. At the close of the Pindar war Daulat Rao Scindia, by a treaty, dated June 27, 1816, ceded the district to the British. Fifty-five per cent. of the population are supported by agriculture, the industrial population being principally employed in the cotton and other industries. The principal crops are maize, millet, barley, cotton, oil-seeds and wheat.

Chief Commissioner, The Hon. Mr. L. W. Reynolds, C.I.E., M.C.

Aden.

Aden was the first new territory added to the Empire after the accession of Queen Victoria. Its acquisition in 1839 was the outcome of an outrage committed by the local Abdali chief upon the passengers and crew of a British bungalow wrecked in the neighbourhood. Various acts of treachery supervened during the negotiations regarding the bungalow outrage and Aden was captured by a force sent by the Bombay Government under Major Baillie. The act has been described as one of those opportune political

strokes which have given geographical continuity to British possessions scattered over the world.

Aden is an extinct volcano, five miles long and three broad, jutting out to sea much as Gibraltar does, having a circumference of about 15 miles and connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus of flat ground. This is nearly covered at one part at high spring tides, but the causeway and aqueduct are always above, though sometimes only just above water. The highest

pack on the wall of precipitous hills that surround the old city which is situated on a small island about 1 1/2 miles from the shore. Rugged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre to the circumference of the crater. A great gap has been rent by some volcanic disturbance on the sea surface of the circle of hills and this opens to the magnificent harbour. The peninsula of Little Aden, adjacent to Aden proper, was obtained by purchase in 1863 and the adjoining tract of Shaikh Othman, 39 square miles in extent, was subsequently purchased when, in 1882, it was found necessary to make provision for an over-flowing population.

Attached to the settlement of Aden are the islands of Perim, an island of 5 square miles extent in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, in the entrance to the Arabian Sea; Sokatra island, at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden, in the Arabian Sea, came under the British sphere of influence by a Protectorate treaty in 1886 and 1,382 miles in extent; and the five small Kuria Muria islands, ceded by the Imam of Muskat in 1854 for the purpose of landing the Red Sea cable, and otherwise valuable only for the guano deposits found upon them. They are off the Arabian coast, about 100 miles from the way from Aden to the east of the Aden settlement.

Little Aden. Shaikh
Aden. 2,075
The 192. Aden, population of 56,500.
largely dependent on the Coal Depot maintained there by a commercial firm. That of Sokatra is 12,000, mostly pastoral and migratory inland, fishing on the coast.

Strategic Importance.

Aden's first importance is as a naval and military station of strategic importance. This aspect was ably discussed by Colonel A. M. Murray, in his "Imperial Outposts." He points out that Aden is not a naval base in the same sense that Gibraltar, Malta and Hong-Kong were made, but a *point d'appui*, a rendezvous and striking point for the fleet. It was seized in 1839 because of its usefulness as a harbour of refuge for British ships and from a strategist's point of view this is its primary purpose and the *raison d'être* of its forts and garrison. Aden under British rule has retained its ancient prestige as a fortress of impregnable strength, invulnerable by sea and by land, dominating the entrance to the Red Sea, and valuable to its owners as a commercial emporium, a port of call and a cable centre. The harbour extends 8 miles from east to west and 4 from north to south and is divided into two bays by a spit of land. The harbour is dredged to 30 below L.S. L.W. and is approached by a dredged cut of the same depth. This cut extends seaward to join the 5 fathom contour and thus gives a depth at low water spring tides of 5 fathoms for vessels entering the Port. The junction of this cut with the 5 fathom contour is marked by the fairway buoy which carries a flashing red light. The bottom is sand and mud. There are several islands in the inner bay. Strategic control of the Red Sea was rendered complete by the annexation of Perim and by a Protectorate treaty with the Sultan of Sokatra, which may

both be regarded as outposts of Aden, and are under the political jurisdiction of the Resident.

The Arab chiefs of the hinterland of Arabia are nearly all dependencies of the British Government.

G. R. Fitzmaurice, British Ambassador, were appointed in 1902, as Commissioners to delimitate the frontier between Turkish Arabia and the British Protectorate around Aden. A settling details of the frontier was made by Shaikh Murad a potentate on the Red Sea coast opposite Perim, to the bank of the river Sana, the eastern limit of Turkish claims, at a point some 28 miles north east of Dhala, and thence north-east to the great desert. The area left within the British Protectorate was about 4,000 square miles. The arrangement gave to Turkey Cape Bab-el-Mandeb which forms the Arabian bank of the eastern channel past Perim into the Red Sea. A small fort and small British garrison used to be maintained at Dhala, which is 7,700 feet high, but the garrison was withdrawn in 1906. Lord Morley explaining this step as being in accordance with the policy stated in the House of Lords in 1903,—that His Majesty's Government had never desired to interfere with the internal and domestic affairs of the tribes on the British side of the boundary, but had throughout made it plain that they would not assent to the interference of any other Power with those affairs. Affairs in this respect have been disarranged considerably by the war.

British Policy.

There has been much criticism of a policy under which Aden has failed to advance with the same progressive strides which have marked the development of other British dependencies. It is said that the former Persian possessors of Aden built its wonderful water tanks, and the Arabs made an aqueduct 20 miles long, while the British have done nothing except mount guns to protect their coal yards. Trade, it is argued, flourishes because this is a naturalemporium of commerce, but not because of the attention its needs get from Government. Lord Roberts, writing on this point a few years ago, said: "It is not creditable to British rule to make use of a dependency like Aden for selfish purposes of political necessity without attempting to extend the benefits of civilised Government to the neighbouring native tribes, especially when those tribes are living under the aegis of the British Crown. The Persians, the Turks and even the Arabs did more for Aden in their time than we have done during our seventy years' occupation. . . . Aden has always suffered under the disadvantage of being an appanage of the Bombay Presidency, with which it has neither geographical, racial nor political affinity. Probably the best solution of the matter would be to hand over the place to the Colonial Office, relieving the Government of Bombay of a charge which is only looked upon as an incubus." This question is still under discussion but some important steps have been taken in the past few years to satisfy the commercial needs of the port.

Language.

The language of the settlement is Arabic, but several other Asiatic tongues are spoken. The population is chiefly returned as Arabs and

Shakhs Th S ma s om he Ar an coas
and A aks do the had about of he p S
ar as the settlement is concerned the chief
industries are salt and cigarette manufacture.
The crops of the tribal low country adjoining
are jowar, sesamum, a little cotton, madder,
a bastard saffron and a little indigo. In the
hills, wheat, madder, fruit, coffee and a
considerable quantity of wax and honey are
obtained. The water supply forms the most
important problem. Water is drawn from four
sources—wells, aqueducts, tanks or reservoirs
and condensers, that there have recently suc-
cessfully small artesian wells which may
prove superior to all such arrangements. The
trade of Aden is mostly transshipment, the
port serving as a centre of distribution. Its
total annual value in recent years has ranged
between Rs. 15 crores and Rs. 20 crores.

Administration.

The administration of Aden was in former times
directly under the Government of Bombay. In
1920, the political control of Aden, which was
exercised during the period of the war by the
High Commissioner of Egypt, was retransferred
to the Political Resident, Aden, who was to be
directly responsible to the Foreign Office. In
1921, this responsibility was taken over by the
Colonial Office. The future of the Protectorate
has been the subject of no little discussion and
various proposals have been put forward. At
one time the idea that it should be transferred
to the Colonial Office
the proposals met with
the important Indian
views were supported
much friction between

Office over the status of Indians in the Dominions
and some of the Crown Colonies, and the lukewarmness of the Colonial Office in protecting
their rights was much resented. Therefore transfer
to the Colonial Office was opposed as transfer
to an unknowing and unsympathetic adminis-
tration. On the 11th July 1922 the Under-
Secretary of State for the Colonies stated in the
House of Commons that there was no prospect
of the Colonial Office taking over the control
of Aden in the near future. Deliberations be-
tween the Government of India and the Imperial
Government reached their conclusion during
the past year and the decisions finally taken
were announced by the Government of India in
the Legislative Assembly assembled in Delhi
during the Budget debates in March, 1927. The
new arrangements came into operation on April
1st, 1927. Under the new conditions, the Im-
perial Government are responsible for the
military and political situation in Aden and its
Hinterland. The settlement of Aden itself,
which is to a large degree peopled by Indians,
remains under the Government of India. The
financial settlement required by this division of
Imperial Revenues of £250,000 a year for three
years and thence forward of £150,000 a year.

The area is
a sea
Under the same system

The administration is conducted by a Resi-
dent, who is assisted by four Assistants. The
Resident is also ordinarily General Officer
Commanding and has hitherto usually been an
officer selected from the Indian army as have his
assistants. The Court of the Resident is the
Colonial Court of Admiralty under Act XVI of
1891, and its procedure as such is regulated by
the provisions of the Colonial Courts of Ad-
miralty Act 1890 (53 and 54 Vict. Chapter
27). The laws in force in the settlement are
generally speaking those in force in the Bombay
Presidency, supplemented on certain points by
special regulations to suit local conditions. The
management of the port is under the control of a
Board of Trustees formed in 1888. The principal
business of the Port Trust has been the deepening
of the harbour, so as to allow vessels of all sizes
to enter and leave at all states of the tide. The
Aden police force consists of land and harbour
police who number 820 and 54 respectively.
There are hospitals and dispensaries in both
Aden and Perim, in addition to the military
institutions of this character. The garrison
comprises a troop of engineers, three companies
of garrison artillery, one battalion of British
infantry, two companies of sappers and miners,
and one Indian regiment. Detachments from
the last named are maintained at Perim and
Shaikh Othman respectively.

Climate.

The average temperature of the station is
87 degrees in the shade, the mean range
being from 75 in January to 98 in
June, with variations up to 102. The hells
between the monsoons, in May and September
are very oppressive. Consequently, long resi-
dence impairs the faculties and undermines the
constitution of Europeans and even Indians
suffer from the effects of too long an abode in
the settlement, and troops are not posted in the
station for long periods, being usually sent there
one year and relieved the next. But Aden is
exceptionally free from infectious diseases and
epidemics, and the absence of vegetation, the
dryness of the soil and the purity of the drinking
water constitute efficient safeguards against
many maladies common to tropical countries.
The annual rainfall varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
inches, with an irregular average of 3
inches.

Political Resident: Major-General J. H. K.
Stewart, C.B., D.S.O.

Assistant Residents

1. Major B. R. Reilly, C.I.E., O.B.E.
2. „ T. C. W. Fowle.
3. Captain M. O. Sinclair.
4. „ B. P. Ross-Hurst, M.C.

The Home Government.

Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing board of the old India Company. The affairs of the Company were originally managed by the Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established the Board of Control, with full power and authority to control and direct all operations and affairs relating to the civil and military administration and revenues of India. By the Charter Act of 1833 the number of the Board was reduced to five, and its powers were exercised by the President, who was the real precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications this system continued until 1858, when the Mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, demanded a complete change. The Charter Act of 1858 (merged in the corresponding measure passed in 1916) the Secretary of State as the constitutional adviser of the Crown on all matters relating to India. He exercised generally all the powers and duties which were formerly vested either in the Board of Control, or in the Company, the Directors, or the Secret Committee in respect of the administration and revenues of India.

The Secretary of State.

Under the Reform Act of 1919 came into force the Secretary of State had the unqualified authority to give orders to every officer in India, including the Governor-General, and to superintend, direct and control all administrative operations and concerns relating to the government of India. In the relations of the Secretary of State with the Governor-General no express statutory change was made, but Parliament ordained through the Joint Select Committee that in practice the concerns governing these relations should be handled only in exceptional circumstances he be called upon to intervene in matters purely of Indian interest where the Government of India and the Legislature of India are in agreement. The wide powers and duties still vested in the Secretary of State, many rest on his personal responsibility; others can be performed only in consultation with his Council, and for some the concurrence of a majority of the members of his Council voting at a meeting is required. The Act of 1919 greatly modified the rigidity of the law maintained for sixty years as to the relations of the Secretary of State with his Council, and he has fuller power in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though hitherto the Council meets weekly (save during vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in a month.

The India Council.

The number of members of the Council was fixed by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being appointed within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may for special reasons

Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £800 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total net cost including pensions has been about £250,000 per annum. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and the cost of the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is also met from British revenues, while agency functions alone are chargeable to Indian revenues.

The High Commissionership.

The financial readjustment has been accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act, in the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the High Commissioner took over control of the purchase of Government Stores in England and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, the recruitment of technical officers, supervision of I.C.S. and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave, repatriation of destitute lascars, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The staff of the Stores Department is located at the Depot off the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff, at 42, 44 and 46, Grosvenor Gardens, S.W. 1, but a new "India House" is to be erected for the High Commissioner in Aldwych to the designs of Sir Herbert Baker at an estimated cost of £300,000.

Parliament set up in 1920 a Joint Standing Committee on Indian affairs consisting of eleven members of each House. The purpose is to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs and to refer to the Committee draft rules and also Parliamentary Bills after they have received a

INDIA OFFICE.

Secretary of State.

The Right Hon. The Earl of Birkenhead.

Under-Secretaries of State.

Sir Arthur Hirtzel, K.C.B.

The Rt. Hon. Earl Winterton.

Deputy Under-Secretary of State.

Sir Malcolm Seton, K.C.B.

Assistant Under-Secretaries of State.

Sir Louis Kershaw, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

S. F. Stewart, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Council.

Frederick Crawford Goodenough.

Sir William H. H. Vincent, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.

General Sir Havelock Hudson, K.C.B., K.C.I.E.

Sir Reginald A. Mant, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

Sir Muhammad Rafique.

Sir Robert Erskine Holland, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.,

C.V.O.

Sir Campbell W. Rhodes, C.B.E.

S. N. Mallik, C.I.E.

Dr. R. P. Paranjpye, M.A., B.Sc.

Sir Henry Wheeler, K.C.S.G., K.C.I.E.

Clerk of the Council, S. B. Stewart, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Deputy Clerk of the Council, F. W. H. Smith.

Private Secretary to the Secretary of State,

R. H. A. Carter.

Assistant Private Secretaries, J. P. Gibson

and G. H. G. M. Cartwright.

Political A.D.-C. to the Secretary of State, Lieut.-

Col. A. D'Arcy. G. Bannerman, C.I.E., C.V.O.

Private Secretary to Sir A. Hirtzel, R. B. Field.

Private Secretary to Earl Winterton, W. D.

Tomkins.

Heads of Departments.

SECRETARIES.

Financial, W. Robinson, C.B.E.; C.H. Kisch, C.B.

Public and Judicial, J. E. Ferard, C.B.E.

Military, Field Marshal Sir Claud W. Jacob,

C.B.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G.

Ditto (Joint), S. K. Brown, C.V.O.

Political and Secret, L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Economic and Overseas, E. J. Turner, C.B.E.

Services and General and Establishment Officer—

P. H. Dumbell.

Director-in-Chief of the Indo-European Tele-

graph, Public Works Department, M. G.

Simpson.

Accountant-General, Sidney Turner, F.R.A.

also Director of Funds and Official Agent to

Administrators-General in India.

RECORD DEPARTMENT.—Superintendent of Re-

cords, W. T. Ottewill, M.B.E.

Auditor, W. A. Sturdy.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Government Director of Indian Railway Com-

panies, W. Stantial, C.I.E.

Librarian, Fredk. C. A. Story, M.A.

Hutnotographer—Sir W. Foster, C.I.E.

President of Medical Board for the Examination

of Officers of the Indian Services and Adviser

to the Secretary of State on Medical matters,

Major-General J. B. Smith, C.B., C.I.E.

Member of the Medical Board, Lt.-Col. Sir L.

Rogers, C.I.E., F.R.S.

Legal Adviser and Solicitor to Secretary of State,

Sir Edward Chamber, K.C.I.E.

Inspector of Military Equipment and Clothing,

Col. H. E. Garstin, D.S.O., R.A. (retd.)

Ordnance Consulting Officer, Col. C. T. D. Frooth.

HIGH COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE.

(42, Grosvenor Gardens.)

The High Commissioner, Sir A. C. Chatterji,

K.C.I.E.

Secretary, J. C. B. Drake, C.I.E., C.B.E.

Chief Accountancy Officer, G. H. Stoker, C.B.E.

Personal Assistant, G. F. Drayson

General Department: Assistant Secretary, R.

Montgomery.

Indian Trade Commissioner, H. A. F. Landes

C.I.E., C.B.E.

Joint Secretaries for Indian Students, N. C. Se

O.B.E., and T. Quayle, D. Litt. (Lond.).

Store Department Depot at Belvedere

Road, Lambeth, S. E. 1.

Director-General, Lieut.-Col. S. S. W. Pardo

C.I.E., C.I.M.E.

Deputy Director, R. B. Howlett.

Superintendent of Depot, F. E. Bonest, M.I.E.

Secretaries of State for India.

	Assum charg
Lord Stanley (a)	18
Sir Charles Wood, Bart. (b)	18
Earl de Grey and Ripon (c)	18
Viscount Cranborne (d)	18
Sir Stafford Northcote, Bart. (e)	18
The Duke of Argyll, K.T.	18
The Marquis of Salisbury (2nd time)	18
Gathorne Hardy, created Viscount Cranbrook, 14 May, 1878 (f)	18
The Marquis of Hartington (g)	18
The Earl of Kimberley	18
Lord Randolph Churchill	18
The Earl of Kimberley, K.G. (2nd time)	18
Sir Richard Assheton Cross, G.C.B., created Viscount Cross, 19 Aug., 1886	18
The Earl of Kimberley, K.G. (3rd time)	18
H. H. Fowler (h)	18
Lord George F. Hamilton	18
St. John Brodrick (i)	19
John Morley O.M. (j)	19
The Earl of Crewe, K.G.	19
Viscount Morley of Blackburn, O.M.	19
The Earl of Crewe, K.G. (k)	19
Austen Chamberlain, M.P.	19
H. S. Montagu, M.P.	19
Viscount Peel	19
Lord Olivier	19
Lord Birkenhead	19

(a) Afterwards (by succession) Earl of Derby

(b) " (by creation) Viscount

Halifax.

(c) " (by creation) Marquess

Ripon.

(d) " (by succession) Marquess

of Salisbury.

(e) " (by creation) Earl

Iddesleigh.

(f) " (by creation) Earl Cranbro

(g) " (by succession) Duke

Devonshire.

(h) " (by creation) Viscount

Wolverhampton, G.C.S.I.

(i) " (by succession) Viscount

Milton.

(j) " (by creation) Viscount

Morley of Blackburn, O

(k) " (by creation) Marquess

Crewe K.G.

The area enclosed within the Indian States is 1,773,168 square miles of 315,132,537 of the human race. But of this total a very large part is not under British Administration. The area covered in the Indian States is 675,267 square miles with a population of seventy millions. The Indian States embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They vary in size from petty states like Lawa, in Rajputana, with an area of 13 square miles, and the Simla Hill States, which are little more than small holdings, to States like Hyderabad, as large as Italy, with a population of thirteen millions. They include the inhospitable regions of Western Rajputana, Baroda, part of the Garden of India, Mysore, rich in agricultural wealth, and Kashmir, one of the most favoured spots on the face of the globe.

Relations with the Paramount Power.

No divorce act the Indian State me into political role of India, that it is rise them. But broadly it may be said that as the British boundaries expanded, the states came under the influence of the Government and the rulers were confirmed in their possessions. To this general policy however there was, for a brief period, an important departure. During the regime of Lord Dalhousie the Government introduced what was called annexation through lapse. That is to say, when there was no direct heir, the Government considered whether public interests would be secured by granting the right of adoption. Through the application of this policy, the states of Satara and of Nagpur fell in to the East India Company, and the kingdom of Oudh was annexed because of the gross misgovernment of its rulers. Then came the Mutiny. It was followed by the transference of the dominions of the East India Company to the Crown, and an irrevocable declaration of policy toward the Indian States. In the historic Proclamation of Queen Victoria it was set out that "We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions; and while we will permit no aggression on our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity, we shall allow no encroachments on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity and honour of the Native Princes as our own; and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government." Since the issue of that proclamation there has been no encroachment on the area under Indian rule by the Government of India. On the contrary, the movement has been in the opposite direction. In 1881 the State of Mysore, which had been so long under British administration that the traditions of Native rule were almost forgotten, was restored to the old Hindu ruling house. In 1911 the Maharajah of Benares, the great talukdar of Oudh, was granted ruling powers over his extensive possessions. On many occasions the Government of India has had to intervene, to prevent gross misgovernment, or to carry on the administration during a long minority; but always with the undeviating intention of restoring the territories as soon as the necessity

or intervention passed. Almost all states possess the right of adoption in default of heirs.

Rights of Indian States.

The rights and obligations of the Indian States are thus described by the Imperial Gazetteer. The Chiefs have, without exception, gained protection against dangers from without and a guarantee that the protector will respect their rights as rulers. The Paramount Power acts for them in relation to foreign Powers and other Indian States. The inhabitants of the Indian States are the subjects of their rulers, and except in case of personal jurisdiction over British subjects, these rulers and their subjects are free from the control of the laws of British India. Criminals escaping to an Indian State must be handed over to it by its authorities, they cannot be arrested by the police of British India without the permission of the ruler of the State. The Indian Princes have therefore a suzerain power which acts for them in all external affairs, and at the same time scrupulously respects their internal authority. The suzerain also intervenes when the internal peace of their territories is seriously threatened. Finally they participate in all the benefits which the protecting power obtains by its diplomatic action, or by its administration of its own dominions, and thus secure a share in the commerce, the railways, the ports, and the markets of British India. Except in rare cases, applied to maritime states, they have freedom of trade with British India although they levy their own customs, and their subjects are admitted to most of the public offices of the British Government.

Obligations of Indian States.

On the other hand, the Indian States are under an obligation not to enter into relations with foreign nations or other states; the authority of their rulers has no existence outside their territories. Their subjects outside their dominions become for all intents and purposes British subjects. Where foreign interests are concerned, the Paramount Power must act so that no just cause of offence is given by its subordinate allies. All Indian States alike are to the British other states. have no use for than for police with the Imperial forces, their equipment and armament are prescribed by the Paramount Power. Although old and unaltered treaties declare that the British Government will have no manner of concern with any of a Maharajah's dependents or servants, with respect to whom the Maharajah is absolute, logic and public opinion have endorsed the principle which Lord Curzon set forth in his minute of 1860, that the "Government of India is not precluded from stepping in to set right such serious abuses in a Native Government as may threaten any part of the country with anarchy or disturbance, nor from assuming temporary charge of a Native State when there shall be sufficient reason to do so." Of this necessity the Governor-General in Council is the sole judge subject to the control of Parliament. Where the law of British India confers jurisdiction over British subjects or other specified persons in foreign territory that power is exercised

by the British courts which possess it. The subjects of European Powers and the United States are on the same footing. Where cantonments exist in an Indian State, jurisdiction both over the cantonment and the civil station is exercised by the suzerain power.

Political Officers.

The powers of the British Government are exercised through Political Officers who, as a rule, reside in the states themselves. In the larger states the Government is represented by a Resident, in groups of states by an Agent to the Governor-General, assisted by local Residents or Political Agents. These Officers form the sole channel of communication between the Indian States and the Government of India and its Foreign Department, with the officials of British India and with other Indian States. They are expected to advise and assist the Ruling Chiefs in any administrative or other matters on which they may be consulted. Political Agents are similarly employed in the larger States under the Provincial Governments but in the petty states scattered over British India the duties of the Agent are usually entrusted to the Collector or Commissioner in whose district they lie. All questions relating to the Indian States are under the special supervision of the Supreme Government, and in the personal charge of the Governor-General.

Closer Partnership.

Events have tended gradually to draw the Paramount Power and the Indian States into closer harmony. Special care has been devoted to the education of the sons of Ruling Chiefs, first by the employment of tutors, and afterwards by the establishment of special colleges for the purpose. These are now established at Ajmere, Rajkot, Indore and Lahore. The Imperial Cadet Corps, whose headquarters are at Dehra Dun, imparts military training to the sons of the ruling chiefs and noble families. The spread of higher education has placed at the disposal of the Indian States the products of the Universities. In these ways there has been a steady rise in the character of the administration of the Indian States, approximating more closely to the British ideal. Most of the Indian States have also come forward to bear their share in the burden of Imperial defence. Following on the spontaneous offer of military assistance

when war with Russia appeared to be inevitable over the Peshch incident in 1885, the States have raised a portion of their forces up to the standard of the troops in the Indian Army. These were until recently termed Imperial Service Troops; but are now designated Indian State Forces; they belong to the States, they are officered by Indians; but they are inspected by a regular cadre of British officers under the general direction of an Inspector-General. Their numbers are approximately 22,000 men; their armament is the same as that of the Indian Army and they have done good service often under their own Chiefs, on the Frontier and in China, in Siamland and in the Great War. Secure in the knowledge that the Paramount Power will respect their rights and privileges, the Ruling Chiefs have lost the suspicion which was common when their position was less assured, and the visits of the Prince of Wales in 1875, of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1905-06, and of the King and Queen in 1911-12 have tended to seal the devotion of the great feudatories to the Crown. The improvement in the standard of native rule has also permitted the Government of India largely to reduce the degree of interference in the internal affairs of the Indian States. The new policy was authoritatively laid down by Lord Minto, the then Viceroy, in a speech at Udaipur in 1909 when he said:—

"Our policy is with rare exceptions, one of non-interference in the internal affairs of the Native States. But in guaranteeing their internal independence and in undertaking their protection against external aggression it naturally follows that the Imperial Government has assumed a certain degree of responsibility for the general soundness of their administration and could not consent to incur the reproach of being an indirect instrument of misrule. There are also certain matters in which it is necessary for the Government of India to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole as well as those of the paramount power, such as railways, telegraphs and other services of an Imperial character. But the relationship of the Supreme Government to the State is one of suzerainty. The foundation stone of the whole system is the recognition of identity of interests between the Imperial Government and Durbars and the minimum of interference with the latter in their own affairs."

HYDERABAD.

The Nizam exercises full sovereignty within his dominions, grants titles and has the power of life and death over his subjects. Before 1919, the Government consisted of a Prime Minister responsible to the Nizam, with Assistant Ministers, but in this year, an Executive Council consisting of seven ordinary and one extraordinary member under a President was established. A legislative Council consisting of 20 members of whom 12 are official, 6 non-official and extraordinary is responsible for making laws. The

administration is carried on by a regular system of departments on lines similar to those followed in British India. The state is divided into two divisions—Telangana and Mahabubnagar—15 Districts and 103 Talukas. Local Boards are constituted in each District and Taluka. The State maintains its own currency which consists of gold and silver coins and a large note issue. The rupee, known as the Osmania Sica, exchanges with the British Indian rupee at an average ratio of 115-10-8 to 100. There is a State postal

service and stamps for internal purposes. The Nizam maintains his own army consisting of 19,523 troops of which 5,874 are classed as regular troops and 12,580 as irregular. In addition to these, there are two battalions of Imperial Service Troops, 1,067 strong.

FINANCE.—Hyderabad State is far the wealthiest of the Indian States, having a revenue in its own currency of over 74 crores, which is approximately the same as that of the Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa and double that of any other State. After many vicissitudes, its finances are at present in a prosperous condition and it enjoys a large annual surplus of revenue from which a reserve of 15 crores has been built up. This is being used partly as a sinking fund for the purchase of the State railways and partly for the development of the resources of the State. The budget estimates for the present year show a revenue of 768 lakhs under service heads and an expenditure of 734 lakhs, inclusive of large sums set aside for development, famine insurance and reserve for re-organisation and development. The capital expenditure programme provides for an expenditure of 136 lakhs, which includes 63 lakhs for the large irrigation project known as "Nizam Sagar" and other sanctioned projects and 67 lakhs for the completion of the Kazipet-Bellarsah line, which is the last link in the direct route between Madras and Delhi, and for the construction of feeder lines. The year opened with a cash balance of 495 lakhs which is expected to increase to about 520 lakhs by the end of the year. The Government loans stand at 108½ for short term and 116 for long term issues.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY.—The principal industry of the State is agriculture, which maintains 57 per cent. of the population. The common system of land tenure is ryotwari. About 25 per cent. of the total area is directly administered by the State. The rest consists of private estates of His Exalted the Nizam, which comprise about one-tenth of the total area of the State, and the estates of the Jagirdars and Patilab nables. The total land revenue is over 3 crores. The principal food crops are millet and rice; the staple money crops cotton, which is grown extensively on the black cotton soils, and oilseeds. Hyderabad is well-known for its Gujran cotton which is the longest staple indigenous cotton in India. The total area under cotton exceeds 3 million acres. Hyderabad possesses the most southerly of the Indian coal measures and the whole of southern India is dependent on it for such coal as is transported by rail. The chief mine is situated at Singareni, which is not far from Bezawada junction on the Calcutta-Madras line. The chief manufacturing industry is based on the cotton produced in the State. There are five large mills in existence and others are likely to be established, while about one-third of the cloth worn in the Dominions is produced on local hand-looms. There are about 250 ginning and pressing factories in the cotton tracts and also a number of tanneries and flour mills. The Shahabad Cement Co. which has been established at Shahabad on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line, not far from Wali, supplies the whole of southern India with cement and has at present an annual output of about 40,000 tons.

TAXATION.—Apart from the land revenue which as stated above brings in about 3 crores, the main sources of taxation are excise and customs. The receipts from each are estimated for the present year at 159 and 132 lakhs respectively. After these come interest on investments (43 lakhs), railways (83 lakhs) and Berrar rent (29 lakhs). The customs revenue is derived from an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. on all imports and exports.

COMMUNICATIONS.—One hundred and thirty seven miles of broad gauge line from Bombay to Madras traverse the State. At Wali, on this section, the broad gauge system of the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway takes off and running east through Hyderabad City and Warangal reaches the Calcutta-Madras line at Bezawada a total length of 330 miles. From Kazipet, near Warangal on this line, a new link to Bellarsah strikes north. Trains are now running as far as Ramagundam, a distance of nearly 58 miles, and the rest of the line will be opened during the present year. From Secunderabad, the metre gauge Godavari Valley railway runs north-west for 336 miles to Mannam on the main line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Calcutta. A metre gauge line also runs south from Secunderabad through Mahbubnagar nearly to the border and is now being linked up with Kurnool on the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Thus, with branch lines, there are now 525 miles of broad gauge and 531 of the metre gauge in the State. The Barak Light Railway also owns a short extension from Kurdwadi on the Bombay-Madras line to Kurnool in Nizamabad District. The railway system is well-developed but H. E. H.'s Government has provided a large proportion of the capital outlay and has the option of purchase at stated intervals, the earliest of which is in the year 1934. The road system is incomplete at present but is being rapidly extended on a well-considered programme.

EDUCATION.—The Osmania University at Hyderabad imparts instruction in all the faculties through the medium of Urdu, English being taught as a compulsory language and it has one First Grade College and four Intermediate Colleges. The Nizam College at Hyderabad (first grade), is, however, affiliated to the Madras University. In 1924-25 the total number of Educational Institutions rose from 5,556 (1918-19) to 4,901, the number of Primary Schools in particular having been largely increased.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.
Sir Kishan Pershad
Sakunath, C.O.L.B.,
Dowlat Bahadur, E.
tary Departments M.
Bahadur, C.I.E., O.S.
Hydar Nawaz Jung
Member; Lt.-Col.
O.E.S., Revenue and
Sir Amin Jung Bahadur, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., LL.D.,
Law Member; Nawab Asaf Jung Bahadur,
Public Works Member; and Nawab Sir Faridooz
Mulk Bahadur, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., Extra-
ordinary Member.

BRITISH RESIDENT.—The Hon'ble Sir William
P. Barton, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

MYSORE.

The State of Mysore is surrounded on all sides by the Madras Presidency except on the north and the north-west where it is bounded by the districts of Dharwar and North Canara respectively and towards the south-west by Coorg. It is naturally divided into two regions of distinct character; the hill country (the malnad) on the west and the wide spreading valleys and plains (the maidan) on the east. The State has an area of 29,469 square miles excluding that of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore and a population of 5,978,892 of whom over 92 per cent. are Hindus. Kannada is the distinctive language of the State.

HISTORY.—The ancient history of the country is varied and interesting. Tradition connects the table land of Mysore with many a legend enshrined in the great Indian epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Coming down to historical times, the north-eastern portion of the country formed part of Asoka's Empire in the third century B.C. Mysore then came under the rule of the Andhra dynasty. From about the third to the eleventh century A.D. Mysore was ruled by three dynasties, the north-western portion by the Kadambas, the eastern and northern portions by the Pallavas and the central and the southern portions by the Gangas. In the eleventh century, Mysore formed part of Chola dominion, but the Cholas were driven out early in the twelfth century by the Hoysalas, an indigenous dynasty with its capital at Halebki. The Hoysala power came to an end in the early part of the fourteenth century. Mysore was next connected with the Vijayanagar empire. At the end of the fourteenth century Mysore became associated with the present ruling dynasty. At first tributary to the dominant empire of Vijayanagar, the dynasty attained its independence after the downfall of Vijayanagar in 1565. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the real sovereignty passed into the hands of Hyder Ali and then his son, Tippu Sultan. In 1769, on the fall of Seringapatam, the British Government restored the State comprised within its present limits, to the ancient dynasty in the person of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wadayar Bahadur III. Owing to the insurrections that broke out in some parts of the country the management was assumed by the British Government in 1831. In 1881 the State was restored to the dynasty in the person of Sri Chamarajendra Wadayar Bahadur under conditions and stipulations laid down in the Instrument of Transfer. That ruler with the assistance of Mr. (afterwards Sir) K. Seshadri Iyer, K.C.S.I., as Dewan, brought Mysore to a State of great prosperity. He died in 1894, and was succeeded by the present Maharaja Colonel Sir Sri Krishnarajendra Wadayar Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., who was installed in 1902. In November 1913 the Instrument of Transfer was replaced by a Treaty which indicates more appropriately the relation subsisting between the British Government and the State of Mysore.

ADMINISTRATION.—The City of Mysore is the Capital of the State, but Bangalore City is the Administrative headquarters. His Highness the Maharaja is the ultimate authority in the

State, and the administration is conducted under his control, by the Dewan and three Members of Council. The Chief Court consisting of three Judges is the highest Judicial tribunal in the State. There are two constitutional Assemblies, in the State—the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Representative Assembly was established in 1881 by an executive order of Government, and its powers and functions have been increased from time to time by similar orders of Government. Under the scheme of constitutional developments announced in October 1923 the Representative Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis and given a definite place in the constitution by the promulgation of the Representative Assembly Regulation XVIII of 1923. The franchise has been extended and the disqualification of women on the ground of sex, from exercising the right to vote has been removed. The privilege of moving resolutions on the general principles and policy underlying the budget and on matters of public administration has been granted in addition to those already enjoyed of making representations about wants and grievances and of interpellating Government. The Assembly is also to be consulted on all proposals for the levy of new taxes and on the general principles of all measures of legislation before their introduction into the Legislative Council. Besides the Budget Session (formerly Birthday Session) and the Dasara Session, provision has been made for one or more special sessions of the Assembly to be summoned by Government when the State or public business demands it.

The strength of the Legislative Council has been raised from 30 to 50, of whom 20 are official and 30 are non-official members. The Council which exercised the privileges of interpellation, discussion of the State Budget and the moving of the resolutions on all matters of public administration is, under the reformed constitution, granted the powers of voting on the demands for grants. The Dewan is the *Ex officio* President of both the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council has also a Public Accounts Committee which examines all audit and appropriation reports and brings to the notice of Council all deviations from the wishes of the Council as expressed in its Budget grant.

STANDING COMMITTEES.—With a view to enlarge the opportunities of non-official representatives of the people to influence the every day administration of the State three Standing Committees consisting of Members of the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, have been formed, one in connection with Railway, Electrical and P. W. Departments, one in connection with Local Self-Government and the Departments of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health and the third in connection with Finance and Taxation.

All the important branches of the administration are controlled by separate Heads of Departments. The combatant strength of the Military Force at the end of 1926-27 was 2,270 of which 301 were in the Mysore *Lancers* 122 in the

Mysore Horse 00 n he T nsp L C p and f ARCES The actna o a rec pts and
be ena alog 3 n nant The d bu emen s chard to Re enue for the past
to a annua cost s about 66 884 Th a e a s ge he. with the revised budget est
of the Police Adminst a n du n 19 28, made for 1926-27 and budget for 1927-28 were
ub n e n n h et 16 lakhs. as below :—

Year.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Surplus.	Deficit.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22	3,12,05,380	3,27,45,479	— 15,40,090
1922-23	3,30,70,534	3,30,47,807	+22,637	
1923-24	3,32,67,262	3,32,02,060	+55,202	
1924-25	3,39,62,290	3,59,35,870	+26,420	
1925-26 (Acct.) ..	3,46,36,960	3,48,02,656	+34,324	
1926-27 (revised) ..	3,35,27,000	3,12,77,000	—7,50,000
1927-28 (budget). ..	3,40,16,000	3,30,90,000	+30,000	

AGRICULTURE.—Nearly three-fourths of the population are employed in agriculture, and the general system of land tenure is ryotwari. The principal food crops are ragi, rice, jola, millets, gram and sugar cane, and the chief fibres are cotton and sun-hemp. Nearly fifty thousand acres are under mulberry, the silk industry being the most profitable in Mysore next to Gold Mining. The Government of Mysore has in 1913 organised a Department of Agriculture.

Commerce Department. Arrangements are being made for the supply of disease-free seed, and a central and five taluk popular schools have been doing good work. The Department of Agriculture is engaged on scientific investigations.

Agricultural Farms at Hebbal. Bahhur (near Rinyur Marthur and Balchannur. A live-stock section has been organised which has been taking necessary steps for the improvement of live-stock.

INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE.—A Department of Industries and Commerce was organised in 1913 with a view to the development of Industries and Commerce in the State. Its main functions are stimulating private enterprise by the offer of technical advice and other assistance for starting new industries, undertaking experimental work for pioneering industries and developing existing industries and serving as a general bureau of information in industrial and commercial matters. The sandal-wood oil factory started on an experimental basis is now working on a commercial scale. A factory is working at Bangalore, and another at Mysore. A large plant at a cost of more than 170 lakhs of rupees has been constructed at Bhadravathi for purposes of manufacturing charcoal, pig-iron, distilling wood-alcohol, and developing subsidiary

industries. The works are on the borders of an extensive forest area and practically at the foot of the hills containing rich deposits of iron, manganese and bauxite, and are not far from the Gersappa Water Falls estimated to be capable of producing 100,000 horsepower of electric energy.

EDUCATION.—A separate University for Mysore was established on the 1st July 1916. It is of the teaching and residential type composed of the Central Engineering and Medical Colleges at Bangalore and the Maharaja's and Maharani's Colleges at Mysore, with headquarters at Mysore. The colleges are efficiently equipped and organised and there is a training college for men located at Mysore. The Maharani's College at Mysore is a College for Women.

With the introduction of compulsory education in select centres and the increase in the number of village schools, primary education has during recent years made considerable advance. Schools have been started for imparting instruction in agricultural, commercial, engineering and other technical subjects. There were altogether in 1925-26 6,898 public and 1,173 private educational institutions in the State. This gives one school to every 2.65 square miles of the area and to every 726 of the population.

Resident in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of Coorg.—The Hon. Mr. G. E. Pears, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Deewan.—Amir-ul-Mulk Mirza Mahomed Ismail, C.I.E., C.S.I.

Members of the Executive Council.—The Hon. Mr. A. S. First Member of Council. The Hon. Mr. B. S. Second Member of Council and C. C. Bainswara Third Member of Council.

BARODA

The State of Baroda is situated partly in Gujarat and partly in Kathiawar. It is divided into four district blocks: (1) the southern district of Navsari near the mouth of the Tapi river, and mostly surrounded by British territory; (2) central district, North of the Narmada, in which lies Baroda, the capital city, (3) to the North of Ahmedabad, the district of Kadi; and (4) to the West, in the Peninsula of Kathiawar, the district of Amreli, formed of scattered tracts of land. The area of the State is 8,135 square miles; the population is 2,126,523 of whom over four-fifths are Hindus.

HISTORY.—The history of the Baroda State as such dates from the break-up of the Mughal Empire. The first Maratha invasion of Gujarat took place in 1705. In later expeditions Pilaji Gaikwar, who may be considered as the founder of the present ruling family, greatly distinguished himself. Songhad was the headquarters till 1706. After 1723 Pilaji regularly levied tribute in Gujarat. His son Damaji finally captured Baroda in 1734, since then it has always been in the hands of the Gaikwars; but Mughal authority in Gujarat did not end until the fall of Ahmedabad in 1758, after which the country was divided between the Gaikwar and the Peshwa. In spite of the fact that Damaji was one of the Maratha chiefs defeated at Panipat by Ahmed Shah, he continued to add to his territory. He died in 1763, leaving the succession in dispute between two rival sons. He was succeeded in turn by his sons Sayaji Rao I, Fattasing Rao, Manaji Rao and Govind Rao. The last died in 1800, and was succeeded by Anand Rao. A period of political instability ensued which was ended in 1802 by the help of the Bombay Government, who established the authority of Anand Rao at Baroda. By a treaty of 1805 between the British Government and Baroda, it was arranged *inter alia* that the foreign policy of the State should be conducted by the British, and that all differences with the Peshwa should be summarily arranged. Baroda was a staunch ally of the British during the wars with Baji Rao Peshwa, the Pindari hordes and Holkar. But from 1820 to 1841, when Sayaji Rao II was Gaikwar, differences arose between the two Governments, which were settled by Sir James Carnar, Governor of Bombay, in 1841. Ganpat Rao succeeded Sayaji Rao in 1847. During his rule, the political supervision of Baroda was transferred to the Supreme Government. His successor Khande Rao, who ascended the *Gad* in 1856, introduced many reforms. He stood by the British in the Mutiny. He was succeeded by his brother Malhar Rao in 1870. Malhar Rao was deposed in 1875 for "notorious misconduct" and "gross misgovernment," but the suggestion that he had instigated the attempt to poison Col. Phayre, the Resident, was not proved. Sayaji Rao III, a boy of 13 years of age, who was descended from a distant branch of the family, was adopted as heir of Khande Rao in 1875 and is the present Gaikwar. He was invested with full powers in 1881.

ADMINISTRATION.—An executive council consisting of the principal officers of the State carries on the administration, subject to the control of the Maharaja, who is assisted by a Dewan and other officers. A number of departments have been formed, which are presided over by officials corresponding to those in British India. The State is divided into four *prants*, each of which is sub-divided into *Mahals* and *Peta Mahals* of which there are in all 42. Attempts have for some years been made to restore village autonomy, and village panchayats have been formed which form part of a scheme for local self-government. There is a Legislative Department, under a Legal Remembrancer, which is responsible for making laws. There is also a Legislative Council consisting of nominated and elected members. A High Court at Baroda possesses jurisdiction over the whole of the State and hears all final appeals. From the decisions of the High Court, appeals lie in certain cases, to the Maharaja who decides them on the advice of the Huzur Nyaya Sabha. The State Army consists of 5,086 Regular forces and 3,806 Irregular forces.

FINANCE.—In 1925-26, the total receipts of the State were Rs. 2,37,06,786 and the disbursements Rs. 1,97,73,245. The principal Revenue heads were:—Land Revenue, Rs. 1,13,27,143; Abkari, Rs. 35,97,795; Opium, Rs. 6,30,932; Railways, Rs. 14,11,000; Interest, Rs. 15,18,463. Tribute from other States, Rs. 6,16,852. British Currency was introduced in 1901.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY.—Agriculture and pasture support 63 per cent. of the people. The principal crops are rice, wheat, gram, castor-oil, rapeseed, poppy, cotton, sun-hemp tobacco, sugarcane, maize, and garden crops. The greater part of the State is held on *ryotwari* tenure. The State contains few minerals except sandstone, which is quarried at Sonar and a variety of other stones which are little worked. There are 86 industrial or commercial concerns in the State registered under the State Companies' Act. There are four Agricultural Banks and 731 Co-operative Societies in the Baroda State.

COMMUNICATIONS.—The B. B. & C. I. Railway crosses part of the Navsari and Baroda *prants*, and the Rajputana-Malwa Railway passes through the Kadi *prant*. A system of branch lines has been built by the Baroda Durbar in all the four *prants*, in addition to which the Tapi Valley Railway and the Baroda-Godhra Chord line (B. B. & C. I.) pass through the State. The Railways constructed by the State are about 669 miles in length. Good roads are not numerous.

EDUCATION.—The Education Department controls 2,976 institutions of different kinds, in 75 of which English is taught. The Baroda College is affiliated to the Bombay University. There are a number of high schools, technical schools, and schools for special classes, such as the jungle tribes and uncivil castes. The State is "in a way pledged to the policy of free and compulsory primary education." It maintains a system of rural and travelling

Baroda City of the population returned in the census as follows: Total population 94,712.

Baroda City Baroda City, which contains a population of 94,712. It contains a public park, a number of fine public buildings, palaces and offices; and it is crowded with Hindu temples. The cantonment is to the north-west of the city and is garrisoned by an infantry battalion of the Indian Army. An

Impoverished town has been formed to work a Baroda City and has set itself an ambitious programme.

Ruler.—His Highness Farzand-i-Khas-i-Dowlat-i-Englishtia Maharaja Sir Sayaji Rao Gaskwar Sena Khas Khel, Samsher Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., M.D., Maharaja of Baroda. Resident.—Lt.-Col. R. J. C. Burke (Offg.). Dewan.—Rao Bahadur V. T. Krishnamachari, C.I.E.

BALUCHISTAN AGENCY.

In this Agency lies the State of Kalat with its feudatory State of Las Bela.

Kalat is bounded on the North by the Chagai district, on the East by Sindh and the Marri-Bugti tribal territories, on the South by the Arabian Sea and on the West by Persia.

The State includes the tribal territories of the Chiefs of the Brahui Confederacy of which the Khan of Kalat is Head. The divisions of the State are, Sarawan or the Highlands, Jhalawar or the Lowlands, Kachhi, Makran, the Khanate of Kharan and the feudatory State of Las Bela. The inhabitants are for the most part Brahuis or Baluch, both being Muhammadans of the Sunni sect. The area of Kalat with Las Bela is 50,410 sq. miles. The country is sparsely inhabited, the total population being about 378,000.

The relations of Kalat with the British Government are governed by the treaties of 1854 and 1876, by the latter of which the independence of Kalat was recognized, while the Khan agreed to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. There are also agreements with Kalat in connection with the construction of the Indo-European telegraph line, the cession of the Kalat and the Bolan Pass, and the recent leases of Quetta,

The Khan is assisted in the administration of the State by a Wazir-i-Azam, at present a retired officer of the British service. The Governor-General's Agent in Baluchistan conducts the relations between the Government of India and the Khan, and exercises general political supervision over the State. The revenue of the State is about Rs. 16,80,000, out of which the Khan retains a civil list of Rs. 3,50,000 per annum. The present Khan is His Highness Beglar Begi Sir Mir Mahmud Khan of Kalat, G.C.I.E. He was born in 1864.

Las Bela is a small State under the suzerainty of Kalat. The Hub river for the Southern part of its course forms the Eastern boundary with Sind, and the greater part of the State consists of the valley and the delta of the Purai river. Area 7,128 square miles; population 50,000, chiefly S. The estimated average annual rainfall is 2,70,000. The Chief of the State, the Khan, is bound by agreement with the British Government to appoint an approved Wazir, to whose advice he is subject and who assists him generally in the transaction of State business.

Agent to the Governor-General for Baluchistan.—Hon'ble Mr. F. W. Johnston, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

RAJPUTANA AGENCY.

Rajputana is the name of a great territorial circle with a total area of about 131,668 square miles, which includes 19 Indian States, one chiefship, and the small British district of Ajmer-Merwara. It is bounded on the west by Sind, on the north-west by the Punjab State of Bahawalpur, on the north and north-east by the Punjab, on the east by the United Provinces and Gwalior, while the southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line. Of the Indian States 17 are Rajput, 2 (Bharatpur and Dholpur) are Jat, and one (Tonk) is Mahomedan. The Chief administrative control of the British district is vested ex-officio in the political officer, who holds the post of Governor-General's Agent for the supervision of the relations between the several Indian States of Rajputana and the Government of India. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups:—Bikaner, Sirohi and Jhalwar in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor-General; Eastern Rajputana Agency States (Bharatpur, Dholpur, Karauli, Alwar and Kotah), Bharatpur

and Tonk Agency, 3 States (Bundi, Shahpura and Tonk) and the Chiefship of Shappura; Jaipur Residency, 2 States (principal State, Jaipur); Mewar Residency and Southern Rajputana States Agency, 3 States (principal State, Banswara) and the Kumbhalgarh Chiefship; Western Rajputana States Residency, 2 States (principal State, Marwar).

The Aravalli Hills intersect the country almost from end to end. The tract to the north-west of the hills is, as a whole, sandy, ill-watered and unproductive, but improves gradually from being a mere desert in the far west to comparatively fertile lands to the north-east. To the south-east on the Aravalli Hills lie higher and more fertile regions which contain extensive hill ranges and which are traversed by considerable rivers.

COMMUNICATIONS.—The total length of railways in Rajputana is 1,576 miles, of which 72 are the property of the British Government. The R. B. & C. I. (Metre-gauge) (Government)

runs from Ahmedabad to Bandikui and from there branches to Agra and Delhi. Of the Indian State railways the most important are the Jodhpur and Bikaner lines from Marwar Junction to Hyderabad (Sind) and to Bikaner.

INHABITANTS.—Over 50 per cent. of the population are engaged in some form of agriculture; about 20 per cent. of the total population are maintained by the preparation and supply of material substances, personal and domestic service provides employment for about 5 per cent. and commerce for 2½ per cent. of the population. The principal language is Rajasthani. Among castes and tribes, the most numerous are the Brahmans, Jats, Mahajans, Chamars, Rajputs, Minas, Gujars, Bhils, Malis and Balais. The Rajputs are, of course, the aristocracy of the country, and as such hold the land to a very large extent, either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. By reason of their position as integral families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India; and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a tribe or clan (as distinguished from a caste) in India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rajput stocks.

The population and area of the States are as follows:—

Name of State.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1921.
<i>In direct Political relations with A. G. G.—</i>		
Bikaner	23,315	659,635
Sirohi	1,958	186,639
Jhalawar	810	96,182
<i>Mewar Residency—</i>		
Udaipur	12,758	1,380,063
<i>Southern Rajputana States Agency—</i>		
Banswara	1,806	190,362
Dungarpur	1,447	189,272
Partabgarh	888	67,110
Kushalgarh	340	29,162
<i>(Chiefship)</i>		
<i>Western States Residency—</i>		
Jodhpur	34,963	1,841,642
Jaisalmer	16,062	67,652
<i>Jaispur Residency—</i>		
Jaipur	15,379	2,338,802
Kishangarh	858	77,734
Lawa	19	2,262
<i>Bharoti-Tonk Agency—</i>		
Bundi	2,220	187,068
Tonk	2,558	287,398
Shahpura	405	48,130
<i>Eastern States Agency—</i>		
Bharatpur	1,083	496,437
Dholpur	1,155	229,734
Karauli	1,242	133,730
Alwar	3,241	701,154
Kotah	5,684	630,060

Udaipur State (also called Mewar) was founded in about 646 A.D. The capital city of Udaipur, which is beautifully situated on the slope of a low ridge, the summit of which is crowned by His Highness the Maharana's palaces, and to the north and west, houses extend to the banks of a beautiful piece of water known as the Pichola Lake in the middle of which stand two island palaces. It is situated near the terminus of the Udaipur-Chitor Railway, 697 miles north of Bombay. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana Sir Fateh Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., who was born in 1849 and succeeded in 1884. He is the head of the Mewar or Chitrali branch of the Rajput family of the Maharana of Udaipur, and is the head of the Mewar powers.

The revenue and expenditure of the State are now about 45 and 48 lakhs a year respectively. Udaipur is to be rich in minerals which are little worked. Its archaeological remains are numerous, and stone inscriptions dating from the third century have been found.

Banswara State is the southernmost State of Rajputana within the Political Agency of the Southern Rajputana States. The area of the State is 1,946 square miles, and population 219,824 souls, including Patta Kushalgarh. It is thus in regard to size eleventh among the States of Rajputana. Banswara with Dungarpur originally formed a country known as Bagar, which was, from the beginning of the 13th century until about the year 1529, held by certain Rajput Chiefs of the Ghelot or Sisodia clan, who claimed descent from an elder branch of the family now ruling in Udaipur. After the death of Udai Singh, the ruler of Bagar, his territory was divided between his two sons, Prithi Singh and Jagmal Singh, about 1529, and the descendants of the two families are the present Chiefs of Dungarpur and Banswara. Where the town of Banswara now stands there was a large Bhil pal or colony under a powerful Bhil Chieftain, named Wasna, who was defeated and slain by Jagmal about 1530. The name Banswara is by tradition said to be a corruption of Wasnawara or the country of Wasna. Others assert that the word means the country (*warra*) of bamboos (*bans*). Nearly three centuries after its foundation by Jagmal, Maharawal Brij Singh, anxious to get rid of the supremacy of the Mahrattas, offered to become a tributary to the British Government. In 1818 a definite treaty was made with his successor, Maharawal Umed Singh. Banswara has been described as the most beautiful portion of Rajputana; it looks at its best just after rains. The principal rivers are the Mahi, the Anas, the Eran, the Chap and the Haran.

The present Chief is His Highness Rai Rayan Maharawal Sahib Shree Prithi Singhji Bahadur who was born on July 15, 1888, and is the 21st in descent from Maharawal Jagmal Singhji. His Highness was educated in the Mayo College and succeeded his father in 1912. His Highness is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The State is ruled by the Maharawal with the assistance of the Diwan and the Judicial and Legislative Council, of which the Diwan is the President. The Revenue of the State is about 9 lakhs and the normal expenditure is about the same.

Dewan :—Mr. N. Bhattacharyya, M.A.

Dungarpur State, with Banswara, formerly comprised the country called the Bagar. It was invaded by the Mahabharatas in 1818. As in other States inhabited by hill tribes, it became necessary at an early period of British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhils. The State represents the *Gad* of the elder branch of the Sisodiyas and dates its separate existence from about the close of the 12th Century. Samant Singh, King of Chitor, when driven away by Kirtipal of Jalor, fled to Bagad and killed Ghowrasimal, Chief of Baroda, and founded the State of Dungarpur. The present Chief is His Highness Rai Rayan Maharawal Shri Lakshman Singhji born on 7th March 1908 and succeeded on 15th November 1918. His Highness being minor, is on the supervision of the Executive of the Southern Rajputana States. No railway line crosses the territory, the nearest railway station, Udaipur, being 65 ml distant. Revenue about 6½ lakhs.

Partabgarh State, also called the Kanthal, was founded in the sixteenth century by a descendant of Rana Mokal of Mewar. The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1698 by Partab Singh. In the time of Jaswant Singh (1770-1844), the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar a tribute of *Sakm Shahi* Rs. 72,700 (which then being coined in the State Mint was legal tender throughout the surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs. 15,000 formerly paid to Delhi. The first connexion of the State with the British Government was formed in 1804; but the treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord Cornwallis, and a fresh treaty by which the State was taken under protection was made in 1818. The tribute to Holkar is paid through the British Government, and in 1904 was converted to Rs. 80,350 British currency. The present ruler is His Highness Maharawat Sri Raghunath Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., who was born in 1859 and succeeded in 1890. The State is governed by the Maharawat with the help of the Dewan, and, in judicial matters, of a Committee of eleven members styled the Raj Sabha or State Council. Revenue about 6 lakhs; expenditure nearly 5 lakhs. The financial administration is under the direct supervision of the State.

Jodhpur State, the largest in Rajputana also called Marwar, consists largely of sandy country. The Maharaja of Jodhpur is the head of the Rathor Clan of Rajputs and claims descent from Rama, the deified king of Ayodhya. The earliest known king of the clan lived in the sixth century from which time onwards their history is fairly clear. After the breaking up of their Kingdom at Kanauj they founded this State about 1212 and the foundations of Jodhpur City were laid in 1459 by Rao Jodha. The State entered into a treaty of alliance with the British Government in 1818. Jaswant Singh succeeded in 1873 and reformed the State. His son Sardar Singh was invested with powers in 1898, the minority rule having been carried on by his uncle Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh. He died in 1911 and was suc-

ceeded by his eldest son Maharaja Sumer Singh Bahadur, who was then 14 years of age. The administration of the State was carried on by a Council of Regency, presided over by General Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh. On the outbreak of the European War both the Maharaja and the Regent offered their services and were allowed to proceed to the Front. The young Maharaja was, for his services at the Front, honoured with an Honorary Majority in the British Army and K.B.E. and was invested with full ruling powers in 1918 and died on 3rd October 1918. He was succeeded by his younger brother Major Maharaja Sir Umed Singh Sahab Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., who on attaining majority, has taken over charge of the administration from the 27th January 1923. Revenue Rs. 1,20,00,000; expenditure Rs. 100 lakhs.

Jaisalmer State is one of the largest States in Rajputana and covers an area of 16,062 square miles. The Rulers of Jaisalmer belong to the Jadon clan and are the direct descendants of Krishna. Jaisalmer City was founded in 1156, and the State entered into an alliance of perpetual friendship with the British Government in 1818. In 1844 after the British conquest of Sind the forts of Shahgarh, Garsia and Ghotaru, which had formerly belonged to Jaisalmer, were restored to the State. The present Ruling Prince is His Highness Maharajadhiraja Maharawal Shri Sir Jawahar Singhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I. Revenue about four lakhs.

Sirohi State is much broken up by hills of which the main feature is Mount Abu, 5,650 feet. The Chiefs of Sirohi are Deora Rajputs, a branch of the famous Chauhan clan which furnished the last Hindu kings of Delhi. The present capital of Sirohi was built in 1425. The city suffered in the eighteenth century from the wars with Jodhpur and the depredations of wild Mina tribes. Jodhpur claimed suzerainty over Sirohi but this was disallowed and British protection was granted in 1823. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharao Shri Sir Sarup Ram Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I. The State is ruled by the Maharao with the assistance of Ministers and other officials. Revenue about 10½ lakhs; expenditure 10 lakhs.

Jaipur is the fourth largest State in Rajputana. It consists for the most part of level and open country. It was known to the ancients as Matsya Desh, and was the kingdom of the King Virata mentioned in the Mahabharata, in whose court, the five Pandava brothers during their last period of exile resided. Bharat in the Jaipur State has been identified.

The Maharaja of Jaipur is the head of the Kuehawa clan of Rajputs, which claims descent from Kush, son of Rama, King of Ayodhya, the famous hero of the famous epic poem, the Ramayana. This dynasty in Eastern Rajputana dates as far back as ninth century A.D. Dulha Rai, one of its most early rulers, made Amber the capital of the State in 1037 A.D. About the end of 12th century one of the rulers Pajun at the head of the army of Prithvi Raj, Emperor of Delhi, defeated Shahabuddin Ghori in the Khyber Pass and pursued him as far as Ghazni. Prithvi Raj had given his sister in marriage to him. History of India records several distinguished rulers of Jaipur from

amongst whom the following require particular mention. Man Singh, 1590-1615. He was a victorious general, intrepid commander and tactful administrator, whose fame had spread throughout the country. During most troublous times, he maintained imperial authority in Kabul and was the brilliant character of Akber's time. Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh II (1700—44) was the first town planner in India. He removed the capital of the State to Jaipur, so named after him. During his time, the State acquired great power and fame. He was a great mathematician and scientist of his age, and is famous for his astronomical observatories which he built at several important centres in India. His court was visited by foreign astronomers. Maharaja Sawai Ram Singh, 1835-1880. He was one of the most enlightened princes in India at that time. He encouraged art and learning. He embellished the city in various ways and improved the administration and material condition of the people. Maharaja Sawai Madho Singh II, 1880-1922. He was a very wise and intelligent ruler who followed in the foot-steps of his father. He maintained and steadily improved all the useful measures initiated by the late Maharaja. His administration is characterized by great liberality, catholicity and a broad outlook on affairs. His deep religious devotion and piety and unrivalled generosity and genuine and active sympathy are well known. His staunch loyalty and maintenance of the traditions of his house raised him in the estimation of the paramount power. He passed away after a long reign of 41 years. His late Highness' donations and subscriptions to works of charity are enormous and too numerous to detail. His Highness the present Maharaja Sawai Man Singh II Bahadur was born on 21st August 1911. He was adopted by His late Highness on 24th March 1921. He is a scion of the Rajawat House of Isarda, and ascended the gadi on the 7th September 1922, and was married to the Sister of the present Maharajah of Jodhpur on the 30th January 1924. He is studying at the Mayo College and promises to be an ideal ruler having given abundant evidence already of the keen and sympathetic interest he takes in all that concerns the welfare of his people and mankind in general.

During the minority of the present Ruling Prince, the administration is carried on by a Council of State. A Chief Court of Judicature was established in 1924. The army consists of Cavalry, Infantry, Transport and Artillery. 1921, and 1921, In
area. It is 15,379 Sq. miles

Kishangarh State is in the centre of Rajputana and consists practically of two narrow strips of land separated from each other with an area of 858 square miles (population 77,734), the northern mostly sandy, the southern generally flat and fertile. The Ruling Princes of Kishangarh belong to the Rathor clan of Rajputs and are descended from Maharaja Kishan Singh (second son of Maharaja Udai Singh of Jodhpur) who founded the town of Kishangarh in 1611. The present ruler is His Highness Umaid Rajhai

Buland Makan Maharajah Dhiraj Dikshit Yagnan Singh, Bahadur. He was born on the 26th January, 1896, and was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination. He was married to the sister of Raja Bahadur Maksudangarh in May, 1915, and a son Maharajkumar Yateendra Singhji was born of this marriage on the 5th May, 1916. He went to England and travelled on the Continent with His Late Highness in 1921. On the demise of His Late Highness on 25th September 1926, he succeeded to the Gaddi on the 24th November, 1926. He administers the State with the help of a Council. Revenue about 9 lakhs and expenditure 8 lakhs.

Lawa State, or Chief of Rajputana is a separate chieftship under the protection of the British Government and independent of any Native States. It formerly belonged to Jaipur and then became part of the State of Tonk. In 1867, the Nawab of Tonk murdered the Thakur's uncle and his followers, and Lawa was then raised to its present State. The Thakurs of Lawa belonged to the Naruka sect of the Kachwaha Rajputs. The present Thakur, Raghubir Singh, was born in 1899, and succeeded to the estate in January 1923. Revenue about Rs. 20,000.

Bundi State is a mountainous territory in the south-east of Rajputana. The Ruler of Bundi is the head of the Hara sect of the great clan of Chauhan Rajputs and the country occupied by this sect has for the last five or six centuries been known as Haroti. The State was founded in the early part of the thirteenth century and constant feuds with Mewar and Malwa followed. It threw in its lot with the Mahmudan emperors in the sixteenth century. In later times it was constantly ravaged by the Marathas and Pindaries and came under British protection in 1915 at which time it was paying tribute to Holkar. The present ruler of the State—which is administered by the Maharao Raja and a Council of 11 in an old-fashioned but popular manner—is His Highness Maharao Raja Sir Raghubir Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.O.V.O., G.O.S.I. He was born in 1869 and succeeded in 1889. Revenue about 12 lakhs; Expenditure nearly the same.

Tonk State—Partly in Rajputana and partly in Central India, consists of six Parganas separated from one another. The ruling family belongs to the Salazai Clan of the Bunerwal Afghan tribe. The founder of the State was Nawab Mahomed Amir Khan Bahadur, General of Holkar's Army from 1798-1806. Holkar bestowed grants of land on him in Rajputana and Central India and the land so granted him was ratified by the peace made between the British and the Chiefs of Rajputana in 1817 and was consolidated in to the present State. His grandson was deposed. The present ruler of the State is His Highness Amirud-Doula Wazirul-Mulk Nawab Sir Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur, G.O.S.I., G.C.I.E., ascended the masnad in 1866. The administration is conducted by the Nawab assisted by a Council of four members viz:—(1) Captain W. F. Webb, I. A., Revenue Member and Vice-President; (2) Captain N. D. O. Toole, Judicial Member; (3) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Muhammad Ishaque Khan; Home Member; and (4) Sahibzada Abdul Wahab Khan,

Financial Member Revenue Rs. 23,85,786. Expenditure Rs. 29,81,180.

Shahpura State.—The ruling family belongs to the Sersooki Clan of Rajputs. The State came into existence about 1629 when the Pargana of Panolia was granted by the Mughal Emperor Shah-Jehan to Maharaj Surjan Singh, a son of Maharaj Surajmal, the second son of Maharaja Amar Singh of Udaipur. Later on Raja Rana Singhji received the pargana of Kachhola from the Maharaja of Udaipur and was recognised as a great noble of the Mewar State.

The present Ruler is Raja Dhiraj Sir Nabar Singhji, K.C.I.E. The State enjoys permanent honour of 9 guns salute.

Bharatpur State.—Consists largely of an immense alluvial plain, watered by the Banganga and other rivers.

The present ruling family of Bharatpur are Jats, of the Sisaniwar clan who trace their pedigree to the eleventh century. The family derives its name from its old village Sisani. Bharatpur was the first State in Rajputana that made alliance with the British Government in 1803. It helped Lord Lake with 5,000 horse in his conquest of Agra and battle of Laswari wherein the Maratha power was entirely broken and received 5 districts as reward for the service. In 1804, however, Bharatpur sided with Jaswant Rao Holkar against the British Government which resulted in a war. Peace was re-established in 1805 under a treaty of alliance and it continues in force. The Gadi being usurped by Darjan Sai in 1825, the British Government took up the cause of the rightful heir Maharaja Balwant Singh Shahi. Bharatpur was besieged by Lord Combermere, and as the faithful subjects of the State also made common cause with the British Army the usurper was quickly disposed of, and Maharaja Balwant Singh, the rightful heir to the throne, came into his own. Bharatpur also rendered valuable service to the British Government during the Mutiny. During the great War the Bharatpur Durbar gave valuable help to the Imperial Government. The Bharatpur Imperial Service Infantry served in East Africa and the Mule Transport Corps served in all theatres of war except Africa. The following are among the most important contributions made by the State during the great war: (1) reinforcement sent to E. Africa for the Imperial Service Infantry, 714 rank and file, and 64 followers; (2) reinforcements for the Imperial Service Transport Corps, 490 rank and file and 64 followers; (3) State subscriptions to war loans 20 lakhs; (4) State subscriptions to Imperial Indian Relief Funds, Soldiers' Comfort Fund, Aeroplane Fleet Fund, Lord Kitchener's Memorial Fund, St. John's Ambulance, Serbian Relief Fund, and Red Cross 2 lakhs; (5) public subscriptions to various war funds Rs. 28,000 and (6) public subscriptions to war bonds Rs. 69,000. Immediately upon their return from Europe the Bharatpur Transport Corps sent to the North West Frontier, and remained on active service there during the Afghan War. The Corps returned to Bharatpur at the conclusion of peace in February 1920. The present Chief is Colonel His Highness Shri Maharaja Brijendra Sawai Sir Kishen Singh Bahadur,

Bahadur Jung, K.C.S.I. who was born in 1899 and succeeded in the following year his father Maharaja Ram Singh, who was deposed. Revenue 50 lakhs.

Dholpur State.—The family of the ruling Chiefs of Dholpur belongs to the Bamrohan Jats, the adopted home of one of their ancestors. The family takes the name of Bamroli about the year 1367. They next migrated to Gwalior, where they took the part of the Rajputs in their struggles against the Emperor's Officers. Eventually the Bamroli Jats settled near Gohad and 1605 Surjan Deo assumed the title of Rana of Gohad. After the overthrow of the Mahrattas at Panipat, Rana Bhim Singh in 1761 possessed himself of the fortress of Gwalior but lost it six years later. In order to bar the encroachments of the Mahrattas, a treaty was made with the Rana in 1779 by the British Government under Warren Hastings, and the joint forces of the contracting parties re-took Gwalior. In the treaty of the 13th October 1781 between the British Government and Scindia, it was stipulated that so long as the Maharaj Rana observes his treaty with the English, Scindia should not interfere with his territories. The possession of Gohad however led to disputes between the British and Scindia, and in 1805 the Governor-General transferred Gwalior and Gohad to Scindia, and that of Dholpur, Bari, Baseri, Sepan and Rajakhara to Maharaj Rana Khat Singh. Maharaj Rana Kirat Singh died in 1836 and was succeeded by his son Maharaj Rana Bhagwant Singh on whose death in 1870 his grandson, the late Chief Maharaj Rana Nihal Singh, succeeded to the Gadi. Major His Highness Baisad-Paula Sipahdar-ul-Mulk Sarwar Rajah Hind Maharajadhiraj Sri Sawai Maharaj Rana Sri Udal Bhan Singh Lokhadra Bahadur Diver Jung Sri Doo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., the present ruler, is the second son of Maharaj Rana Nihal Singh and was born on the 12th February 1893. On the death of his brother Maharaj Rana Ram Singh His Highness succeeded to the gadi on March 1911. He was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination and won several prizes. After a short course of training in the Imperial Cadet Corps at Dehra Dun, His Highness went on a tour to Europe in 1912 and was invested with full ruling powers on the 9th October 1913.

By clan and family the Maharaj Rana is connected with the Jat Clans of Patania, Bind, Kabha and Bharatpur. His mother was the second sister of late Shahzada Rasdeo Singh Sahib Bahadur of the family of Maharaj Ranyt Singh of Lahore. His Highness is married to the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in the Bind State.

Karauli State.—A State in Rajputana under the Political control of the Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States Agency, lying between 26° and 27° north latitude and 76° 30' and 77° 30' east longitude. Area, 1,242 square miles. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior (Scindia's Territory) on the south-west it is bounded by Jaipur; and on the north-east by the States of Bharatpur, Jaipur and Dholpur. The State pays no tribute to Government. Languages spoken Hindi and Urdu.

Ruler—His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharaja Sir Bhanwar Pal, Deo Bahadur, Yadukul Chandra Bhal, G.O.I.E. Chief Member, State Council, Rao Sahab Pandit Shanker Nath Sharma.

Kotah State belongs to the Hara section, the clan of Chauhan Rajputs, and the early history of their house is, up to the 17th century, identical with that of the Bundi family from which they are an offshoot. Its existence as a separate State dates from 1625. It came under British protection in 1817. The present ruler is H. H. Lieut.-Colonel Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.O.I.E., G.B.E., who was born in 1873 and invested with full powers in 1896. In administration he is assisted by two members, Rai Bahadur Pandit Bishwambhar Nath, M.A., and Major-General Onkarsingh, C.I.F. The most important event of his rule has been the restoration, on the deposition of the late Chief of the Jhalawar State, of 15 out of the 17 districts which had been ceded in 1838 to form that principality. Revenue 53 lakhs : Expenditure 48 lakhs.

Jhalawar State consists of two separate tracts in the south-east of Rajputana. The ruling family belongs to the Jhala clan of Rajputs. The last ruler was deposed for part of the State was Kunwar Bhawani Singh, son of Fatehpur, was selected by Government to be the Ruler of the new State. He was born in 1874 and was created a K.C.S.I. in 1908. He is assisted in administration by a Cabinet, has established many useful institutions, and has done much to extend education in the State. Revenue 8 lakhs.

The Bikaner State in point of area is the 7th largest of all the Indian States and the second largest in Rajputana. The population of the State is 859,858 of whom 84 per cent. are Hindus, 11 per cent. Mohommadans and 1.5 per cent. Jains. The Capital City of Bikaner, with its population including the suburbs of 69,410, is the 3rd City in Rajputana.

The northern portion of the State consists of level loam land, whilst the remainder is for the most part sandy and undulating. The average rainfall is about 12 inches. The water level over most of the State is from 150 feet to 300 feet deep.

The Reigning Family of Bikaner is of the Rathore clan of Rajputs, and the State was founded in 1465 A.D. by Rao Bikaaji, son of Rao Jodhsaji, Ruler of Marwar (Jodhpur), and after him both the Capital and the State are named. Rai Singhji, the first to receive the title of Rajah, was "one of Akbar's most distinguished Generals" and it was during his reign that the present Fort of Bikaner was built in 1593. The title of Maharajah was conferred on Rajah Anup Singhji by the Moghal Emperor in 1687 in recognition of his distinguished services in the capture of Golconda. The conspicuous services of Maharajah Sardar Singhji who in the Indian Mutiny of 1857 personally led his troops to co-operate with the British forces in the field on the outbreak of the Mutiny was acknowledged by the Government of India by the transfer of the Sub-Tehsil of Tibi, consisting of 41 villages from the adjoining Sirsa Tehsil in the Punjab to the State.

The present Ruler, Major-General His Highness Maharajadhiraj Raj Rajeshwar Nitendra Shrivamanj Maharaja Sri Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.O.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C. L.D., is the 21st of a long line of distinguished rulers renowned for their bravery and statesmanship. He was born on the 3rd October 1880, and assumed full ruling powers in December, 1898. He was awarded the first class Kaiser-i-Hind Medal for the active part he took in relieving the famine of 1899-1900, and soon after he went on active service to China in connection with the China War of 1900-1901 in command of his famous Ganga Risala and was mentioned in despatches and received the China Medal and K.C.I.E. The State Forces consist of the Camel Corps, known as "Ganga Risala," whose sanctioned strength is 465 strong, an Infantry Regiment 418 strong, a Regiment of Cavalry 342 strong, including Body Guard, a Battery of Artillery (6 guns), and Camel Battery 60. At the outbreak of the Great War in 1914 His Highness immediately placed the services of himself and his State forces and all the resources of the State at the disposal of His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor, and the Ganga Risala reinforced by the Infantry Regiment which became incorporated in the Camel Corps in the field, rendered very valuable services in Egypt and Palestine. An extra force was also raised for internal security. His Highness personally went on active service in August 1914 and enjoys the honour of having fought both in France and Egypt, and thus has the distinction of having fought for the British Crown on three Continents, viz., Asia, Europe and Africa. He was mentioned in despatches both in Egypt and France. His Highness also played a very conspicuous political part during the period of the War when he went twice to Europe as the Representative of the Princes of India once in 1917 to attend the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, and again in 1918-19 to attend the Peace Conference where he was one of the signatories to the treaty of Versailles.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns (personal) whilst the permanent local salute of the State is also 19. His Highness has also had the honour of being elected the first Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, an office which he filled most creditably for 3 years till 1925.

His Highness is assisted in the administration of the State by the State Council consisting of 5 Ministers under a Prime Minister and Chief Councillor in the person of Sir Manubhai V. Mehta, Kt., C.S.I., M.A., LL.B., formerly the Dewan of the Baroda State. A Legislative Assembly was inaugurated in 1913, and consists of 45 Members, 18 out of whom are elected Members, and which meets twice a year.

The revenues of the State are over ninety lakhs of rupees and the State owns a large Railway system, the total mileage being 619.15. Several projects for its extension are under contemplation, including the new scheme of railway line connecting Delhi with Sindh and running through the Bikaner and Jaisalmer States. At present there is practically no irrigation in the State, the crops depending wholly on the scanty rainfall; but the Sutlej Canal Project which is now under construction will irrigate

604
 rom which it was suffered in the past. Even larger expectations are held out from the Bhakra Dam Project from which it is hoped that the remaining level lands in the north of the State will be irrigated. A coal mine is worked at Palana, 14 miles south from the Capital.

Alwar State is a hilly tract of land in the East of Rajputana. Its Rulers belong to the Lalawat Naruka branch of Kshatriyas, Solar Dynasty. This ruling family is descended from Raja Udai Karanji, who was the common ancestor of both Alwar and Jaipur. The State was founded by Pratab Singh, who before his death in 1791 had secured possession of large territories. His successor sent a force to co-operate with Lord Lake in the war of 1803 and an alliance was concluded with him in that year. Disputes about successions mark the history of the State during the earlier part of the nineteenth century. The present chief, H. H. Veerendra Shrivomaji Dev Col Shri Sewai Mahipal Sir Jy Singhji Bahadur, C.O.I.E., K.O.S.I., who was born in 1882, succeeded his father in 1892 and was invested with powers in 1903. He carries on the administration with the assistance of four Munshis, Members of His Illustrious Council and various heads of departments. The normal revenue and ex-

also the Imperial Service Troops which His Highness the late Maharaja was the first prince in Rajputana to offer (in 1888) in the defence of the Empire. Alwar stood first in recruiting in Rajputana at the time of the Great War and enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The capital is Alwar on the Rajputana-Malwa Railway, 98 miles west of Delhi.

RAJPUTANA.

Agent to Governor-General—The Hon. Mr. I. W. Reynolds, C.I.E., M. C.

UDAIPUR.

Resident—Col. G. D. Ogilby, C.I.E.

JAIPUR.

Resident—A. N. L. Coker.

EASTERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Political Agent—Lieut. Col. H. R. N. Pritchard, C.B.E.

WESTERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Resident—Lt. Col. H. S. Strong.

HARIOTI AND TONE.

Political Agent—Lt. Col. R. J. Macnabb

SOUTHERN RAJPUTANA STATES

Political Agent—D G Mackenzie.

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY.

Central India Agency is the name given to the country occupied by the Indian States grouped together under the supervision of the Political Officer who is designated the Agent to the Governor-General in Central India with headquarters at Indore. As constituted in 1921—that is, after the separation of the Gwalior Presidency—it is an irregularly formed tract lying in two sections, the Eastern comprising Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand Agencies between 22°-35' and 20°-19' North and 78°-10' and 82°-0' East and the Western consisting of the Bhupal and Southern States and Malwa Agencies between 21°-22' and 21°-17' North and 74°-0' and 78°-50' East. The British districts of Jhansi and Saugor and the Gwalior State divide the Agency into two sections. The total area covered is 51,531.3 square miles and the population (1921) amounts to 59,97,023. The great majority of the people are Hindus. There are 28 Salute States of which the following 10 have direct treaty engagements with the British Government:—Indore, Bhopal, Rewa, Orchha, Datia, Dhar, Dewas Senior Branch, Dewas Junior Branch, Santhar and Jaora. All of these are Hindu except Bhopal Jaora and Jaora which are Muhammadan. Besides these there are 63 Minor States and Guaranteed Estates (excluding the Indore State and the Himpur and Lalgarh Estates) they are divided into following groups for administrative purposes:—Bhopal Agency, 8 States and Estates (principal State Bhopal); Baghelkhand Agency, 12 States and Estates (principal State Rewa); Bundelkhand Agency, 52 States and Estates (principal State Orchha); Southern States and Malwa Agency, 43 States and Estates (principal States Dhar, Dewas Senior Branch, Dewas Junior Branch, Jaora and Ratlam). The Agency may roughly be divided into two

natural divisions, "Central India West comprising the former Plateau division with such hilly land as lies on this side and Central India East comprising the former low-lying area and the Eastern hilly tracts." The hilly tracts lie along the ranges of the Vindhya and Satpura. They consist of forest areas and agriculture is little practised there, the inhabitants being mostly members of the wild tribes. The territories of the different States are much intermingled and their political relations with the Government of India and each other are very varied.

The following is the size, population and revenue of the ten treaty States mentioned above:—

Name.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Revenue Lakhs Rs.
Indore . . .	9,510	11,51,578	144
Bhopal . . .	6,002	6,92,448	6
Rewa . . .	13,000	14,01,272	53
Orchha . . .	2,079	2,84,948	10
Datia . . .	911	1,48,659	20
Dhar . . .	1,777	2,30,333	16
Dewas, Senior Branch . . .	449	77,005	11
Dewas, Junior Branch . . .	419	66,995	0
Santhar . . .	180	33,216	
Jaora . . .	601	85,778	11

Gwalior.—The house of Scindia traces its descent to a family of which one branch held the hereditary post of patel in a village near Salara. The head of the family received a patent of rank from Aurangzeb. The founder of the Gwalior House was Ranoji Scindia who held a military rank under the Peshwa Baji Rao. In 1726 the Peshwa granted deeds to Puar, Holkar and Scindia, empowering them to levy "Chauth" and "Sardesmukhi" and retain half the amount for payment to their troops. In 1736 Ranoji Scindia accompanied Baji Rao to Delhi where he and Mulhar Rao Holkar distinguished themselves in military exploits. Ranoji fixed his headquarters at the ancient city of Ujjain, which for the time became the Capital of the Scindia dominions. During the time of Mahadji Scindia and Dowlat Rao Scindia Gwalior played an important part in shaping the history of India. Despite the partial reverse which Mahadji Scindia's troops suffered at the hands of the British in 1780, reverses which led to the treaty of Salbai (1782), Scindia's power remained unbroken. For the first time he was now recognized by the British as an independent sovereign and not as a vassal of the Peshwa.

In 1790 his power was firmly established in Delhi. While he was indulging ambitious hopes he fell a prey to fever which ended his remarkable career on 12th February, 1794. Himself a military genius, Mahadji Scindia's armies reached the zenith of their glory under the disciplined training of the celebrated French adventurer—Le Boigne. Mahadji was succeeded by his grand-nephew Daulat Rao in whose service Perron, Military Commander of great renown played a leading part. The strength of Scindia's Army was however considerably weakened by the reverses sustained at Ahmednagar, Asayac, Aarghar and Laswari. Daulat Rao Scindia died in 1827. Till his death he remained in undisputed possession of almost all the territory which belonged to him in 1805.

Daulat Rao was succeeded by Jankoji Rao who passed away in the prime of life. On his demise in 1843 intrigue and party spirit were rampant and the Army was in a state of mutiny with the result that it came into collision with the British forces at Maharajpore and Pannthia.

Jankoji Rao was succeeded by Jiaji Rao, whose adherence to the British cause during the dark days of Mutiny, when his own troops deserted him, was unshakable. In 1861 he was created a Knight Grand Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India and in 1877 was made a Councillor of the Empress. Subsequently he received other titles and entered into treaties of mutual exchange of territories with the British Government. He died on the 20th June 1886 and was succeeded by his son Lieutenant-General H. H. Maharaja Sir Madho Rao Scindia, Aiyah Bahadur, C.O.V.O., G.C.S.I., G.B.E., A.D.C. to the King. He succeeded in 1886 and obtained powers in 1894. In 1901 he went to China during the war; he held the rank of honorary Lieutenant General of the British Army and the honorary degrees of LL.D., Cambridge, and D.C.L., Oxon. He was also a Donat of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. He died in June 1925 and was succeeded by his son H. H. Scindia in 1925.

whose minority the administration of the State will be carried on by a Council of Regency.

The ruler of the State enjoys a salute of 21 guns. The State is in direct relations with the Government of India.

The northern part of the State is traversed by the G.I.P. Railway and two branches run from Bhopal to Ujjain and from Bha to Baran. The Gwalior Light Railway runs for 256 miles from Gwalior to Bhand, from Gwalior to Sheopur and from Gwalior to Shivpuri. The main industries are cotton spinning, which is done all over the State; fine muslins made at Chanderi, leather work, etc. The State maintains three regiments of Imperial Service Cavalry, two battalions of Imperial Service Infantry and a transport corps. Lashkar, the capital city, is two miles to the south of the ancient city and the fort of Gwalior. Annual income about 2 crores and expenditure about 175 lakhs.

Indore.—The founder of the House of the Holkar of Indore was Malhar Rao Holkar, born in 1693. His soldierly qualities brought him to the front under the Peshwa, who took him into his service and employed him for his conquests. When the Maratha power was weakened at the battle of Panipat in 1761 Malhar Rao had acquired territories stretching from the Deccan to the Ganges as a reward for his career as a Military Commander. He was succeeded by his grandson. On his death without issue his mother Ahilya Bai became the Ruler and her administration is still looked upon with admiration and reverence as that of a model ruler. She was succeeded by Tukoji Holkar who indeed had been associated with her to carry the Military administration and had in the course of it distinguished himself in various battles. Tukoji was succeeded by Kashi Rao, who was supplanted by Jeevant Rao his step brother, a person of remarkable daring and strategy as exhibited in a number of engagements in which he had taken part. The brilliant success he obtained at the battle of Poona against the combined armies of Peshwa and Scindia made him a dictator of Poona for some time and he declared in consequence the independence of Holkar State. During 1804-5 he had a protracted war with the British, closed by a

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cumbd to that malady in 1811, when he was succeeded by his minor son Malhar Rao II. During the Regency which followed, the power of the State was weakened by various causes the most important of which was the refractory conduct of the Military Commanders. On the outbreak of the war between the English and the Peshwa in 1817, some of these commanders, with a part of the army, rebelled against the authority of the State and were disposed to befriend the Peshwa, while the Regent, mother and her Ministers were for friendship with the British. There was a battle between the British Army and this refractory portion of the Holkar Army which culminated in the latter's defeat. Holkar had to come to terms and to cede extensive territories and rights over the Rajput Princes to the British, but the internal sovereignty unaffected. The Treaty of 1818 which en

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Indore was well served by his uncle Minister Talga Jog. He died a premature death in 1833. Then followed the weak administration of Hari Rao and his son. In 1844 Tukoji Rao II ascended the throne; but as he was carried on by having Sir E. S. Adviser. The progress was

maintained after the Maharaja assumed powers in 1853. It was interrupted by the outbreak of Mutiny in 1857 in British India. This wave of disaffection did not leave some of the State troops untouched. The Maharaja with his adherents and the remaining troops remained however staunch to the British and gave every possible assistance to the British Authorities at Indore, Mhow and other places, which was recognised by the British Government. The Maharaja died in 1886 after having effected various reforms in the administration and raised the position of the State to a high degree of prosperity and honour. He was succeeded by Shivaji Rao who reigned for 16 years and will be specially remembered for his benevolent measures in matters of education, sanitation, medical relief and abolition of transit duties. Tukoji Rao III, ex-Maharaja succeeded in 1908 while yet a minor. The Regency Administration continued till 1911 and it deserves credit for a number of reforms effected in all the branches of administration. The policy of the Regency was maintained by the Maharaja, and since his assumption of powers the State has advanced in education in general including female education, commerce and industrial developments, municipal franchise and other representative institutions. This prosperity is specially reflected in the Indore city, the population of which has risen by forty per cent. The city has a first grade college, 3 High Schools and 1 Sanskrit College, with a number of other Medical and Education institutions. An Institute of Plant Industry for the improvement of cotton is located at Indore. It has also 9 Spinning and Weaving Mills.

During the War of 1914 the State placed all its resources at the disposal of the British Government. Its troops took part in the various theatres of war and the contribution of the State towards the War and Charitable Funds in money was 41 lakhs and its subscriptions to the War Loans amounted to Rs. 82 lakhs, while the contributions from the Indore people amounted to over one crore. This assistance received the recognition of the British Government. In the administration His Highness is assisted by his Prime Minister and a Council. The State Army consists of about 4,000 officers and men. The State is traversed by the Holkar State Railway, the principal Station of which is Indore, R. M. Railway and B. B. & C. I. Railway and the U. B. Section of the G. I. P. Railway. Besides the trunk roads, there are 600 miles of roads constructed and maintained by the State. The reforms introduced were the establishment of State Savings Bank, Scheme of Life Insurance for State Officials, establishment of a Legislative Committee consisting of seven elected Members out of a total of nine

Primary Education in the City of Indore, and measures for expansion of education in the mofussil.

His Highness Maharaja Tukoji Rao III abdicated in favour of his son. The present Maharaja Yeshwant Rao Holkar (a minor) was born on 6th September 1908. He received his education in England from 1920-23 and has again proceeded to Oxford for higher education. He married a daughter of the Junior Chief of Nagri (Kolhapur) in February 1924. The Maharaja being minor, the administration is conducted by the Cabinet and the Prime Minister in accordance with the existing rules and practice under the supervision of and with the advice of the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General in Central India.

The chief imports are—Cloth, Machinery, Coal, Sugar, Salt, Metal and Kerosine Oil of the value of Rs. 1,25,000.

The chief exports are:—Cotton, Cloth, Tobacco and Cereals of the value of Rs. 4,12,00,000

Cloth manufactured at the local mills is valued at nearly two crores and the local trade in wheat is estimated at one crore.

Cotton excise duty at 5½ per cent. *ad valorem* has been abolished from 1st May 1926 and an industrial tax is levied on the cotton mills from the same date at the rate of 1½ anna per rupee on all incomes upto Rs. 50,000, and 2½ annas per rupee on all incomes above Rs. 50,000.

The area of the State is 9,520 square miles with a revenue of about one crore and thirty eight lakhs.

Bhopal.—The principal Mussalman State in Central India ranks next in importance to Hyderabad among the Muhammadan States of India. The ruling family was founded by Dost Mohammed Khan, a Pirah Afghan. He was granted a *Sanad* of Pottasla and Nazirabad *Parganas* in recognition of his meritorious services to the Emperor of Delhi. With the disintegration of the Mogul Empire Bhopal State developed into an independent State. In the early part of the 19th century, the Nawab successfully withstood the inroads of Scindia and Bhonsla and by the agreement of 1817 Bhopal undertook to assist the British with a contingent force and to co-operate against the Pindaris.

The present ruler of the State, His Highness Sitender Sanlat Nawab Ittishahri Malik, Mohammed Hamidullah Khan Bahadur, B.A., O.S.I., C.V.O., succeeded his mother, Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begum, on her abdication in May 1926. Having ably conducted the administration of the State for nearly ten years as Chief Secretary and afterwards as Member for Finance and Law and Justice Departments, His Highness is personally conversant with each and every detail of the administration.

The names of Members of His Highness' State Council are given below in order of precedence.

Alimatabat, Sir Oswald Vivian Bosanquet, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., President of the State Council and Member, Revenue Department.

1. Ali-Matabat, Mogen-ul-Mulk, Khan Bahadur Mohi-ud-Din Mohammed Matin-uz-Zaman Khan, B.A., M.S. Member Kotah & Khos

2. Ali-Murtabat, Dabirul-Mulk, Khan Bahadur, Sir Israr Hussain Khan, Kt., C.I.E., Member, Home and Education Departments.

3. Ali-Murtabat, Rai Bahadur Raja Dutt, C.I.E., B.A., Member for Finance, Law and Justice, and Public Works Depts.

4. Ali-Murtabat, Brigadier-General Saulat Jang Abdul Qayum Khan Bahadur, O.B.E., O.E.I., Member in charge of the Army Department.

5. Member, Political Department—Vacant.

For the present the Political Department is under His Highness' direct control.

The Secretary-in-charge of the Department is Ali-Qadar Kazi Ali Haidar Abbasi.

Along with other troops, the State maintains one full strength Pioneer Battalion for Imperial Service. The Capital, Bhopal City, situated on the Northern bank of an extensive lake, is the junction for the Bhopal-Ujjain-Section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Rewa.—This state lies in the Baghelkhand Agency, and falls into two natural divisions separated by the scarp of the Kaimur range. The area is 13,000 sq. miles with a population of 14 lakhs. Its Chiefs are Baghel Rajputs descended from the Solanki clan which ruled over Gujarat from the tenth to the thirteenth century. In 1812, a body of Pindaries raided Mirzapur from Rewa territory and the Prince, who had previously rejected overtures for an alliance, was called upon to accede to a treaty acknowledging the protection of the British Government. During the Mutiny, Rewa offered troops to the British, and for his services then, various parganas, which had been seized by the Marathas, were restored to the Rewa Chief. The present chief is H. H. Maharaja Nri Gulab Singhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who was born in 1904. He was married in 1919 to the sister of His Highness the Maharaja of Jodhpur. Upon the death of his father Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Venkat Raman Singh Bahadur, on 30th October 1918, H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur succeeded to the gaddi on 31st October, as a minor. During the period of minority the State was administered by a Council of Regency with H. R. Maharaja Sir Sajjan Singh Bahadur Colonel, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C., of Rutlam as Regent. H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur attained majority in 1922 and was invested with full ruling power on 31st October, 1922, by H. E. the Viceroy and the administration of the State is now carried on by him with the aid of four Commissioners. His Highness has got a son and heir named Maharaj Kumar Martand Singhji, born on 15th March 1923.

His Highness' second marriage with the daughter of H. H. Maharaja Kishengarh was performed on the 18th February 1925.

Dhar.—This State, under the Agency for Southern States in Central India, takes its name from the old city of Dhar, long famous as the capital of the Paramara Rajputs, who ruled over Malwa from ninth to the thirteenth century and from whom the present chiefs of Dhar—Power Marathas—claim descent. In the middle of the 18th century the Chief of Dhar, Anand Rao, was one of the leading chiefs of Central India, sharing with

Ujjain and Scindia the rule of Malwa. The State came into treaty relations with the British Government in virtue of the treaty of 1819. Lt.-Colonel H. H. the Maharaja Sir Udaji Rao Powar, Sahib Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., K.T., died on 30th July 1923 and the government of the State is carried on by a Council with H. H. the Maharani Sahiba as President. There are 11 Pindaries and 4 Pindaris of whom 13 hold guarantee from the British Government. The average expenditure is about 18 lakhs. Rao Bahadur K. Nadkar is Dewan of the State and Vice-President of the Council. The present Ruler His Highness Maharaja Anand Rao and Sahib Bahadur is a minor.

Jaora State.—This State is in the Malwa Agency covering an area of about 601 square miles with a total population of 85,817, and has its headquarters at Jaora town. The Chiefs of Jaora claim descent from Abdul Majid Khan an Afghan of the Tajik Khel, from Swat, who came to India to acquire wealth. The first Nawab was Ghafur Khan who obtained the State about the year 1808. The present chief is Lt.-Colonel H. H. Fakhrul-Jaukhan Nawab Sir Mohammad Itikhar Ali Khan Sahib Bahadur Saadat Jang, C.O.I.E., who was born in 1883 and is an Honorary Lt.-Colonel in the Indian Army. The administration is at present controlled by a Council of State of which His Highness the Nawab is the President. Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sarfaraz Ali Khan is the Chief Secretary and Vice-President of the State Council. The Council is constituted of a President, a Vice-President and five other members whose names are (1) Pandit Amar Nath Katju, a sc., (2) Munshi Ram Dyal, (3) Mr. Sirajul Rehman, (4) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sher Ali Khan, (Military Secretary), and (5) Sahibzada Mohammad Rafiq Ali Khan, (Private Secretary). The soil of the State is among the richest in Malwa being mainly of the best black cotton variety bearing excellent crops of wheat, cotton and poppy. The average annual revenue is Rs. 11,67,000.

Rutlam.—Is the premier Rajput State in the Malwa Agency. It covers an area of 871 square miles, including that of the Jagir of Khara in the Kushalgarh Chiefship, which pays an annual tribute to the Rutlam Darbar. The State was founded by Raja Ramansinghji, a great grandson of Raja Udai Singh of Jodhpur, in 1652. The Ruler of Rutlam is the religious head of the Rajputs of Malwa, and important caste questions are referred to him for decision. The State enjoys full and final civil and criminal powers. The present Ruler of Rutlam is Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Sajjan Singh, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, who was born in 1880, educated at Daly College, Indore, received military training in Imperial Cadet Corps and invested with full powers in 1898. His Highness served in the war in France and Egypt from 1915 to 1918 was ment and received the Croix d'Honneur. Salute: 13.

Dewan.—Rai Bahadur B. N. Zutshi, O.B.E., A. L. S.

Dat a State Th u h s n h
h n d k h A n B d R p
h O chha bus h o a g a n d
n o h

by grants from the Delhi emperors. The present ruler Major His Highness Maharaja Lokendra Singh Govind Singh Jai Dev Bahadur, K.C.S.I., 1916, who was born in 1866 and succeeded in 1907, married 1904, enjoys a salute of 15 guns. He placed all his resources and his personal services at the disposal of the Imperial Government during the Great War and established a War Hospital at Natia. He is a progressive ruler and has created a Legislative Council and introduced many useful and important reforms in his State. He is a Vice-President of St. John Ambulance Association, a patron of Red Cross Society and has recently offered to the Imperial City of Delhi the life size marble statue of Lord Reading the late Viceroy. His Highness is a famous big game shot. The Her Apparent Raja Bahadur Balbhadr Singh, born 1907, has married a daughter of the Maharaja Bahadur of Bairampur and is a very promising prince.

Orchha State.—The rulers of this State are Bundela Rajputs claiming to be descendants of the Gahwadars of Benares. It was founded as an independent State in 1648 A.D. It entered into relations with the British by the treaty made in 1812. The present ruler is His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, C.C.S.I., C.P.R.S., who was born in 1854. He has the hereditary titles of His Highness Saranwari-rajah-Bundi-Rajah Maharaja Mahendra Sewai Bahadur. The present chief enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The State has a population of about 330,000 and an area of 2,980 square miles. The capital is Tikamgaon, 30 miles from Jabalpur Station, on the G.I.P. Railway. Orchha, the old capital, has fallen into decay but is a place of interest on account of its magnificent buildings of which the most were erected by Maharaj Bir Singh Deo, the most famous ruler of the State (1605-1627).

GWALIOR.

Resident—Lt. Col. O. G. Crosthwaite, C.B.E., D.H.O.P.A.

Political Agent—Major W. H. Neale.

LUNDELKHAND.

Political Agent—Lieut.-Col. D. G. Wilson.

BAGHELKHAND.

Political Agent—H. S. Fildes.

Sikkim.

Sikkim is bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet, on the south-east by Bhutan, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling, and on the west by Nepal. The population consists of Bhutias, Lepchas, and Nepalese. It forms the direct route to the Chumbi Valley in Tibet. The main axis of the Himalayas, which runs east and west, forms the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet. The Singalila and Chola ranges, which run southwards from the main chain, separate Sikkim from Nepal on the west, and from Tibet and Bhutan on the east. On the Singalila range rise the great snow peaks of Kanchenjunga (28,146 feet), one of the highest mountains in the world. The Chola range which is much loftier than that of Singalila, leaves the main chain at the Dongkya La.

Tad on says h heanc a o of he Ra z
 kk m o g nally came m as a b t
 Th S me was tw e n a d a by the Guckhas at
 the end of the eighteenth century. On the out-
 break of the Nepal War in 1814, the British
 formed an alliance with the Raja of Sikkim and
 at the close of the war the Raja was rewarded by
 a considerable cession of territory. In 1835 the
 Raja granted the site of Darjeeling to the British
 and received Rs. 12,000 annually in lieu of it.
 The State was previously under the Government
 of Bengal, but was brought under the direct
 supervision of the Government of India in 1906.
 The State is thinly populated, the area being
 2,516 square miles, and the population 31,721
 chiefly Buddhists and Hindus. The most im-
 portant crops are maize and rice. There are
 several trade routes through Sikkim from
 Darjeeling District into Tibet. In the conven-
 tion of 1890 provision was made for the opening
 of a trade mart but the results were disappoint-
 ing, and the failure of the Tibetans to fulfil their
 obligations resulted in 1904 in the despatch of
 a mission to Lhasa, where a new convention was
 signed. Trade with the British has increased in
 recent years, and is now between 40 and 50
 lakhs yearly. A number of good roads have been
 constructed in recent years. The present ruler,
 His Highness Maharajah Sir Tashi Namgyal,
 K.C.S.I., was born in 1876 and succeeded in 1914.
 His Highness was invested with full ruling
 powers on the 5th April 1918. The title of
 a C.I.E. was conferred upon the Maharaja on
 the 1st January 1918 and K.C.I.E. on 1st Janu-
 ary 1923. The average revenue is Rs. 4,02,422.
Political Officer in Sikkim:—Lt.-Col. F. M.
 Bailey, C. I.E.

Bhutan.

Bhutan extends for a distance of approximately
 190 miles east and west along the southern
 slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas,
 adjacent to the northern border of Eastern
 Bengal and Assam. Its area is 18,000 square
 miles and its population, consisting of Buddhists
 and Hindus, has been estimated at 300,000.
 The country formerly belonged to a tribe called
 Takpa, but was wrested from them by some
 Tibetan soldiers about the middle of the seven-
 teenth century. British relations with Bhutan
 commenced in 1772 when the Bhutias invaded
 the principality of Cooch Behar and British aid
 was invoked by that State. After a number of
 raids by the Bhutaneses into Assam, an envoy
 (the Hon. A. Eden) was sent to Bhutan, who was
 grossly insulted and compelled to sign a treaty
 surrendering the Duars to Bhutan. On his
 return the treaty was disallowed and the Duars
 annexed. This was followed by the treaty of
 1865, by which the State's relations with the
 Government of India were satisfactorily regu-
 lated. The State formerly received an allowance
 of half a lakh a year from the British Govern-
 ment in consideration of the cession in 1865
 of some areas on the southern borders. This
 allowance was doubted by a new treaty con-
 cluded in January 1910, by which the Bhuta-
 nese Government bound itself to be guided by
 the advice of the British Government in regard
 to its external relations, while the British
 Government undertook to exercise no inter-
 ference in the internal administration of Bhutan.
 On the occasion of the Tibet Mission
 of 1904, the Bhutias gave strong proof of their

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d h B t o p s o L a n
the negotiations with the Tibetan
For these services he was made
and he has since entertained the Bri-
t hospitably at his capital. The
ow known as H.H. the Maharaja of
ur Ugyen Wangchuk, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.M.
ad of the Bhutan Government, there-
ally two supreme authorities; the
aja, known as Shapting Rempoché, the
ead, and the Deb or Depa Raja, the
uler. The Dharma Raja is regarded as
h incarnation of Buddha, far higher
rimary incarnations in Tibet, of which
several hundreds. On the death of a
aja a year or two is allowed to elapse,
ncarnation then takes place, always in
or royal family of Bhutan
ion is backward and the chief crop is
ie military force consists of local
er the control of the different chiefs.
of no military value.

Nepal.

gdom of Nepal is a narrow tract of
tending for about 520 miles along the
slope of the central axis of the Hima-
has an area of about 56,000 square
h a population of about 5,580,000,
ndus. The greater part of the country
ainous, the lower slopes being culti-
bove these is a rugged broken wall of
ng up to the chain of snow-clad peaks
minate in Mount Everest (29,002 feet)
f slightly less altitude. The country
a Gurkha occupation was split up
eral small kingdoms under Newar
he Gurkhas under Prithvi Narayan
rran and conquered the different
of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhatgaon,
places during the latter half of the
ury and since then have been rulers
ole of Nepal. In 1816 the head of the
ily Maharaja Jung Bahadur Rana,
rom the sovereign the perpetual right to
of Prime Minister of Nepal, and the
ill enjoyed by the descendants of the
ily. In 1850 Jung Bahadur paid a
ngland and was thus the first Hindu
eave India and to become acquainted
power and resources of the British.
The relations of Nepal with the Govern-
India are regulated by the treaty of
ubsequent agreements by which a re-
ve of the British Government is
t Kathmandu. By virtue of the same
pal maintains a Representative at Delhi
treaty relations with Tibet allow her
e Resident at Lhasa of her own.
tion with China is of a friendly
Ever since the conclusion of the
1816 the friendly relations with the
Government have steadily been main-
ed during the rule of the present Prime
it has been at its height as is evidenced
aluable friendly help in men and money
as been given and which was apprecia-
tioned in both the Houses of Parlia-
i by Mr. Asquith in his Guildhall speech.
The message from His Majesty the
pe ex to the N alac Prim M u

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o h turn hom aft a ng l udaby
fulfilled their mission in India eloquently and
gratefully acknowledged the valuable help
rendered by Nepal during the four and a half
years of war. To further strengthen and
cement the bonds of friendship that have
subsisted so long between the two countries
the present Prime Minister, Marshal and Sup-
reme Commander-in-Chief signed a new Treaty
of friendship concluded between the Govern-
ments of Nepal and Great Britain on the 31st
December 1923.

From the foregoing account of the history of
Nepal it will be seen that the Government of
the country has generally been in the hands of
the Minister of the day. Since the time of Jung
Bahadur this system of government has been
clearly laid down and defined. The sovereign
or Maharajadhiraja, as he is called, is but a
dignified figure-head, whose position can best
be likened to that of the Emperor of Japan
during the Shogunate. The present King, His
Majesty Maharajadhiraja Tribhubana Br
Bikram Jung Bahadur Shah Bahadur Shum Shere
Jung Deva ascended the throne on the death
of his father in 1911. The real ruler of the
country is the Minister who, while enjoying
complete monopoly of power, couples with his
official rank the exalted title of Maharaja.
Next to him comes the Commander-in-Chief,
who ordinarily succeeds to the office of Minister

The present Minister at the head of affairs of
Nepal is Maharaja Chandra Shum Shere Jung
Bahadur Rana, G.C.B., G.O.S.I., G.O.M.G., G.C.V.
D.C.E., Hon. Genl., British Army; Hon. Col
Fourth Gurkhas; Thong-Lin-Pinma-Kokan,
Wang-Syan; (Highest rank in the Chinese or-
ganisation); Grand Officer de la Legion d'Honneur
Prime Minister, Marshal and the Supreme Com-
mander-in-Chief, Nepal, June 1901.

Rice, wheat and maize form the chief crops in
the low lands. Mineral wealth is supposed to be
great, but, like other sources of revenue, has not
been developed. Communications in the State
are primitive, but since 1920 the Government
has already undertaken the construction of a
good and permanent road for vehicular traffic
from Raxaul to Bhimphedi—the base of a steep
ridge in the main route to the capital of the
country from British India—and also has installed
a ropeway to connect this base with the capital
proper covering a distance of 14 miles. A light
railway from Amlekhgunj covering a distance
of 25 miles in the route and connecting with
the B. & N. W. Ry. at Raxaul also has
been constructed and opened for traffic sin
March 1927. It has also put up a tele-
phone over this route connecting the capital
with the frontier township of Birgunge near
Raxaul. The revenue is about two crores
of rupees per annum. The standing army
is estimated at 45,000 the highest posts
in it being filled by relations of the minister.
The State is of considerable archaeological
interest and many of the sites connected with
scenes of Buddha's life have been identified in
it by the remains of inscribed pillars.

British Envoy—W. H. J. Wilkinson. C.I.E
07,0

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER STATES.

The Indian States of the North-West Frontier Provinces are Amb, Chitral, Dir and Phulera. The total area is about 7,764 square miles and the population, mainly Mahomedan, is 1,622,094. The average annual revenue of the first three is about Rs. 4,65,000, that of Phulera is unknown.

Amb.—Is only a village on the western bank of the Indus in Independent Tanawala.

Chitral.—Runs from Dir to the south of the Hindu-Kush range in the north, and has an area of about 4,500 square miles. The ruling dynasty has maintained itself for more than three hundred years, during the greater part of which the State has constantly been at war with its neighbours. It was visited in 1885 by the Hookbarr Mission, and in 1889, on the establishment of a political agency in Gilgit, the ruler of Chitral received an annual subsidy from the British Government. That subsidy was increased two years later on condition that the ruler, Amam-ul-Mulk, accepted the advice of the British Government in all matters connected with foreign policy and frontier defence. His sudden death in 1892 was followed by a dispute as to the succession. The eldest son Nizam-ul-Mulk was recognised by Government, but he was mur-

dered in 1895. A war was declared by Umra Khan of Jandul and Dir against the infidels and the Agent at Gilgit, who had been sent to Chitral to report on the situation, was besieged with his escort and force had to be despatched (April 1895) to their relief.

The three valleys of which the State consists are extremely fertile and continuously cultivated. The internal administration of the country is conducted by His Highness Sir Shuja-ul-mulk, K.C.I.E., the Mehtar of Chitral, and the foreign policy is regulated by the Political Agent at Malakand.

Dir.—The territories of this State, about 5,000 square miles in area, include the country drained by the Panjkora and its affluents down to the junction of the former river with the Bajaur Kud. The Nawab of Dir is the overlord of the country, exacting allegiance from the petty chiefs of the clans. Dir is mainly held by Yusufai Pathans, the old non-Pathan inhabitants being now confined to the upper portion of the Panjkora Valley known as the Bashkar.

Political Agent for Dir, Swat and Chitral
C. Latimer, C.I.E., I.C.S.

STATES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Madras Presidency includes 5 Indian States covering an area of 10,642 square miles. Of these, the States of Travancore and Cochin represent ancient Hindu dynasties. Padukottai is the inheritance of the chieftain called the Tondiman. Banganapalle and Sandur, two petty States, of which the first is ruled by a Nawab, lie in the centre of two British districts

subdued, and the whole country, included within its present boundaries, was consolidated and brought under one rule, by the Maharaja Maithanda Varma (1729-58). The English first settled at Anjengo, a few miles to the north of Trivandrum, and built a factory there in 1684. In the wars in which the East India Company were engaged in Madras and Tinnevely, in the middle of the 18th century, the Travancore State gave assistance to the British authorities. Travancore was reckoned as one of the staunchest allies of the British Power and was accordingly included in the Treaty made in 1784 between the East India Company and the Sultan of Mysore. To protect the State from possible incursions by Pippu, an arrangement was come to in 1788 with the East India Company, and in 1795 a formal treaty was concluded, by which the Company agreed to protect Travancore from all foreign enemies. In 1805 the annual subsidy to be paid by Travancore was fixed at 8 lakhs of rupees.

Name.	Area sq. miles.	Popula- tion.	Estimated Gross Revenue in lakhs of rupees
Travancore ..	7,623	4,006,062	210.07
Cochin ..	1,417½	979,019	76.59
Padukottai ..	1,179	426,813	22.61
Banganapalle ..	255	36,692	3.58
Sandur ..	167	11,684	1.42

These States were brought into direct relation with the Government of India on October 1st, 1913.

Travancore.—This State, which has an area of 7,624.84 square miles and a population of 4,006,062 with a revenue of Rs. 2,21,88,126, occupies the south-west portion of the Indian Peninsula, forming an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Comorin. The early history of Travancore is in great part traditional; but there is little doubt that H. H. the Maharaja is the representative of the Chera dynasty, one of the three great Hindu dynasties which exercised sovereignty at one time in Southern India. The petty chiefs, who had subsequently set up as independent rulers within the State, were all

H. H. the Maharaja (b. November 1912) ascended the masnad in September 1924. During the minority the State is ruled by Her Highness Maharani Setu Lakshmi Bai, aunt of the Maharaja, as Regent on his behalf. The work of legislation is entrusted to a Council brought into existence in 1888 and as last reconstituted in 1921, has a majority of non-official elected members. The Council is invested with the powers of voting on the budget, moving resolutions and placing supplementary bills placed on a footing of equality with the ordinary bills in the matter of both franchise and membership. This is the largest measure of constitutional reform introduced in any Indian State. A representative assembly known as the Sr. Mulaam Popular Assembly meets

once a year. Its members who are the elected representatives of the people are given an opportunity to express direct to the Dewan their wants and wishes and their views regarding the administrative measures adopted from time to time. Local Self-Government on a small scale exists in the more important town. The State supports a military force of 1,473 men. Education has advanced considerably in recent years and the State takes a leading place in that respect. In the matter of female education the State has a leading place among Indian States and the British Indian Provinces. The principal food-grain grown is rice, but the main source of agricultural wealth is the coconut. Other crops are pepper, areca-nut, jack-fruit, sugar-cane and tapioca. Rubber and tea are among other important products. Cotton weaving and the making of matting from the coir are among the chief industries. The State is well provided with roads, and with a natural system of back-waters, besides canals and rivers navigable for country crafts. One line of railway about one hundred miles in length cuts across the State from east to west and then runs along the Coast to the Capital. More railway lines are in contemplation. The capital is Trivandrum.

Agent to the Governor-General—C. W. F. Cotton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Dewan—Maurice B. Watts, B.A., Bar-at-Law.

Cochin.—This State on the south-west coast of India is bounded by the Malabar District of the Madras Presidency and the State of Travancore. Very little is known of its early history. According to tradition, the Rajas of Cochin hold the territory in right of descent from Cheraman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as an independent Ruler. In 1502, the Portuguese were allowed to settle in what is now British Cochin and in the following year they built a fort and established commercial relations in the State. In the earlier wars with the Zamorin of Calicut, they assisted the Rajas of Cochin. The influence of the Portuguese on the west coast began to decline about the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in 1668 they were ousted from the town of Cochin by the Dutch with whom the Raja entered into friendly relations. About a century later, in 1759, when the Dutch power began to decline, the Raja was attacked by the Zamorin of Calicut, who was expelled with the assistance of the Raja of Travancore. In 1776, the State was conquered by Hyder Ali, to whom it remained tributary and subordinate, and subsequently to his son, Tippu Sultan. A treaty was concluded in 1791 between the Raja and the East India Company, by which His Highness agreed to become tributary to the British Government for his territories which were then in the possession of Tippu, and to pay a subsidy.

His Highness Raja Sri Sir Rama Varmah, G.C.I.E., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1852, and who ascended the Masnad in 1895, having abdicated in December, 1914. His Highness Sri Sir Rama Varmah, G.C.I.E. who was born on 6th

October, 1858, succeeded to the throne and was duly installed as Raja on the 21st January 1915. The administration is conducted under the control of the Maharaja whose chief Minister and Executive Officer is the Dewan, Rao Bahadur T. S. Narayana Iyer, M.A., B.L. The forests of Cochin form one of its most valuable assets. They abound in teak, ebony, blackwood, and other valuable trees. Rice forms the staple of cultivation. Cocoanuts are largely raised in the sandy tracts, and their products form the chief exports of the State. Communications by road and back-waters are good, and the State owns a line of railway from Shoranore to Ernakulam, the capital of the State, and a Forest Steam Tramway used in developing the forests. The State supports a force of 25 officers and 250 men.

Agent to the Governor-General—C. W. F. Cotton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Pudukkottai.—This State is bounded on the north and west by Trichinopoly, on the south by Ramnad and on the east by Tanjore. In early times a part of the State belonged to the Chola Kings and the southern part to the Pandya Kings of Madura. Relations with the English began during the Carnatic wars. During the siege of Trichinopoly by the French in 1752, the Tondiman of the time did good service to the Company's cause by sending them provisions, although his own country was on at least one occasion ravaged as a consequence of his fidelity to the English. In 1758 he sent some of his troops to assist Muhammad Yusuf, the Company's sepoy commander, in settling the Madura and Tennevelli countries. Subsequently he was of much service in the wars with Haider Ali. His services were rewarded by a grant of territory subject to the conditions that the district should not be alienated (1806). Apart from that there is no treaty or arrangement with the Raja. The present ruler is His Highness Sri Brihadamba Das Sri Marthanda Bhairava Tondiman Bahadur, G.C.I.E., who is eighth in descent from the founder of the family. He succeeded in 1886. The administration of the State, under the Raja is entrusted to a Regent. The various departments are constituted on the British India model. The principal food crop is rice. The forests, which cover about one-seventh of the State, contain only small timber. There are no large industries. The State is well provided with roads, but Pudukkottai is the only municipal town in the State.

Agent to the Governor-General—C. W. F. Cotton, Esq., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General—Rao Sahib B. K. Govindan.

Banganapalle.—This is a small State in two detached portions which in the eighteenth century passed from Hyderabad to Mysore and back again to Hyderabad. The control over it was ceded to the Madras Government by the Nizam in 1800. The present ruler is Nawab Meer Fazeel Khan Bahadur. The chief food-grain is cholam. The Nawab pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The revenue of the State is over 3 lakhs. The Nawab is 26 years of age.

Rajah of Sandur (Governor-General):—Rao Sahib B. K. Govindrao.

Sandur.—The State is almost surrounded by the District of Bellary, the Collector of which is the Assistant to the Governor-General's Agent. After the destruction of the empire or Vijayanagar in 1565 the State came to be held by semi-independent chieftains under the nominal sovereignty of the Sultan of Bijapur and in 1733 one of these chieftains, a Peshwa of Bedar tribe, was turned out by an ancestor of the present Raja named Sadoji Rao of the Bhosle family of the famous Marhatta Chief Shivaji; they were Senapaties or Sivaji. In Shivaji's time the State came under the Madras Government and his heirs in perpetuity with full powers, Civil and Criminal. In 1876 the title of Raja was conferred on the Chief as a hereditary distinction. The present Ruler is Raja Sumanth Venkata Rao Rao Sahib. He was born in 1892. He married Kanti Srinath Tara Rao, sister of the late Raja of Akalkot,

and administered by the Raja and the Dewan (Mithran T. Ramachandra Ayyar). The Raja pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The most important staple crop is cotton. Teak and sandalwood are found in small quantities in the forests.

The minerals of the State possess unusual interest. The hematites found in it are probably the richest ore in India. An outcrop near the southern boundary forms the crest of a ridge 150 feet in height, which apparently consists entirely of pure steel gray crystalline hematite (specular iron) of intense hardness. Some of the softer ores used to be smelted, but the industry has been killed by the cheaper English iron. Manganese deposits have also been found in three places, and during 1911 to 1914 over 223,000 tons of manganese ore were transported by one company.

Assault Agent to the Governor-General:—Khan Bahadur Muhammad Dost-ul-lah Sahib Bahadur, C.I.E., C.B.E.

STATES OF WESTERN INDIA

Owing to the large number of States concerned and the interlacing of their territories with neighbouring British districts, the transfer of States under the Bombay Government to direct political relations with the Government of India which was advocated in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report on the Constitutional Reform had been delayed. The first stage of that process, however, was carried out in October, 1924, when a new Presidency was created in direct relation with the Government of India comprising the whole of the compact area making up the Kathiawar, Cutch and Palanpur Agencies under the Government of Bombay.

Resident of the First Class and Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India:—C. C. Watson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Judicial Commissioner in the States of Western India:—W. T. W. Baker, I.C.S.

Kathiawar Agency.—Kathiawar is the peninsula or western portion of the Province of Gujarat, Bombay. Its extreme length is about 220 miles and its greatest breadth about 165 miles, the area being 23,445 square miles. Of this total about 20,382 square miles with a population of 2,542,535 is the territory forming the Agency formerly subordinate to the Government of Bombay, established in 1822, having under its control nearly 200 separate States whose chiefs divided amongst themselves the greater portion of the peninsula. The Kathiawar Agency was divided for administrative purposes into two divisions, Western and Eastern Kathiawar States (four prants—Jhalawar, Rajdar, Sorath and Gohiwar) and the States have since 1863 been arranged in seven classes.

Bhavnagar.—This State lies at the head and west side of the Gulf of Cambay. The Gohel Rajputs, to which tribe the Ruler of Bhavnagar belongs, are said to have settled in the country about the year 1280, under Sakaji from whose

three sons—Ranoji, Saranji and Shahji—descended respectively the chiefs of Bhavnagar, Lathi and Palitana. An intimate connexion was formed between the Bombay Government and Bhavnagar in the eighteenth century when the chief of that State took pains to destroy the pirates which infested the neighbouring seas. The State was split up when Gujarat and Kathiawar were divided between the Peshwa and the Gaekwar; but the various claims over Bhavnagar were consolidated in the hands of the British Government in 1807. The State pays an annual tribute of Rs. 1,28,000 to the British Government, Rs. 3,581-5-0 as Peshkashi to Baroda, and Rs. 22,878 as Zorai to Junagadh. During the minority of His Highness the Minor Maharaja Krishna Kumarsinhji who succeeded to the gadi on the death of his father, Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji, K.C.S.I., on 17th July 1919, the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration. The Council consists of Sir Prabhushankar D. Pottani, C.I.E., as President, and Lieut.-Colonel A. E. E. Morse as Vice-President. The other members of the Council are Dewan Bahadur T. K. Trivedi and Mr. S. A. Goghawala, M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-law. One noteworthy feature in the administration is the complete separation of judicial from executive functions and the decentralisation of authority is another. The authority and powers of all the Heads of Departments have been clearly defined, and each within his own sphere is independent of the others, being directly responsible to the Council.

The chief products of the State are grain, cotton, oil, and sugar. The chief manufactures are brass vessels and cloth. The State has a railway of 238 miles in length, and a port which has a good and safe harbour for shipping and carries on an extensive trade as one of the principal markets and harbours of export for cotton in Kathiawar. Bhavnagar supports 284 State Lancers and 250 State Infantry.

Population (in 1921) was 436,404 of whom 96 per cent. were Hindus and 8 per cent. Mahomedans. The average income for the last five years was Rs. 91,24,677 and the average expenditure Rs. 38,11,480.

Dhrangadhra State is a State of the First Class in Kathiawar with a population of nearly one lakh and an area of 1,167 square miles exclusive of the Dhrangadhra portion of the Rann of Kutch. The ruler of Dhrangadhra is the head of the Jhala family of Rajputs, originally called the Makvanas. This Rajput clan is of great antiquity having migrated to Kathiawar from the North, establishing itself first at Patli in the Ahmedabad District, thence moving to Halvad and finally settling in its present seat. Being the guardians of the North-Eastern marches of Kathiawar they had to suffer repeatedly from the successive inroads of the Mahomedans into that Peninsula, but after suffering the various vicissitudes of war they were confirmed in their possession of Halvad, its surrounding territories and the salt-pans attached thereto by an Imperial Firman issued by Emperor Aurangzeb. The States of Vankner, Lambdi, Wadhwan, Ohuda, Sayla and Than-Lakhlar are offshoots from Dhrangadhra. His Highness Maharana Shri Bir Ghanshyamsinhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja Raj Sahib, is the ruler of the State and the titular head of all the Jhalas. The administration is conducted under the Maharaja's directions by the Dewan Rana Shri Mansinhji S. Jhala, C.I.E. The soil being eminently fit for cotton cultivation, the principal crops are long stapled cotton and cereals of various kinds. Excellent building and ornamental stone is quarried from the hills situated within the State. Wadhwa salt of an excellent quality with Magnesium chloride and other bye-products of salt are also manufactured at the State Salt works at Kuda which offer practically inexhaustible supplies for their manufacture. The capital town is Dhrangadhra, a fortified town, 75 miles west of Ahmedabad.

Dhrangadhra State owns the Railway from Wadhwan Junction to Halvad, a distance of 40 miles, which is worked by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. An extension of this line to Maliya is under contemplation. A railway siding has been laid from Dhrangadhra to Kuda—a distance of 11 miles—to facilitate the salt traffic.

Gondal State.—The Ruling Prince of Gondal is a Rajput of the Jadeja stock with the title of H. H. Maharaja Sahib, the present Ruler being H. H. Shri Bhagvat Sinhji, G.C.I.E. The early founder of the State, Kumbhoji I., had a modest estate of 20 villages. Kumbhoji II., the most powerful Chief of the House, widened the territories to almost their present limits by conquest; but it was left to the present ruler to develop its resources to the utmost, and in the words of Lord Reay, Governor of Bombay, by its "importance and advanced administration" to get it recognised as a First Class State. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,10,721. The chief products are cotton and grain and the chief manufactures are cotton and woollen fabrics and gold embroidery. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the vigour with which public works have been

prosecuted, and was one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in Kathiawar, having initiated the Dhasa-Dhoraji line, it owns the Dhasa-Jam Jodhpur section called the Gondal Railway and manages it along with the Jetalpur-Rajkot Railway and H. H. Gaekwad's Khijadiya-Dham line; it subsequently built the Jetalpur-Rajkot Railway in partnership with other Native States in Kathiawar. There are no export and import dues, the people being free from taxes and dues. Comparatively speaking Gondal stands first in Kathiawar in respect of the spread of education. Compulsory female education in the State has been recently ordered by His Highness. Rs. 13 lakhs have been spent on irrigation tanks and canals and water supply to the town of Gondal. The Capital is Gondal, a fortified town on the line between Rajkot and Jetalpur.

Junagadh State.—This is a first class State under the Kathiawar Political Agency, and lies in the south-western portion of the Kathiawar Peninsula between 24° 44' and 21° 53' North latitude and 70° and 72° East longitude with the Halar Division of the province as its northern boundary, and Gohelwad Prant to its East. It is bounded on the south and west by the Arabian Sea. The State is divided into 13 Mahals. It has 13 ports of which the principal are Veraval and Mangrol. The principal rivers in the State are the Bhadar, Uben, Ozat, Jiran, Saraswati, Machhundri, Singhaada, Mehal, Vrajni, Naval and Sabli. The capital town of Junagadh, which is one of the most picturesque towns in India, is situated on the slope of the Girnar and Datar Hills; while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upparkote or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honeycombed with caves and their remains. There are a number of fine modern buildings in the town. The famous Ashoka inscription of the Buddhist time carved out on a big bolster of black granite stone is housed at the foot of the Girnar Hill which is sacred to the Jains, the Shivaites, the Vaishnavites and other Hindus. To the south-west of the Girnar Hill lies the extensive forest of Gir comprising 494 sq. miles, 823 acres and 10 gunthas. It supplies timber and other natural products to the residents of the State and the neighbouring districts and is unique as the sole stronghold of the Indian lion. The area of the State is 3,336.9 square miles and the average revenue amounts to about Rs. 85,00,000. The total population according to the census of 1921 was 465,493 of which 363,003 were Hindus, 90,091 Mahomedans, 7,216 Jains, 90 Christians, 53 Parsis, while 40 were of other castes. Until 1472 when it was conquered by Sultan Mahomed Begra of Ahmedabad, Junagadh was a Rajput State ruled by Chiefs of the Chudasama tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar it became a dependency of Delhi under the immediate authority of the Moghal Viceroy of Gujarat. About 1735 when the representative of the Moghals had lost his authority in Gujarat, Sher Khan Babi, the ancestor of the present Babi Rulers expelled the Moghal Governor, and established his own rule. The ruler of Junagadh first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The principal articles of production in the State are cotton, grain, sugar

gold and silver embroidery, pottery, hardware, leather, bamboo furniture, etc. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 28,314 annually to the Paramount Power and a *Prishtash* of Rs. 37,210 to His Highness the Gaekwar. On the other hand, the State of Junagadh receives a *chattri*, styled Zorabai amounting to Rs. 82,221 from 121 States, a relic of the days of Mahomedan supremacy. The State maintains Junagadh State Forces and the Mahalakh Khajji Infantry, the sanctioned strength of each of them is 172.

The Chief bears the title of Nawab, the present Nawab His Highness Sir Mahabat Khan III, K. C. S. I., is the ninth in succession and seventh in descent from His Highness Bahadurkhanji, I, the founder of the Bani family of Junagadh in 1736 A.D. His Highness the Nawab Sahib, was born on 2nd August 1900, and succeeded to the Gadi in 1911, visited England in 1913-14, received his education at the Mayo College, Aligarh and has been invested with full powers in March 1920. His Highness the Nawab Sahib is the ruler of the Premier State in Kathiawar, ranks last amongst the Chiefs of Kathiawar exercising plenary powers and enjoys a salute of 15 guns personal, 15 permanent and 15 local within the territorial limits of the Junagadh State. Languages spoken:—Gujarati and Urdu. Capital—Junagadh.

Ruler.—His Highness Sir Mahabat Khanji Bahadurkhanji K. C. S. I.,
Heir-apparent.—Mahomed Dilawar Khanji;
Prince.—Mahomed Hinas Khanji;
Navanagar State. on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, has an area of 3,791 square miles. The Maharaja of Navanagar is a Jacefa Rajput by caste, and belongs to the same family as the Rao of Cutch. The Jadejas originally entered Kathiawar from Cutch, and dispossessed the ancient family of Jethwas then established at Bhunli. The town of Jamnagar was founded in 1541. The present Jam Sahib is the well-known cricketer, K. H. Jam Sahib Shri Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, who was born in 1872 and succeeded in 1907. The principal products are grain, cotton and oil-seeds, shipped from the ports of the State. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,20,000 per annum jointly to the British Government, the Gaekwar of Baroda and the Nawab of Junagadh. The State maintains two squadrons of Navanagar State *Lancers*. The Capital is Jamnagar, a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, situated 5 miles east of the port of Porli. Population 345,353. Revenue nearly Rs. 80 lakhs.

Revenue Secretary. Gokulbhai B. Desai,
Bar-at-law.

Political Secretary. Parashuram B. Junnarkar,
 B.A., LL.B.

General Secretary. Hirabhai M. Mehta, B.A.
 (Cantab.), Bar-at-law.

Cutch.—The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind, on the east by the

Arabian Sea, and on the south by the Gulf of Cutch. The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind, on the east by the Arabian Sea, and on the south by the Gulf of Cutch.

inclusive of the great salt marsh called the Mann of Cutch, is 7,616 square miles. The Capital is Bhuj, where the ruling Chief (the Maharaja) His Highness Maha Rao Sri Kanchaji Savai Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., resides. From its isolated position, the special character of its people, their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more or less elements of a distinct nationality than any other of the dependencies of Bombay. The earliest historic notices of the State occur in the Greek writers. Its modern history dates from its conquest by the Sind tribe of Samma Rajputs in the fourteenth century. The section of the Sammas forming the ruling family in Cutch were known as the Jadejas or 'children of Jada'. The British made a treaty with the State in 1816. There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch and wheat, barley and cotton are cultivated. Both iron and coal are found but are not worked. Cutch is noted for its beautiful embroidery and silversmith and its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance. Trade is chiefly carried by sea. The ruling chief is the supreme authority. A few of the Bhayats are invested with jurisdictional powers in varying degrees in their own Estates and over their own ryots. A notable fact in connection with the administration of the Cutch State is the number and position of the Bhayats. These are Rajput nobles forming the brotherhood of the Rao. They were granted a share in the territories of the ruling chief as provision for their maintenance and are bound to furnish troops on an emergency. The number of these chiefs is 137, and the total number of the Jadeja tribe in Cutch is about 16,000. The British military force having been withdrawn from Bhuj, the State now pays Rs. 82,357 annually as an *Anjar* equivalent to the British Government. The military force consists of about 1,000 in addition to which, there are some irregular infantry, and the Bhayats could furnish on requisition a mixed force of four thousand.

Palanpur Agency.—This group of States in Gujarat comprises two first class States, Palanpur and Kachhanpur, and a few minor States and petty talukas. Its total area is 6,303 square miles and the population is 518,536. The gross revenue is about 27 lakhs. The territory included in the Agency has, like the more central parts of Gujarat, passed during historical times under the sway of the different Rajput dynasties of Anhilwada, the early Khichi and Taghalak Shahi dynasties of Delhi, the Ahmedabad Sultans, the Mughal Emperors, the Marhattas, and lastly the British. The State from which the Agency takes its name is under the rule of Captain His Highness Zubdat-Mulk Dewan Mahashan Taley Muhammad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Nawab of Palanpur. His Highness is descended from the Usafzai Lohani Pathan, an Afghan tribe who appeared in Gujarat in the 14th century. The connection of the British Government with the State dates from 1819 in which year the Ruler was murdered by a body of nobles. Two high roads from Ahmedabad

pass through the State and a considerable trade in cloth, grain, sugar and rice is carried on. The State pays tribute of Rs. 38,462 to the Nizam of Baroda. The capital is Palanpur situated on the B. B. & C. I. Railway, and is the junction station of the Palanpur-Deesa Branch of B. B. & C. I. Railway. It is a very old settlement of which mention was made in the 8th century.

Radhanpur is a first-class State, with an area of 1,150 square miles, which is held by a branch

of the illustrious Babi family. The reign of Humayun gave a place in the annals of Gujarat. The capital is H. H. Jalaludin of Radhanpur. The Police force of 209 men are cotton, wheat and is Radhanpur town, a center for Northern Gujarat and cotton press and there. There is one ginning factory at Lolada.

INDIAN STATES UNDER LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The territories under the rule of Indian Princes and Chiefs in the Bombay Presidency extend over an area of 28,039 square miles. The characteristic feature of the Bombay States is the great number of petty principalities. The recognition of these very numerous jurisdictions is due to the circumstance that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a landholder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. In no part of India is there a greater variety of principalities. Some of the largest are of modern origin, having been founded by the Marathas in the general scramble for power in the middle of the 18th century but the Rajput houses in the Gujarat Agencies date from earlier times. Interesting traces of ancient history are to be found at Sachin and Janjira, where Chiefs of foreign ancestry, descended from Abyssinian admirals of the Deccan (the *Malik*), still remain. A few aboriginal Chiefs—Lohis or Kolis exercise very limited authority in the Dangs and the hilly country that fringes the Mahi and the Narmada rivers.

The variety of the relations which under the terms of the several treaties subsist between the British Government and the rulers of the different States, and the general superintendence exercised by Government as the Paramount Power, necessitate the presence of an Agent or representative of Government at the Principal Courts. The smaller and less important States are either grouped together under the general supervision of a Political Agent or are looked after by the Collectors of the districts which they adjoin. The position of the Agent varies, roughly speaking, with the importance of the State. In some cases he does little more than give advice and exercise a general surveillance. In other cases the Agents are invested with a direct share in the administration, while States the Rulers of which are minor are directly managed by Government Officers or under arrangements approved by Government. Some of the States are subordinate to other States and not in direct relations with the British Government. In these cases the status of the feudatories is usually guaranteed by Government. The powers of the Chiefs are regulated by treaty or custom, and range downwards to a mere right to collect revenue in a share of a village, without criminal or civil jurisdiction, as in the case of the petty Chiefs in the Mahi Kantha and Rewa Kantha Agencies.

The number of Indian States in the Bombay Presidency is 51, with an area of 28,039 square miles and population 92 of 3,679,000. They

are divided for administrative purposes into the following Agencies: Savantvadi; Bijapur Agency, Savanur; Kaira Agency, Savanur; Kaira Agency, Janjira and Southern Maratha States (Kolhapur with Khandi, Kurundwad Senior, Miraj Senior, Miraj Junior and Sangli); Mahi Kantha (Principal States Idar and Lunawada); Poona Agency, 62 States (Principal States Baria, Chhota Udaipur and Sant); Satara Agency, Sholapur Agency, Alwar Agency, Khairpur; Surat Agency, Dharapur and Sachin; Thana Agency, Jawhar. Details of the area of the States:—

State.	Area in sq. mls.
Balasinar ..	189
Dansda ..	213
Baria ..	513
Cambay ..	350
Chhota Udaipur ..	830
Danta ..	247
Dharapur ..	704
Idar ..	1,660
Janjira ..	377
Jawhar ..	310
Khairpur ..	6,050
Kolhapur ..	3,16
Lunawada ..	388
Mudhol ..	368
Rajpipla ..	1,517
Sachin ..	43
Sangli ..	1,111
Savantvadi ..	920
Sant ..	304

Bijapur Agency.—This Agency of Jath (1880-81 area). On the annexation of Jath and Daphlapur like became feudatories of the British. The latter has more than 100 villages and in 1880 the population was 10,000.

in 1870, the last ruler of the Marathas, who belongs to the Marhatta caste, ranks as a first class Sardar. He holds a special of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The gross revenue of the State is about 2 lakhs chiefly derived from land revenue. The Jath State pays to the British Government Rs. 6,400 per annum in lieu of horse conveying and Rs. 4,957 on account of Sardeshmukhi rights.

Political Agent.—V. M. Nalk, M. A., Par. Law, Collector of Bijnor.

Dharwar Agency.—This comprises only the small State of Savanur. The founder of the ruling family who are Mahomedans of Pathan origin was a Jangidar of Emperor Aurangzeb. At the close of the last Marathi War the Nawab of Savanur, whose conduct had been exceptionally loyal, was conferred in his possessions by the British Government. The State pays no tribute. The principal crops are jowar and cotton. The area is 70 square miles and population 16,880. The revenue is Rs. 2,15,761-11-7. The present chief is Captain Meherbanu Nawab Abdul Majid Khan Diler Jang Bahadur, Nawab of Savanur.

Political Agent.—A. Master, I.C.S.

Kaira Agency.—This includes only the State of Cambay at the head of the Gulf or the same name. Cambay was formerly one of the chief ports of India and of the Anhilwada Kingdom. At the end of the thirteenth century it is said to have been one of the richest towns in India, at the beginning of the sixteenth century also it formed one of the chief centres of commerce in Western India. Factories were established there by the English and the Dutch. It was established a distinct State about 1730, the founder of the present family of Chiefs being the last but one of the Mahomedan Governors of Gujarat. The present Nawab is His Highness Mirza Hussein Yawar Khan who is a Shiah Mogul of the Najumani family of Persia, and was born on the 16th May 1911. His father, the late Nawab Saitur Ali Khan, died on 21st January 1915, leaving him a minor. The State is therefore under British administration. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 21,924 to the British Government. Wheat and cotton are the principal crops. There is a broad gauge line from Cambay via Pethad, connecting with the B. & C. I. Railway at Anand. Cambay is a first class State having full jurisdiction. Revenue is about eight lakhs. The area of the State is 550 square miles, population 71,715.

Political Agent.—M. S. Jayakar, V. A.

Administrative.—V. K. Namjoshi.

Kolaba Agency.—This Agency includes the State of Janjira in the Konkan, a country covered with spurs and hill ranges and much intersected by creeks and backwaters. The ruling family is said to be descended from an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizam Shahi Kings of Ahmednagar at the end of the sixteenth century. The most noticeable point

of the State is a continued attack of the Marathas. The British, on succeeding the Marathas as masters of the Konkan, refused from interfering in the internal administration of the State. The chief is a Sunni Mahomedan by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with a title of His Highness the Nawab. He has a sacred guarantee of succession according to Mahomedan law and pays no tribute. Till 1803 the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year the misadministration of the chief especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant; those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands and vested in a Political Agent. The last ruler, A. H. Nawab Sidi Sir Ahmed Khan, G.C.S.I., died on 2nd May 1902, and was succeeded by his son Sidi Muhammad Khan, born on the 7th March 1914. The area of the State is 377 square miles, and the population 98,500. The average revenue is 8 lakhs, including that derived from a small Jopra denger named Jafferabad in the south of Malabar under the Kachnarwar Agency. The State maintains an irregular military force of 221. Its capital is Mirud on the main land, the name of Janjira being retained by the island fort opposite. The Chief is entitled to a dynastic salute of 11 guns. In recognition of services rendered in connection with the war the last ruler's salute was raised on the 13th January 1919 to 18 guns personal and 13 permanent within the limits of his own State from the 1st January 1921. The State is now under a minority administration with the minor Nawab's mother as Regent, assisted by a Dewan appointed with the approval of Government. The present Dewan is Mr. P. R. Kapadia, B.A., a retired Deputy Collector.

Kolhapur Agency.—Kolhapur is a State with an area of 3,317 square miles and population of 353,736. Subordinate to Kolhapur are nine feudatories, of which the following four are important: Vishalgiri, Barda, Katal Isconeri, and Chalkarani. The ruling house traces its descent from a younger son of Shivaji, founder of the Maratha power. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhapur port of Malvan compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kolhapur in 1765, and again in 1792, when the Raja agreed to give compensation for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1735, and to permit the establishment of factories at Malvan and Kolhapur. Internal dissensions and wars with neighbouring States gradually weakened the power of Kolhapur. In 1812 a treaty was concluded with the British Government, by which, in return for the cession of certain ports, the Kolhapur Raja was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers; while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. The principal articles of production are rice, jowar and sugar-cane and the manufactures are coarse cotton and woollen cloths, pottery and hard-

ware. The State pays no tribute, and supports a military force of 602. The nine feudatory estates are administered by their holders, except in the case of two whose holders are minors. Kolhapur proper is divided into seven pethas or talukas and three mahals and is managed by the Maharaja, who has full powers of life

and death. The Southern Mahratta passes through the State and is controlled by Kolhapur City by a line which is 100 miles of the State.

Resident and Senior Political Officer, Kolhapur and the Southern Mahratta.
Lieut.-Col. E. O'Brien.

Southern Maratha Country States.—The Agency consists of the following:

Name of State.	Area in square miles.	Population	Tribute to British Government
			Rs.
Sangli	1,136	221,321	1,85,000
Miraj (Senior)	343	82,580	12,558
Miraj (Junior)	106½	34,605	7,389
Kurundwad (Senior)	182½	38,760	9,619
Kurundwad (Junior)	114	34,288
Jambhandi	524	101,195	20,516
Mudhol	368	60,140	2,672
Ramdurg	169	33,967
Total	3,032	606,940	1,37,754

Mahi Kantha.—This group of States has a total area of 3,124 square miles and a population of 450,478, including that of Idar, which is 226,351. The revenue is about 14 lakhs. The Agency consists of the first class State of Idar and 51 small States. Idar covers more than half the territory. It has an area of 1,668 square miles and an average revenue of Rs 15,63,179. The present Ruler of Idar, Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Dowlat Singhji, K.C.S.I., is a Rajput of the Rathod clan. He was born in 1878 and ascended the Gadi in 1911. His Highness had been on active service in Egypt during the great war. The subordinate feudatory Jagirdars are divided into 3 classes. The Jagirdars comprised in the class of Bhayats are cadets of the Ruling House to whom grants have been made in maintenance or as a Jivarak. Those known as Sardar Pat-tawats are descendants of the military leaders who accompanied Anand Singh and Rai Singh, the founder of the present Marwar dynasty when they took possession of the State in the first quarter of the eighteenth century and to whom grants of land were made by Maharaja Anand Singh in 1741 A. D. on condition of military service. In the class of the Bhoomias are included all subordinate Feudatories who were in possession of their Pattas prior to the advent of the present Marwar dynasty. The Pattas which they hold were acquired by their ancestors by grant from the former Rao rulers of the State. The Maharaja receives Rs. 52,427 annually on account of Khichdr and other Raj-Raks from its subordinate Sardars, the tributary Talukas of the Mahi Kantha Agency and others and pays Rs 30,340 as Ghasdana to Gaekwar of Baroda through the British Government. Of the smaller states Polo and Danta are two important second class States. The names of their Chiefs are Rao Shri Hamir Singhji and Maharana Shri Hamir Singhji. Nine other States are of some importance and the remainder are estates belonging to Rajput or Koli once he lawless

feudatories of Baroda and under the close supervision of the Political Agent—Major A. S. Mee.

Nasik Agency.—This consists of Surgana, lying in the north-west of the Nasik District. Surgana has an area of 4,956 square miles and a population of 665,099, comprises 61 States of which 1 is a first class State, 5 are second class, one is third class and the rest are States or talukas. Among those in the north, Bhadrawa, in the west, Jambhughoda in the south, and two groups of Mehwas. The 23 Mehwas petty estates lie on the north of the Narbada, while the 24 Pan-petty estates including Dodra, Raika, which together form the Mehwas are situated on the border of Mahi.

The following are the statistics of population for the principal States:

State.	Area in square miles.
Balasinor	18
Bariya	81
Chhoti Udaipur	8
Jamavada	3
Narukot (Jambhughoda)	1
Rajpipla	151
Sunt	30
Other Jurisdictional States, Civil Stations and Thana Offices	68

and the area of the State is 2,414 sq. miles. The population is 2,41,400. The capital is Savantvadi, also called Sundar Vadi, or simply Vadi. The family of the Maharaja of Rajpura, Captain H. H. Maharaja Shri Sir Vijayashahi, K.C.S.I., is said to derive its origin from a Rajput of the Gohel clan. Cotton is the most important crop in the State. In the hills there are valuable teak forests. The capital is Rajpura which is connected with Anklesvar by railway built by the State.

—Under this heading are grouped the following States:—

State.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Revenue in lakhs.
1.	501	64,560	Rs. 3
2.	397	43,285	3
3.	925	130,420	5
4.	498	81,250	9
5.	931	82,654	3½

only feudatory to the Raja of Satara. In 1849 five of them, including the one which has since reverted to the Jath State, were placed in relations with the British Government. Subsequently, the Jath State was placed under the Collector of Poona, and Jath to the Agency for the Southern States. The latter has since been placed in relation with the Collector of Poona. The Chiefs are as follows:—

Ruling Chiefs.	Tribute to British Government
Meherban Bhavanrao Shrinivasrao alias Bala Sahab, Pant Pratinidhi.	Rs.
2nd-Lieutenant Meherban Malojirao Mudhojirao alias Nana Sahab Naik Nimbalkar.	9,500
Meherban Raghunathrao Shankarrao alias Baba Sahab, Pant Sachiv.	4,584
Meherban Shrinant Vijayashahi Fatehsinh Raja Rhonole Raja Sahab of (minor).	14,500
Meherban Ramrao Amritrao alias Aba Sahab Dade	10,129

The State has an area of 2,414 sq. miles and a population of 2,41,400. It lies to the west of the Portuguese territory of Goa, the country being extremely fertile. Early inscriptions date back to the sixth century. In the nineteenth century the country was swarmed with pirates and was much disturbed. The present ruler, Maharaja V. alias Bapu, is the principal crop is rich in valuable teak. The hills of the State are the Indian Army and

supply much of the immigrant labour in the adjacent British districts. The capital is Savantvadi, also called Sundar Vadi, or simply Vadi.

Sholapur Agency.—This contains the State of Akalkot which forms part of the table land of the Deccan. It has an area of 498 square miles and a population of 81,250. In the beginning of the eighteenth century the Akalkot territory, which had formerly been part of the Kingdom of Ahmednagar, was annexed to the Maratha State of Satara. The present chief, subject to the British Government, is the present chief, subject to the British Government, after the annexation of Satara, the Akalkot Chief became a feudatory of the British Government.

Baria—The State has an area of 813 square miles with a population of 137,291 and is situated in the heart of the Panchmahals district. The Capital Devgad Baria is reached by road from Piprol station on the B. D. & C. I. Railway, at a distance of eight miles. The average revenue of the State is about 10 lakhs. The State enjoys plenary powers. The Ruler Captain His Highness Maharaja Shree Sir Hanjitsinhji, K.C.S.I., is the direct descendant of the Great House of Kichhi Chowhan Rajputs who ruled over Gujrat for 244 years with their capital at Champapan, with the proud title of Pavapatis. His family has the noblest historical traditions. The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or any other Indian State. He enjoys a salute of eleven guns. He served in France and Flanders in the Great European War and in the Afghan War, 1919. The staple crop is maize. The forests are rich in teakwood and all sorts of jungle produce. There is a large scope for forest industries.

The Sukkur Agency.—This consists of the Khairpur State, a great alluvial plain in Sind. It has an area of 6,050 square miles and a population of 198,152, and revenue of over 26 lakhs. The present chief, H. H. Mir Ali Nawaz Khan, belongs to a Baloch family called Talpur. Previous to the accession of this family on the fall of the Kalohra dynasty of Sind in 1783, the history of Khairpur belongs to the general history of Sind. In that year

Mir Fateh Ali Khan Talpur established himself as Ruler of Sind; and since his nephew, Mir Sohrab Khan Talpur, the Khairpur branch of the Talpur line, 1832 the individuality of the Khairpur as separate from the other Talpur Wars was recognised by the British Government, a treaty, under which the use of the rivers and the roads of Sind were secured to him. The chief products of the State are oil-seeds, ghee, hides, tobacco, tulle, carbonate of soda, cotton, wool and so forth. The manufactures comprise cotton fabrics, various kinds of silverware and metal work. There is an industrial school at the place where lacquer work, carpets, pottery, &c. are produced. The Railway from Hyderabad to Rohri runs through the whole length of the State. The rule of the Mirs has all the characteristics of a patriarchal until very recently when the Ruler, Mir Ali Nawaz Khan Talpur, an able and enlightened prince, having imbibed the characteristics of the present age, has turned a new leaf in the administration of the State and replaced the old Vazirats system by a constitution of three members, he being President. The State supports a Militia of 330 Rank and file, composed of 210 of 72 Transport and 42 Band and Bandoliers, including an Imperial Service Camel Corps, which is 139 strong and stationed at the front.

Political Agent: The Collector of Sukkur.

Surat Agency.—This is a small group of three second class States under the Agent, Surat.

State.	Ruling Chiefs.	Area in sq miles
Dharampur ..	Maharana Shri Vijayadevi Mohandevji	784
Bansda ..	Maharawal Shri Lodrasinhji Pratapsinhji	215
Sachin ..	His Highness Nawab Sidi Ibrahim Muhammad Yakut Khan Mubazarat Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur.	40

The joint revenue of these States is Rs. 24,51,000. Tribute is paid to the British Government of Rs. 9,154. There is also attached to this Agency a tract of country known as the Dangas, which has an area of 653 square miles and a population of 24,576 and a revenue of Rs. 24,711. The country is divided into 14 Dangas or States of very unequal area, each under the purely nominal rule of a Bhil Chief with the title of Raja, Naik, Pradhan or Povar.

Thana Agency.—This includes the State of Jawhar, in the Thana District, on a plateau above the Konkan plain. It has an area of

310 square miles and a population of 129,400 and revenue of 6 lakhs. Up to 1294, the State of the first Mahomedan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhar was held by a Varkari chief. The first Koli chief obtained the State of Jawhar by a device similar to that of Dido, when he asked for and received as much land as the hide of a bull would cover. The Koli chief cut a hide into strips and enclosed the territory of the State. The chief is Raja Vikramshah Patangshi, who administers the State, assisted by a Council under the supervision of the Collector of the District who is Political Agent of the State.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.

Cooch Behar—This State, which at one time comprised almost the whole of the Northern Bengal, Assam and a part of Bhutan now known as the Duars, is a low-lying plain in North Bengal. It has an area of 1,307 square miles, a population of 592,989 and a revenue of nearly 40 lakhs. By the demise of the late Maharaja His Highness Maharaja Sir Jitendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur in December 1922 in England, his eldest son Yuvaraj Kumar Jagaddipendra

Narayan (born on December 15, 1915) succeeded to the gadi at the age of 7, which necessitated a minority administration under the supervision of a Regent. His Highness belongs to the Kshatriya Varna of the origin. The present Maharaja has three wives: Maharajkumari Lia Devi (aetat 13), Maharajkumari Devji (aetat 8) and Menaka Devi (aetat 6). The Maharaja has one brother Maharajkumar Indrajit (aetat 9). Her Highness the Maharani

of Cooh Behar was appointed Regent under the wishes of the late Maharaja and administers the State on behalf of her minor son with a Council of Regency, comprising four members at present, of which Her Highness is the President. Cooh Behar once formed part of the famous Kingdom of Karmun. British connection with it began in 1772 when owing to invasions of the Bhutias, the assistance of the East India Company was invoked. The chief products of the State are rice, jute, mustard seed and tobacco. The capital is Cooh Behar, which is reached by the Cooh Behar State Railway, a branch of the Eastern Bengal State Railway System.

Tripura.—This State lies to the east of the district of Tippera and consists largely of hills covered with dense jungles. It has an area of 4,110 square miles and a population of 304,437. The revenue from the State is about 14 lakhs and from the Zemindari in British territory a slightly smaller sum. The present ruler is Maharaja Bir Bikram Kishore Deb Barman Manikya Bahadur, who is a Kshatriya by caste and comes of the Lumar race and is entitled to a salute of 13 guns. He succeeded the late Maharaja Barendra Kishore Manikya Bahadur on 13th August 1923 and is only 17 years of age. The military prestige of Tripura dates back to the fifteenth century and a mythical account of the State takes the history to an even earlier date. Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government, the State differs alike from the large Native States

of India, and from those which are classed as tributary. Besides being the ruler of Tripura, the Maharaja also holds a large landed property situated in the plains of the Districts of Tippera, Noakhali and Sylhet. This estate covers an area of 600 square miles, and is held to form with the State an indivisible Raj. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the past producing in times gone by disturbances and domestic wars, and exposing the inhabitants to serious disorders and attacks from the Kukis, who were always called in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The principles which govern succession to the State have recently, however, been embodied in a *sonad* which was drawn up in 1904. The chief products of the State are rice, cotton, tea and forest produce of various kinds, the traffic being carried chiefly by water. Owing to the fact that the Maharaja is too young to have full administrative powers the administration is conducted by a Council of Administration consisting of the following members:—

President.—Maharaj Kumar Navadwip Chandra Deb Barman. **Vice-President.**—Raj J. C. Sen Bahadur, (lent to the State by the British Government).

Malraj Kumar Brojendra Kishore Deb Barman and Thakur Protap Chandra Roy. **Members.**

The State Courts are authorised to inflict capital punishment.

Political Agent: Magistrate and Collector of Tippera (*ex-officio*).

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Under this Government there are the Chota Nagpur Feudatory States of Kharsawan and Saraikela, and the Orissa Feudatory States, 24 in number. The total area is 28,656 square miles, and the total population 3,931,322. The average revenue is Rs. 51,64,899. The inhabitants are hill-men of Kolarian or Dravidian origin and their condition is still very primitive. The chief of **Kharsawan** belongs to a junior branch of the Porahat Raja's family. The State first came under the notice of the British in 1793, when, in consequences of disturbances on the frontier of the old Jungle Mahals, the Thakur of Kharsawan and the Kunwar of Saraikela were compelled to enter into certain agreements relating to the treatment of fugitive rebels. The Chief is bound, when called upon, to render service to the British Government, but he has never had to pay tribute. His present *sanad* was granted in 1919. He exercises all administrative powers, executive and judicial, subject to the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through a part of the State. The adjoining State of Saraikela is held by the elder branch of the Porahat Raja's family.

Orissa Feudatory States.—This group of 24 dependent territories is situated between the Mahanadi Delta and the Central Provinces, and forms the mountainous background of Orissa. The names of the individual States are Athgarh, Talcher, Mayurbhanj, Nilgiri

Keonjhar, Pal Lahara, Dhenkanal, Athmalik Hindol, Narsinghpur, Baramba, Tigirra, Khanpara, Nayagarh, Rannpur, Daspalla and Band. To these there were added in 1905 the following States: Bamra, Bairakhol, Sonpur, Patna and Kalahandi from the Central Provinces and Gangpur and Bonal from the Chota Nagpur States. The total population is 3,777,374 with an average revenue of Rs. 78,80,124. The Feudatory States have no connected or authentic history. Comprising the western and hilly portion of the province of Orissa they were never brought under the central government, but from the earliest times consisted of numerous petty principalities which were more or less independent of one another. They were first inhabited by aboriginal races, who were divided into innumerable communal or tribal groups each under its own chief or headman. These carried on incessant warfare with their neighbours on the one hand and with the wild beasts of the forests on the other. In course of time their hill retreats were penetrated by Aryan adventurers, who gradually overthrew the tribal chiefs and established themselves in their place. Tradition relates how these daring interlopers, most of whom were Rajputs from the north, came to Puri on a pilgrimage and remained behind to found kingdoms and dynasties. It was thus that Jai Singh became ruler of Mayurbhanj over 1,300 years ago, and was succeeded by his eldest son, while his second

son seized Keonjhar. The Chiefs of Baud and Daspalla are said to be descended from the same stock; and a Rajput origin is also claimed by the Rajas of Athmalik, Narsinghpur, Pal Lahara, Talcher and Tigra. Nayagarh, it is alleged, was founded by a Rajput from Rewah, and a scion of the same family was the ancestor of the present house of Khondpara. On the other hand, the chiefs of a few States, such as Athgarh, Baramba and Dhenkanal, owe their origin to favourites or distinguished servants of the ruling sovereigns of Orissa. The State of Rampur is believed to be the most ancient, the list of its chiefs covering a period of over 3,600 years. It is noteworthy that this family is of Khond origin, and furnishes the only known instance in which, amid many vicissitudes, the supremacy of the original settlers has remained intact. The States acknowledged the suzerainty of the paramount power and were under an implied obligation to render assistance in resisting invaders; but in other respects neither the ancient kings of Orissa nor their successors, the Mughals and Marathas, ever interfered with their internal administration. All the States have annals of the dynasties that have ruled over them; but they are made up in most part of legend and fiction and long genealogical tables of doubtful accuracy, and contain very few features of general interest. The British conquest of Orissa from the Marathas, which took place in 1803, was immediately followed by the submission of ten of the Tribu-

tary States, the Chiefs of which were the first to enter into treaty engagements.

The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. They were taken over from the Marathas in 1803 with the rest of Orissa; but, as they had always been tributary states rather than regular districts of the native governments, they were exempted from the operation of the general regulation system. This was on the ground of expediency only and it was held that there was nothing in the nature of British relations with the proprietors that would preclude their being brought under the ordinary jurisdiction of the British courts, if that should ever be found advisable. In 1882 it was held that the States did not form part of British India and this was afterwards accepted by the Secretary of State.

The staple crop in these States is rice. The forests in them were at one time among the best timber producing tracts in India, but until lately forest conservancy was practically unknown. The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. The relations with the British Government are governed by sanads which, in the case of Gangpur and Bonai, were last revised in 1919 and in the case of the others in 1916. They

and Commissioner.

Political Agent and Commissioner: C. L. Philip

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Three States: Rampur, Tehri and Benares are included under this Government:—

State.	Area Sq. Miles.	Popu- lation.	Revenue in lakhs of Rupees
Rampur	892	453,607	54
Tehri (Garhwal)	4,500	318,482	12
Benares	875	362,735	26

Rampur State.—The State of Rampur was founded by Nawab Sayed Ali Mohammad Khan Bahadur in the middle of the 18th century and his dominions included a considerable portion of what is now known as Rohilkhand. The founder belonged to the famous Sayeds of the Bareilly clans in the Muzaffargarh district and was a statesman of remarkable ability. He rendered invaluable services to the Mughal Emperor who recognised him as Ruler of Rohilkhand.

Upon his death, his Kingdom underwent many vicissitudes and was considerably reduced in size during the reign of his son Nawab Sayed Fazlulla Khan Bahadur. The Province of Rohilkhand had now passed into the hands of the East India Company. He was most loyal and true to the British Government to whom he always looked up for help during those unsettled days and he gave tangible proof of his loyalty when during the war against France he offered all his cavalry 2,000 strong to the British Government in 1878

and received the following message of thanks from the then Governor-General:—

"That in his own name as well as that of the Board, he returned him the warmest thanks for this instance of his faithful attachment to the Company and the 'English Nation'."

Another opportunity arose for the ruler of Rampur to evince his steadfast loyalty and devotion to the Imperial Cause on the outbreak of the Mutiny of 1857. His Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Yusuf Ali Khan Bahadur occupied the Musnad of Rampur in those days. From the very start till peace was re-established in the country, he was lavish in his expenditure of men and money on the side of the British Government. He fought their battles, saved the lives of many Europeans whom he provided with money and other means of comfort and had so much established his reputation as a good administrator that he was placed in charge of the Moradabad district. These signal services were recognised by the Government by the grant of an *Ilaka* besides other marks of distinction.

The reign of the present ruler, His Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Mohammad Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur stands out unique in many ways. Rampur has made great strides in trade and commerce, and in fact in every walk of life. His Highness takes keen interest in education and has not only contributed handsome donations but makes annual grants to the various educational institutions.

He is no whit behind his compatriots in his loyalty to the British Government. The great War of 1914 found him foremost in offering his

The first below gives account of the area, population and revenue of the

Name.	Area in square miles.	Population (Census of 1921)
Bahawalpur	15,000	781,191
Dilaspur (Kahlur)	448	98,600
Chamba	3,216	141,867
Landkot	642	150,061
Jind	1,259	208,183
Kapurthala	630	284,270
Loharu	222	20,614
Valerkotla	108	80,232
Mandi	1,200	185,048
Nabha	928	263,321
Patiala	5,932	1,409,759
Sirmur (Nahan)	1,193	140,460
Suket	420	54,325
Total ..	31,264	4,008,040

Bahawalpur.—A Native State in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor General Punjab States Agency. Bahawalpur is situated between the Punjab and Rajputana. Latitude $26^{\circ}41'$ to $29^{\circ}22' 15''$, Longitude $70^{\circ}47'$ to $74^{\circ}1'$ and bounded on the North East by the District of Ferozepur; on the East and South by the Rajputana States of Bikaner and Jaisalmer; on the South West by Sind, and on the North West by the Indus and Sutlej rivers. Area 15,000 square miles.

This State is about 300 miles in length and about 40 miles wide, is divided lengthwise into three great strips. Of these, the first is a part of the Great Indian Desert; the central track is chiefly desert, not capable of cultivation identical with the Bar or Patuuplands of the Western Punjab; and the third, a fertile alluvial tract in the river valley is called the Sind. The ruling family is descended from the Abbasside Khalifas of Baghdad. The tribe originally came from Sind, and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Durrani empire in the Treaty of Lahore in 1809. Ranjit Singh was confined to the right bank of the Sutlej.

The first treaty with Bahawalpur was negotiated in 1833, the year after the treaty with Ranjit Singh for regulating traffic on the Indus. It secured the independence of the Nawab within his own territories and opened up the traffic on the Indus and Sutlej. During the first Afghan War the Nawab rendered assistance to the British and was rewarded by a grant of territory and life pension. On his death the succession was disputed and for a time the administration of the State was in the hands of the

authorities. The present Nawab Rukn-ud-Daula, Nasrit Nawab Sir Sadi Muhammad Abbasi V., K.C.V.O., who succeeded in 1907 the State was managed by which ceased to exist in the Nawab was invested with Highness is now assisted by his State by a Chief Minister, Bahadur, C.I.E., a Revenue Minister, Mr. J. B.A., LL.B., C.I.E., C.E.B., Minister, Moulvi Ghulam Hashim.

The chief crops are wheat Lahore-Karachi branch of State Railway passes through State supports an Imperial Infantry, in addition to capital is Bahawalpur, a 1748.

Income from all sources gauges spoken Multani or (Jatki), Sindhi and Marwari

Agent to the Governor-General Lieutenant-Colonel H. B. St

Chamba.—This State west and north by Kashmir south by the British district Gurdaspur, and it is shut side by lofty hill ranges is mountainous and is a sportsmen. It possesses a of copper plate chronicles have been comp

The history of Jind as a separate State dates from 1763, when Raja Ganga Singh, the maternal grandfather of Raja Sarup Singh, was the real grandson of the Raja of Jind, the ruler of his principality. He was succeeded by Raja Bhang Singh, who greatly assisted Lord Lake in 1803. His grandson Raja Sangat Singh was succeeded by the nearest male collateral Raja Sarup Singh in 1837. In the crisis of 1857 Raja Sarup Singh rendered valuable services to the British and was rewarded with a grant of nearly 600 square

Kapurthala.—This State consists of three detached pieces of territory in the great plain of the Jullundur Doab. The ancestors of the ruler held possessions both in the village of Ahluwalia, from which it takes the name of Ahluwalia. When the Jullundur Doab came under the dominion of the British Government in 1843, the estates north of the Sutlej were maintained in the independent possession of the Ahluwalia ruler, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash for the service he had previously rendered. This was remitted by the Government in perpetuity in (1934) in recognition of the splendid war record and uniformly efficient administration of the State. The Bari Doab estates are held by the head of the House as a jaghir in perpetuity, the civil and police administration in the hands of the British Government. The ruler was rewarded with a grant of other estates in Oudh, which yield a very large annual income. The present ruler is H. H. Maharaja Sir Jagatjit Singh Bahadur G.C.I.E., G.C.I.B., who was born in 1872 and succeeded in 1877. He was granted the title of Maharaja as an hereditary distinction in 1911. His salute was raised to 15 guns and he was made an Honorary Colonel of the 45th Sikhs. The Maharaja was recently decorated by the King of Egypt with the Grand Cordon of the Nile and the French Government has conferred on him the high distinction of Grand Officer of Legion d'Honneur. The rulers of Kapurthala are Sikhs and claim descent from Rana Kapur, a member of the Rajput House of Jaisalmer. Only a small proportion of the population however are Sikhs, the majority being Mahomedans. The chief crops are wheat, gram, maize, cotton and sugarcane. The town of Sultanpur in this State is famous for hand painted cloths. The main line of the North Western Railway passes through part of the State and the Grand Trunk Road runs parallel to it. A branch railway from Jullundur City to Peshawar passes through the State. The

Imperial Service and local troops of the State have been re-organized and are now designated as Kapurthala State Forces. The State Troops, the strength of which was raised during the Great War, served the Empire in that crisis in East Africa, Mesopotamia and on the Afghan Frontier. Primary education is free throughout the State, which spends a large proportion of its revenues on its education department. The State also possesses a Legislative Assembly which was created by the present Maharaja on the occasion of the Silver Jubilee of his reign in 1916. The capital is Kapurthala which has been embellished by the present Maharaja with a Palace of remarkable beauty and grandeur and with various buildings of public utility. The town boasts modern amenities such as electric light, water-works, etc.

Political Officer: The Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore.

Malir Kotla.—This State consists of a level sandy plain unbroken by a hill or stream, bounded by the district of Ludhiana on the north, by Patiala territory on the east and south and by the Ludhiana District, Patiala and Nabha territories on the west. The Rulers (Nawabs) of Malir Kotla are of "Kurd" descent who came originally from the Province of Sherwan and settled in the town of "Sherwan" north of Persia, and after settling for a time in Afghanistan near Ghazni came to India and settled at Malir, the old capital of the State in 1442. Originally they held positions of trust under the Lodhi and Moghal Emperors. As the Moghal Empire began to sink into decay they gradually became independent. They were in constant feuds with the newly created adjacent Sikh States. After the victory of Laswari, gained by the British over Sindhia in 1803 and the subjugation and flight of Holkar in 1805, when the Nawab of Malir Kotla joined the British Army, the British Government succeeded to the power of the Marhattas in the districts between the Sutlej and the Jumna. The State entered into political relations with the British Government in 1809. The present Ruler is Lt.-Col. His Highness Nawab Sir Ahmad Ali Khan Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1881 and succeeded in 1908. He was created Hon. Major in the Indian Army in June 1916 and promoted to the rank of Lt.-Col. in December 1919.

The chief products are cotton, sugar, poppy, unseed, mustard, ajwan, methi, tobacco, garlic, onions and all sorts of grains.

The State maintains Sappers, Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery. The capital is Malir Kotla. The population of the town is 30,000 souls. Annual revenue of the State is about 16 lakhs.

Mandi is an Indian State in the Punjab Political Agency lying in the upper reaches of Bias river which drains nearly all its area. Its area is 1,200 square miles and it lies between 31°-23' North Lat.; and 76°-22' East Long.; and is bounded on the east by Kulu; on the south by Suket and on the north and west by Kangra. It has an interesting history of considerable length which finally resulted in its entering into a treaty with the British in 1846 A.D.

The present Ruler, Lieutenant His Highness Raja Jogindar Sen Bahadur, assumed full powers in February 1926. His Highness was married to the only daughter of His Highness the Maharaja of Kapurthala in February 1923 and was blessed with the birth of an heir apparent in December 1923.

The Chief Executive Officer of the State is Captain Sardar Dina Nath, Bar-at-Law, who has been designated as His Highness' Chief Secretary. Construction work of the Kangra Valley Railway is in full swing. It is expected that the line will be open to traffic in April 1928. The Railway line will prove of considerable importance in linking Mandi with the Punjab and will materially develop its trade. The work of the Mandi Hydro-Electric Project is also in progress. This project when finished will supply electric power to practically the whole of the Punjab and will materially help in developing local industries.

The principal crops are rice, maize, wheat and millet. About three-fifths of the State are occupied by forests and grazing lands. It is rich in minerals. The capital is Mandi, founded in 1527, which contains several temples and places of interest and is one of the chief marts for commerce with Ladakh and Yarkand.

Nabha.—Nabha which became a separate State in 1768 is one of the 3 Phulkian States—Nabha, Patiala and Jind, and though second in point of population and revenue of the 3 sister States, it claims seniority being descended from the eldest branch. It consists of two distinct parts, the main portion comprising 12 separate pieces of territory scattered among the other Punjab States and Districts, forms the City of Nabha and the *Nizamat* of Phul and Amloh; the second portion forms the *Nizamat* of Bawal in the extreme south-east of the Punjab on the border of Rajputana. This *Nizamat* of Bawal was subsequently added to its territory as a reward from the British Government for the loyalty of the Rulers of Nabha. The State now covers an area of about 1,000 square miles and has a population of about 3 lakhs. The State supports one battalion of Imperial Service Infantry consisting of about 500 men. For the preservation of the peace there is a Police force consisting of about 500 men.

The State is traversed by the main and 3 branch lines of the N. W. Railway and the B. B. & C. I. crosses the *Nizamat* of Bawal. A portion of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind Canal. The crops of the State are gram, pulses, bajra, sugarcane, cotton, wheat and barley, to facilitate trade the Durbars have opened grain markets and Banks near the principal railway station within the State territory. The chief industries of the State consist of the manufacture of silver and gold ornaments, brass utensils, and cotton carpets, lace and gata, etc. There are some spinning factories and a cotton steam press in the State which are working successfully. In 1923 an inquiry was held into certain matters in dispute between the Patiala and the Nabha Durbars which showed that the Nabha Police had fabricated cases against persons connected with the Patiala State with the object of injuring them.

Nabha who was born in 1888 and succeeded his father in 1911 entered into an agreement with the Government of India whereby he voluntarily separated himself from the administration retaining his salute and titles and the control of the State was accordingly assumed by the Government of India.

Patiala.—This is the largest of the Phulkian States, and the premier State in the Punjab. Its territory is scattered and interspersed with small States and even single villages belonging to other States and British districts. It also comprises a portion of the Simla Hills and territory on the border of Jaipur and Alwar States. Area 5,932 square miles. Population 1,49,739. Gross income Rs. one crore and thirty-five lakhs. Its history as a separate State begins in 1762. The present Ruler, Major-General His Highness Farzand-i-Khas Daulat Singh Bahadur, K.C.M.G., K.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.I.D., was born in 1891 and succeeded in 1900, and assumed the reins of government in 1909 on attaining majority. His Highness the Maharaja Dhiraj enjoys at present personal salute of 19 guns and he and his successors the distinction of exemption from presenting Nazam to the Viceroy in Durbar in perpetuity. The principal crops are grain, barley, wheat, sugar-cane, rapeseed, cotton and tobacco. A great part of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind and Western Jumna Canal distributaries. It possesses valuable forests. The State is rich in antiquities, especially at Panjaur, Sunam, Sirhind, Bhatinda, Narvaul, etc. It has a Railway line of its own, known as Jajpura-Bhatinda Railway of 108 miles in length. Besides this the State has undertaken the construction of a broad gauge line about 40 miles in length to connect Sirhind and Rupar. This new line will be opened for traffic early in 1928. The North-Western Railway, the E. I. Railway, the B. B. & C. I. Railway and the J. B. Railway traverse the State. His Highness maintains a contingent of two regiments of cavalry and four battalions of infantry—one battery of Horse Artillery.

The State maintains a first grade college which imparts free education to all students. Primary education is also free throughout the State. The Durbar has recently sanctioned a scheme of compulsory education. Since the State has entered into alliance with the British Government in 1809, it has rendered help to the British Government on all critical occasions such as Gurkha War, Sikh War, Mutiny of 1857, Afghan War of 1878-79, Tirah and N. W. F. campaign of 1897. On the outbreak of the European War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King-Emperor and offered his personal services. The entire Imperial Service Contingent was on active service throughout the period of the War and served on

various fronts in Egypt, Gallipoli, Mesopotamia and Palestine, winning numerous distinctions. Two mule and one camel corps were raised and placed at the service of the British Government for the period of the War, and in addition to furnishing nearly 28,000 recruits for the British Indian Army and maintaining the State Imperial Service Contingent at full strength, contributed substantially in money and material.

His Highness was selected by His Excellency the Viceroy to represent the Ruling Princes of India at the Imperial War Conference and Imperial War Cabinet in June 1918 and during his stay in Europe His Highness paid visits to all the different and principal fronts in Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt (Palestine) and received the following decorations from the allied Sovereigns and Governments:—(a) Grand Cordon of the Order de Leopold, (b) Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, France, and (c) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy and (d) Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, (e) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania (f) Grand Cross of the Order of St. Saviour of Greece (1926).

Again in 1919 on the outbreak of hostilities with Afghanistan His Highness served personally on the frontier on the Staff of the General Officer Commanding, and the Imperial Service Contingent was on active service towards Kohat and Quetta fronts. For his services on the N. W. Frontier His Highness was mentioned in despatches. He was Elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes (Narendra Mandal) in 1925 and 1926 and represented Indian Princes at the League of Nations at Geneva in 1925.

Sirmour (Nahan).—This is a hilly State in the Himalayas under the Political control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore. Its history is said to date from the 11th century. In the eighteenth century the State was able to repulse the Gurkha invasion, but the Gurkhas were invited to aid in the suppression of an internal revolt in the State and they in turn had to be evicted by the British. In 1857 the Raja rendered valuable services to the British and during the second Afghan War he sent a contingent to the North-West Frontier. The present Chief is Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Amar Prakash Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.D. who was born in 1888 and succeeded in 1911. The main agricultural feature of the State is the recent development of the Kiarda Dun a fertile level plain which produces wheat, gram, rice, maize and other crops. The State forests are valuable and there is an iron foundry at Nahan which was started in 1887 but, being unable to compete with the imported iron is now used for the manufacture of sugar cane crushing mills. The State supports a Corps of Sappers and Miners which served in the Great War. It was captured with General Townshend's force at Kut-al-Amara but the Corps was reconstituted and sent to service.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA.

The States under this Government comprise the Shan States which are included in British India though they do not form part of Burma proper and are not comprised in the regularly

administered area of the Provinces and the Karen States which are not part of British India and are not subject to any of the laws in force in the Shan States or other parts of Burma.

The Shan States comprise the two isolated States of Hsawnghsup and Singaling Hkamti in the Upper Chindwin District under the supervision of the Commissioner, Sugaing Division, the eight petty village communities under separate hereditary Chiefs known as Hkamti Long in the Myitkyina District and the two main divisions of the Shan States known as the Northern and Southern Shan States numbering six and thirty-four States respectively which are under the Commissioner, Federated Shan States.

Hsawnghsup with an area of 529 square miles and a population of 7,043 lies between the 24 and 25 parallels of latitude and on the 95 parallel of longitude between the Chindwin river and the State of Manipur.

Singaling Hkamti has an area of 983 square miles and a population of 2,287 and lies on the 26th and 90th parallels of latitude and longitude respectively.

The Hkamti Long States have an area of 200 square miles with a population of 6,520 and lie between the 27th and 28th parallels of latitude on the Upper Waters of the N'Mun branch of the Irrawaddy.

The Northern Shan States (area 30,156 square miles and population 592,813) and the Southern Shan States (area 36,157 square miles and population 847,618), form with the unadministered Wa States (area about 2,000 square miles) and the Karenin States, a huge triangle lying roughly between the 19th and 24th parallels of latitude and the 96th and 102nd parallels of longitude with its base on the plains of Burma and its apex on the Mekong river.

The population consists chiefly of Shans who belong to the Shan group of the Tai Chinese family; the remainder belong chiefly to the Wa-palaung and Mon Khamer groups of races of the Austro-Asiatic branch of the Austro family, or to the Karen family which Sir George Grierson now proposes to separate from the Tai Chinese family. There are also a number of Kachins and others of the Tibeto-Burman family. The Shans themselves shade off imperceptibly into a markedly Chinese race on the frontier. Buddhism and Animism are the principal religions.

The climate over so large an area varies greatly. In the narrow lowlying valleys the heat in summer is excessive. Elsewhere the summer shade temperature is usually 80 to 90 Fahr. In winter frost is severe on the paddy plains and open downs but the temperature on the hills is more equable. The rainfall varies from 50 to 100 inches in different localities.

The agricultural products of the States are rice, pulses, maize, buckwheat, cotton, sesamum, groundnuts, oranges and pineapples.

Land is held chiefly on communal tenure but unoccupied land is easily obtainable on lease from the Chiefs in accordance with special rules from non-natives of the States. Great spaces of the States are suitable for cattle, pony and mule breeding and in the Northern States Chinese settlers appear to have found the latter a very paying proposition.

The mineral resources of the States are still unexplored. The Burma Corporation have a concession for silver and lead in the Northern States which they claim to be the richest in the world. The Mawson area in the Southern States is also rich in lead. Ignite and iron ore of a low grade are found in many places.

Lashio, the headquarters of the Northern Shan District, is the terminus of the Mawson-Lashio Branch of the Burma Railway (178 miles) and is also connected with Mandalay by a cart road.

The Burma Corporation's narrow gauge private railway track 46 miles long connects their Bawdwin mine with the Burma Railway system at Namyo.

The Southern Shan States are served by the Burma Railways branch line Thazi to Hcho (87 miles) which it is proposed to extend shortly to Payaw in the Yawngwe plain.

Taunggyi, the headquarters of the Southern Shan States, is connected with Thazi by a well-graded motor track. The States vary much in size and importance. The largest State is Kengtung with an area of 12,400 square miles and population 208,761. The smallest State is Namtok with an area of 14 square miles and population 830.

Hsipaw with an area of 4,400 square miles and population 131,410 is the richest State with a gross revenue of Rs. 8,30,805.

The Sawbwas of Kengtung, Hsipaw and Yawngwe and Mongnai have salutes of nine guns while the Tawngpeng Sawbwa has a personal salute of the same number.

Administration.

Under the Burma Laws Act, 1898, the Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration of every Shan State is vested in the Chief of the State subject to the restrictions specified in the sanad of appointment granted to him and under the same Act the law to be administered in each State is the customary law of the State so far as it is in accordance with justice, equity and good conscience and not opposed to the law in force in the rest of British India. The customary law may be modified by the Governor who has also power to appoint officers to take part in the administration of any State and to regulate the powers and proceedings of such officers. The Chiefs are bound by their sanads to follow the advice or the Superintendents appointed but subject to certain modifications which have been made in the customary law relating to criminal and civil justice have more or less maintained the semi-independent status which was found existing at the annexation of Upper Burma.

In 1920, Sir Reginald Cradock, Lieutenant Governor of Burma, proposed a scheme for the sanction of the Secretary of State under which the Chiefs of the Northern and Southern Shan States have agreed to federalise the departments of Government in which they had been previously largely dependent on contributions from the Provincial Funds. Under this scheme no interference is contemplated in the internal management of the States and the Chiefs continue to collect their taxes and be responsible for law and order maintain Opiates to the

d po a q n a d p p o n
own affe a d to h p p o n
sub und th Su. c. n.
and n. Du. m. Federation is responsible
for the centralised Departments of Public
Works, Medical, Forestry, Education, Agriculture
and to a sufficient Police. In place of the
individual tribute formerly paid by them the
Chiefs contribute to the Federation a proportion
of their revenue which amounts roughly
to the expenditure hitherto incurred by them
on the heads of administration now centralised
while the Provincial Government surrenders to
the Federation all provincial revenue previously
derived from the States and makes an annual
contribution to enable it to maintain its
services at the same degree of efficiency
formerly enjoyed. The Federation on the
other hand pays a fixed proportion of its
revenue to the Provincial Treasury as tribute
in place of the individual contributions of the
Chiefs. Under this scheme the Federation is a
sub-entity of the Burma Government, is self-
contained and responsible for its own progress.
The Chiefs express their views on Federal and
general matters through a Council of Chiefs
consisting of all Chiefs of the rank of Sawbwa
and four elected representatives of the lesser
Chiefs. The Superintendents, Northern Shan
States and the Commissioner of the Federated
Shan States to whom the supervision of the
Federation has been entrusted are ex-officio
members of the Council. The scheme was
sanctioned and brought into force with effect
from October 1932. The first meeting of the
Council of Chiefs was formally opened by His

The n y h Gov no S Spe Har, our
Bu m GO, K.C.S., & C.S., in March 1922

Karenni.

This district which formerly consisted of five
States now consists of three as two have been
annexed to the British. It has a total area
of 1,000 square miles and a population of 46,780
of the Southern Shan
States between Siam and the British district of
Loupoo. The largest State is Kantarawadi
with an area of 3,000 square miles and a
population of 36,821 and a revenue of nearly
15 lakhs of rupees. More than half of the
inhabitants are Red Karens. An Assistant
Political Officer is posted at Loilem subject
to the supervision of the Superintendent
Southern Shan States, who exercises in practice
much the same control over the Chiefs as is
exercised in the Shan States though nominally
they are more independent than their Shan
neighbours. Mineral and forest rights however
in Karenni, belong to the Chiefs and not to the
Government. In the past substantial contribu-
tions from Provincial revenues have been made
to the Karenni Chiefs for education and medical
service. The Chiefs are at present unwilling to
surrender their special rights and join the Shan
States Federation though very considerable
advantages might accrue from their doing so.

The principal wealth of the country used to
be in its teak timber and a large alien popula-
tion was at one time supported by the timber
trade. This has largely declined in the last
few years and unless the Chiefs are prepared to
deny themselves and close their forests they will
soon disappear.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM.

Manipur.—The only State of importance,
under the Government of Assam is Manipur
which has an area of 8,450 square miles and
a population of 3,84,018 (1921 Census), of which
about 60 per cent. are Hindus and 34 per cent.
animistic hill tribes. Manipur consists of a
great tract of mountainous country, and a valley
about 50 miles long and 20 miles wide, which
is shut in on every side. The State adopted
Hinduism in the early eighteenth century, in the
reign of Pamheiba or Garib Nawaz, who
subsequently made several invasions into
Burma. On the Burmese retreating, Manipur
negotiated a treaty of alliance with the British
in 1782. The Burmese again invaded Manipur
during the first Burmese war, and on the con-
clusion of peace in 1826 Manipur was declared
independent. The chief event in its subsequent
history was the intervention of the British in
1891 to establish the claim of Kula Chandra
Singh as Maharaja, followed by the treacherous
murder of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quilton,
and the officers with him, and the withdrawal of
his escort which accompanied him. From 1891
to 1907 the State was administered by the
Political Agent, during the minority of H. H.
Chura Chand Singh. The Raja was invested
with the regency in 1907 and formally installed
in 1914. Since then the State has been ruled by
the Raja, who is assisted during the absence of
the Raja by a Council of Maharajas was

conferred on him. He is entitled to a salute of
11 guns.

The administration of the State is now con-
ducted by H. H. the Maharaja, assisted by a
Darbar, which consists of a President, who
is a member of the Indian Civil Service, his
services being lent to the State by the Assam
Government, three ordinary and three additional
members, who are all Manipuris. The staple
crop of the country is rice. Forests of various
kinds cover the great part of the mountain
ranges.

Khasi and Jaintia Hills.—These petty
chiefships, 25 in number, with a total area
of about 3,900 square miles and a population
of 136,000, are included under the Government
of Assam. Most of the States have treaties
or engagement with the British Government.
The largest of them is Jhymra, the smallest
is Nongwa, which has a population of only
246. Most of them are ruled by a Chief or Siem.
The Siemship usually remains in one family.
The succession was originally controlled
by a small electoral body constituted from the
heads of certain clans but in recent
years there has been a tendency to broaden
the elective basis. The constitution of a
Khasi State has always been of a very demo-
cratic character, a Siem exercising but little
control over his people.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES

The Central Provinces include fifteen feudatory States subordinate to the Government with an area of 31,072 square miles and a population of 2,067,292. One of the States, Makral, lies within Boshangabad District; the remainder are situated in the Chhattisgarh Division, to the different districts of which they were formerly attached. Their relations with the Government are administered by a Political Agent. The States vary in size and importance. Bastar, with an area of 13,062 square miles and Bastar, the largest, an area of 13,062 square miles. They are administered by hereditary chiefs, who hold on conditions of loyalty and good government set forth in patents and

the Governor's confirmation. But, as a fact, the Government has exercised a very large amount of control, owing mainly to the frequency with which the States have been taken under direct management, because of either the minority or the misconduct of the chief.

The States pay a tribute to Government which amounts in the aggregate to about 2½ lakhs.

Statistics relating to the chief States are contained in the following table:—

State.	Area.	Population. 1921.	Revenue (approximate) in Lakhs.
	Sq. Miles.		Rs.
Bastar ..	13,062	464,137	8
Jashpur ..	1,963	154,156	2
Kanker ..	1,420	124,928	4
Khairagarh ..	931	124,008	5
Nandgaon ..	871	147,910	3
Raigarh ..	1,486	241,634	6
Surguja ..	6,055	378,226	6
Eight other States ..	5,284	432,284	13
Total ..	31,072	2,067,292	53

Bastar.—This State, which lies to the south-east corner of the Provinces, is the most important of the group. It has an area of 13,062 square miles and a population of 464,137. The family of the Raja is very ancient, and is stated to belong to the Rajputs of the Lunar race. Up to the time of the Marathas, Bastar occupied an almost independent position, but a tribute was imposed on it by the Nagpur Government in the eighteenth century. At

this period the constant wars between Bastar and the neighbouring States kept the country for many years in a state of anarchy. The chief object of the British was to keep the Kotpad tract, which lies to the west of Bastar, but had to be given for assistance given by the British. The Bastar chiefs during the British period. The Central Government finally made this arrangement on condition of payment of two-thirds of which sum the amount payable by the Bastar chiefs of this arrangement the amount was until recently, reduced. The cultivation of the State is Rice is the most important crop. Under Government management the administrator of the State is an Officer of the State on deputation who has assistants under him. After a disturbance the State has been brought to tranquillity and precautions to remove all causes of disturbance. The minor States are Jagdalpur on the Indravati, which falls on the Indravati, 23 miles away from Jagdalpur.

Surguja.—Until 1900 Surguja was an important feature in the history of the State. The early history is obscure; but according to tradition, the present Raja is Palamanu, the present Raja is to be descended from a Raja of Palamanu. In 1768 a Maratha Raja, and compelled its Raja to become a tributary of the British. At the end of the eighteenth century the Chief had fled to Palamanu against the British. The British entered Surguja; and, the Raja was restored, disputes between the Chief and the British. The British interference in Surguja continued to be a source of lawlessness; but in 1818 the British Government concluded an agreement with the Raja of Surguja, Bhonsla of Berar, and the Raja of Surguja. The principal crops are cereals. The present Raja is Maharaja Ramanuj Sarma, who succeeded to the full powers of a Ruling

JAMMU AND KASHMIR STATE.

The territory known generally as the Jammu and Kashmir State lies between 32° and 37° N and 73° and 80° E. It is an almost entirely mountainous region with a strip of level land along the Punjab Border, and its mountains, valleys and lakes comprise some of the grandest scenery in the world. The State may be divided physically into three areas: the upper, comprising the area drained by the River Indus and its tributaries; the middle, drained by the Jhelum and Kishenganga Rivers; and the lower

area, consisting of the southern border, and its area. The dividing lines between the snow-bound mountains and the snow-bound ranges known as the Zaskar. The area of the State is 14,000 square miles. Beginning in the south with the Punjab ends, it extends to the high Karakoram mountains. The Empires Meet."

[illegible]

Fluorimetry: 25°C, 100% MeOH, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 312$, $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 348$ nm.

HISTORY.—Various historians and poets have left more or less trustworthy records of the history of the Valley of Kashmir and the adjacent regions. In 1586 it was annexed to the Moghul Empire by Akbar, Shikhar, the Capital, originally known as Pravarapura, had by then been long established though many of the fine buildings said to have been erected by early Hindu rulers had been destroyed by the Mahommedans who first penetrated into the Valley in the fourteenth century. In the reign of Akbar, who was a contemporary of Tamerlane, a large number of Hindus was converted to Islam. Jeinagar had much to beautify the Valley but after Aurangzeb there was a period of disorder and decay and by the middle of the eighteenth century the Suba or Governor of Kashmir had become practically independent of Delhi. Thereafter the country experienced the oppression of Afghan rule until it was rescued in 1819 by an army sent by Maharaja Ranjit Singh. The Sikh rule was less oppressive than that of the Afghans. The early history of the State as at present constituted is that of Maharaja Shri Gulab Singhji, a scion of the old Ruling Family of Jammu, who rose to eminence in the service of Maharaja Ranjit Singh of Lahore and was, in recognition of his distinguished services, made Raj of Jammu in 1820. He held aloof from the war between the British and the Sikhs, only

to him the money or the bulk of the land made over to him in return for security-five lakhs of rupees. His son, His Highness Maharaja Bahadur Singhji, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.N., a model Hindu and one of the staunchest allies of the British Government, ruled from 1867 to 1895. He did much to consolidate his possessions and evolve order in the frontier districts. He was succeeded by his eldest son His Highness Maharaja Sir Pratap Singhji, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.N., G.O.R., who died on 23rd December 1925 and was succeeded by His Highness the present Maharaja, Sri Kirtivishaji Bahadur.

The most notable reform effected in the State during the reign of the late Moharrja was the Land Revenue Settlement originally carried out under Lawrie and continued by the late

In the Douglas the State has splendid material for the Army which consists of 7,798 troops. Besides this, thousands of Douglas serve in the Indian Army.

FINANCE.—The financial position of the State is strong. The total revenue is about Rs. 2,25,00,000; the chief sources being land, forests, customs and excise and Sericulture. There is a big reserve and no debt.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY.—The population is pre-eminently agricultural and pastoral. The principal food crops are rice, maize and wheat. Oilseed is also an important crop. Barley, cotton, saffron, tobacco, beans, walnuts, almonds and hops are also grown. Peas and apples, the principal fruits of the Valley, are exported in large quantities. The State forests are extensive and valuable. The principal species of timber trees are deodar, blue pine and fir. The most valuable forests occur in Kishtwar, Karamah and Kauraj Nagas. A survey of the mineral resources of the State is being conducted under an expert. The most noteworthy minerals are bauxite, coal, fuller's earth, kiesel, slate, zinc, copper and talc. Gold is found in Balthistan and Gilgit, sapphires in Mir. The silk culture in Skardu and lead in its kind in the world. Manufacture of silk has been a very ancient industry in Kashmir. Zain-ul-Abidin who ruled from 1481 to 1472 is said to have imported silk weavers from Khurasan and settled them here. Woollen cloth, shawls, paper machi and wood carving of the State are world-famous. The State participated in the British Empire Exhibition of 1924. The Kashmir Courts was styled "The Gem Of The Mountain Courts" and attracted many visitors.

COMMUNICATIONS.—Great efforts have been made and are being made towards the improvement of roads for wheeled traffic in the State. The Jhelum Valley road (199 miles) which links the Kashmir Valley with the Punjab and the North-Western Frontier Province is considered to be one of the finest motorable mountain roads in the world.

The Bambal Cart Road, 206 miles long, which has recently been completed, joins Kashmir with the North Western Railway system at Jammu-Tawi and is also a fine motorable road. Roads for pack animals have been built

Roads for pack animals lead from Srinagar, the summer capital of Kashmir, to the frontier districts of Gilgit and Ladakh. Internal village communications have also been much improved. The Jammu-Srinagar road has been

The Jammu-Suket-Rath railway, a section of the Wazirabad-Sialkot branch line of the North Western Railway system, is the only Railway in the State. The mountainous nature of the country has made the extension of the line into the heart of the State a difficult task.

the heart of the State so far impracticable,
PUBLIC WORKS.—In 1864 a flood spill channel
above Schuagar was constructed to minimize
the constant danger of floods in the River
Jhelum and it was hoped that the danger would
be still further reduced by the carrying out of a
scheme for lowering a part of the bed of the
River Jhelum by dredging, which has been taken
in hand. It is interesting to know that dredging
operations were once before carried out in the

reign of Atanivarman (A.D. 855-883) by his engineer Suyya near Sopore, with the same object. Good progress has been made with irrigation but the most important scheme of recent years has been the installation of a large Electric Power Station on the Jhelum River at Mahora which was completed in 1917.

POPULATION.—Of the total population of 3,269,527 excluding the frontier tracts where

THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES.

The Report on Indian constitutional reform by Mr. Montagu and Lord Chelmsford stated that it was desired to call into existence a permanent consultative body which would replace the conference of Princes which had periodically met at the invitation of the Viceroy. After pointing out the need for regular meetings of the Council, the Report said:—"We contemplate that the Viceroy should be **president**, and should as a rule preside, but that in his absence one of the Princes should be chairman. The rules of business would be framed by the Viceroy after consultation with the Princes, who might from time to time suggest modifications in the rules."

It was further suggested in the joint report that the Council of Princes should be invited annually to appoint a small **standing committee** to which the Viceroy or the Political Department might refer decisions affecting the Native States, particularly questions dealing with custom or usage. The Joint Report also made recommendations for the appointment of commissions to inquire into disputes in which Native States might be concerned and into cases of misconduct, and for arranging for joint deliberation on matters of common interest between the Council of State and the Council of Princes.

At the end of January 1919 a Conference of the Ruling Princes was held at Delhi, to consider this scheme. The subject which gave rise to the longest discussion was the proposal in the Reform Scheme to divide the Native States into two categories, those possessing "full powers" of internal Government and those not having such powers. Some of the Princes held that membership of the Council of Princes should be limited to the rulers enjoying full powers, whilst others considered that some measure of representation ought to be given to the smaller States; and the Conference came to no agreement on the matter. The proposal to institute a Council of Princes received, however, general support, and it was suggested that the new House should be called the **Narendra Mandal** (House of Princes.)

The recommendations of the Conference were then placed before the Secretary of State, and in the next Conference held in November 1919, Lord Chelmsford propounded a general scheme for a Chamber of Princes approved by His Majesty's Government. The Conference after debating the question passed a resolution warmly accepting the scheme and expressing an earnest hope that the Chamber might be brought into existence during the ensuing year. On the occasion of the **formal inauguration** of the Chamber of Princes Lord Chelmsford, describing how he enlisted the advice and criticism of the Codification Committee of Princes which had been appointed by the Conference and how

literary is not recorded, there are 72,228 persons who are able to read and write, of whom 4,097 only are females. In other words, 26 out of every 1,000 persons aged five or more can read and write. Among males 46 in every 1,000 can do so. The number of educational institutions including two Arts colleges and two technical institutes is 784 and is being steadily increased.

with their assistance the drafts of the Constitution of the Chamber with the first Regulations and Rules of Business, and the draft resolution concerning Courts of Arbitration and Commissions of Enquiry were moulded into practical shape, explained that difficulties had arisen in the selection of a suitable Indian designation for the Chamber which would for the present be known by the English title of the Chamber of Princes, and pointed out the importance of the working of the Chamber. The first of the principles on which the Chamber was to be based was the absolute prohibition of the discussion in the Chamber of the internal affairs of individual States and the actions of individual Rulers. The main function of the Chamber was to discuss matters affecting the States generally or of common concern to the States and to British India or the Empire at large. As regards the question of direct relations between the Government of India and the important States, a recommendation had been made to the Secretary of State for the transfer of the more important States in the Bombay Presidency, according to a scheme prepared by a special Committee, to be carried into effect at some future date, when the conditions appear to be favourable. A scheme would also shortly be placed before His Majesty's Government for the bringing of the important States of the Punjab into direct relations with the Government of India as soon as the necessary arrangements could be made. Gwalior State would soon be brought into direct touch with the Central Government through a Resident who would be independent of the Central India Agency and some of the Rajputana States which were formerly in relations with a Local Resident, were now in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana.

The Chamber was formally inaugurated by the Duke of Connaught on February 8th, 1921, and has quickly developed a vigorous life. Its Presidential duties are entrusted to an elected Chancellor, now B. H. the Maharajah of Bikaner and its detailed business is attended to by an elected Standing Committee of six members. This meets twice or thrice a year at the headquarters of the Government of India and one of its most important functions is to discuss with the various Departments of that Government matters in which the Administrations of both the States and British India are concerned. Important questions of this class which have recently received attention are the division of revenue from Customs and Posts and Telegraphs and the control of the Police on railway lines running for considerable distances through State territory. The Committee reports to the Chamber, which meets annually. The number of Princes who attended the last meeting was between forty and fifty. Its proceedings have hitherto always been conducted in private.

Indian States' Tribute.

Many of the States pay tribute, varying in amount according to the circumstances of each case, to the British Government. This tribute is frequently due to exchanges of territory or settlement of claims between the Governments, but is chiefly in lieu of former obligations to supply or maintain troops. The actual and virtual tributaries of the British Government in India are summarised in the following table, and the relations of the States to one another in respect of tributes are explained in the following pages. It may, however, be useful to mention here that the States of Baroda and Gujarat pay tribute of some kind to Baroda, and that Gwalior claims tribute from some of the smaller States of Central India:—

States paying tribute directly to the Government of India.

	E
Tribute from Jaipur	26,867
" " Kotah	15,848
" " Udaipur	12,339
" " Jodhpur	8,584
" " Bardi	8,000
" " Other States	15,170
Contribution of Rajasthan towards cost of United Malwa Contingent	7,867
" of	18,330
" of	10,753
" of	9,142
Contributions towards cost of Malwa Phil Corps	2,830
<i>Central Provinces and Berar.</i>	
Tribute from various States	15,490
<i>Burma.</i>	
Tributes from Shan States	28,524
" " other States	1,867
<i>Assam.</i>	
Tribute from Manipur	833
" " Kamrui	7
<i>Nagpur.</i>	
Tribute from Cooh Behar	4,514
<i>United Provinces.</i>	
Tribute from Benares	14,000
" " Kapurtihla (Bahraich)	6,785
<i>Punjab.</i>	
Tribute from Mamli	8,667
" " other States	3,056
<i>Mauras.</i>	
Tribute from Travancore	53,333
Peshkash and subsidy from Mysore	233,333
" " " " Cochin	13,333
" " " " Travancore	833
<i>Bombay.</i>	
Tribute from Kathiawar	31,129
" " various petty States	2,825
Contribution from Baroda State	25,000
" " Jagirdars, Southern Mahratta Country	5,765
Tribute from Cutch	5,484

It was announced at the Corporation Dinner of 1944 that there would in future be no Nazisland payments on successions.

Foreign Possessions in India.

Portugal and France both hold small territorial possessions in the Indian Peninsula.

The Portuguese possessions in India, all of which are situated within the limits of Bombay Presidency, consist of the Province of Goa on the Arabian Sea Coast, the territory of Daman with the small territory called Pragana-Nagar-

Avelo on the Gujarat Coast, at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay; and the little island of Diu, with two places called Gogla and Simbor on the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula. All these three territories constitute what is called the State of India.

GOA.

Goa forms a compact block of territory surrounded by British districts. Savantwadi State lies to the north of it, the Arabian Sea on the west and North Kanara on the south, and the eastern boundary is the range of the Western Ghats, which separates it from the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara. The extreme length from north to south is 62 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles. The territory has a total area of 1,301 square miles and consists of the *Velhas Conquistas*, or Old Conquests, comprising the island of Goa, acquired by the Portuguese in 1510, and the neighbouring municipalities of Salsette, Bardez, and Mormugao acquired in 1543; and of the *Novas Conquistas*, or New Conquests, comprising the municipalities of Pernem, Sanguelim, Ponda, Quepem, Canacona, Satari and Sangem acquired in the latter half of the 18th century. The small island of Anjediva situated opposite the port of Karwar, in the British district of North Kanara, forms administratively a portion of the Canacona municipality. This was acquired in 1505. The whole country is hilly, especially the eastern portion, the predominating physical feature being the Western Ghats, which besides bounding the country along the north-east and south-east, jut off westward and spread across the country in a succession of spurs and ridges. There are several conspicuous isolated peaks, of which the highest, Sonsagar, is 3,827 feet high.

The country is intersected by numerous rivers running westward from the Ghats, and the principal eight, which are all navigable, are in size of some importance. Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bardez and Salsette. Half-way between these extremities lies the *cabo*, or cape, which forms the extremity of the island of Goa. This divides the whole bay into two anchorages, known as Aguada and Mormugao. Both are capable of accommodating the largest shipping from September to May, but Aguada is virtually closed during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea and to the formation of sand bars across the estuary of the Mandovi river, which opens into Aguada. Mormugao is accessible at all times and is therefore the harbour of commercial importance. It is the terminus of the railway running to the coast from the inland British system of lines. A breakwater and port have been built there and the trade is considerable being chiefly transit trade from British territory. The international transit of Mormugao port was in 1928 about Rs 440 lakhs.

The People.

The total population of Goa was 531,932 at the census of 1921. This gives a density of 408 persons to the square mile and the population in 1921 was 19 per cent more than

census ten years previously. In the Vllhas Conquistas the majority of the population is Christian. In the Novas Conquistas Hindus are more numerous than Christians. The Muslims in the territory are numbered in a few thousands. The Christians still very largely adhere to caste distinctions, claiming to be Brahmans, Charades and low castes, which do not intermarry. The Hindus who form about one-half of the total population are largely Maratha and do not differ from those of the adjacent, Konkani districts of Bombay. All classes of the people, with the exception of Europeans, use the Konkani dialect of Marathi with some admixture of Portuguese words. The official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns as well as by all educated people. Nearly all the Christians profess the Roman Catholic religion and are spiritually subject to an archbishop who has the titles of Primate of the East and Patriarch of the East Indies and exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction also over a great portion of British India, and the provinces of Macao (China) and Timor (Oceania), with missions in foreign countries and Mocimboque (Portuguese East Africa). Properly in the territory of the Portuguese India, there are the Dioceses of Goa (Archdiocese) and Daman, besides those spread out of the territory. (The Christians of Daman and Diu are subject to a Bishop who bears the titles of Bishop of Daman and Arch-bishop of Cranganore.) There are numerous churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The churches are in charge of secular priests. Hindus and Mahomedans now enjoy perfect freedom in religious matters and have their own places of worship. In the early days of Portuguese rule the worship of Hindu gods in public and the observance of Hindu usages were strictly forbidden and rigorously suppressed.

The Country.

A little over one-third of the entire territory of Goa is stated to be under cultivation. The fertility of the soil varies considerably according to quality, situation and water-supply. The *Velhas Conquistas* are as a rule better and more intensively cultivated than the *Novas Conquistas*. In both these divisions a holding of fifteen or sixteen acres would be considered a good sized farm but the majority of holdings are of much smaller extent varying from half an acre to five or six acres. The staple produce of the country is rice, of which there are two good harvests, but the quantity produced is barely sufficient to meet the needs of the population for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of coconut palms is deemed most important, or the variety of crops to which the

are applied. Billy places and inferior soils are set apart for the cultivation of cereals and several kinds of fruits and vegetables are cultivated to an important extent. The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has improved during recent years, owing to the general rise in the prices of all classes of agricultural produce and partly to the current of emigration to British territory. There is a great shortage of agricultural labour in the Velhas Conquistas, and the cultivation of new fields is now practically controlled by the Hindu population. In the summer months bands of artisans and field labourers from the adjoining British territory make their way into Bardez where the demand for labour is always keen. Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. They cover an area of 116 square miles and are under conservation and yield some profit to the administration. Iron is found in parts of the territory; but has not been seriously worked. Manganese also exists and was worked to an important extent a few years ago.

Commerce.

In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepot of commerce between East and West and was specially famous for its trade in horses with the Persian Gulf. It lost its commercial importance with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire and its trade is now insignificant.

The present trade of Goa is not very large. Its imports amount to about Rs. 160 lakhs and exports to about Rs. 40 lakhs. The discrepancy is met from the money sent to Goa by the many emigrants who are to be found all over the world. Few manufacturing industries of any moment exist and most manufactured articles in use are imported. Exports chiefly consist of coconuts, betel nuts, mangoes and other fruits and raw produce.

A line of railway connects Mormugao with the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Its length from Mormugao to Castle Rock above the Ghats where it joins the British system is 61 miles, of which 49 are in Portuguese territory. The railway is under the management of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway administration, and the bulk of the trade of Mormugao port is what it brings down from and takes to the interior. The telegraphs in Portuguese territories are worked as a separate system from the British. The latter, however, had an office at Nova-Goa maintained jointly by the two Governments but since 1923 the Nova-Goa office has been handed over to the Portuguese Government which now maintains and works all the telegraphs in its territories.

Taxes and Tariffs.

The country was in a state of chronic financial equilibrium for nearly sixty years with occasional excursions. The last war enhanced the deficits to alarming proportions and these were met by fresh taxes and new loans. Most of the new taxes were the result of the initiative of the Governor-General Jalme de Moura, who is popularly known as the "Governor of Taxes." Only in 1927 the country experienced the joys of a balanced budget and the public servants whose salaries had always remained in arrears are now being paid regularly. There is an estimated surplus of about a lakh and a half which has been on-warded or earmarked for the indus-

trial progress of the country. If municipal and national taxes be added together, the country presents a very high incidence of taxation, even higher than that of British India the average coming to about Rs 5-8 per capita. There is no income-tax, except for government servants, but there is a special ten per cent tax on all incomes derived in the shape of interest on loans. This tax is a powerful contributory cause to the flight of capital from Portuguese India. The chief sources of revenue are the land tax, Excise and the customs. There is a special tax on emigrants which yields to the State about Rs 6,000. The country being economically backward, the taxes give very little indication of its productive capacity or of its annual wealth. The national wealth is a matter of pure conjecture for lack of statistics.

The tariff schedule is based on the three fold principle, fiscal, protective and preferential. There is a limited free list on which books and paper figure prominently. The fiscal tariff ranges from 10 to 40 per cent, according to the nature of the commodities, but the duties in several cases are specific, not *ad valorem*. This causes considerable hardship to trade, and specially to the poorer classes of consumers. The preferential tariff applies to goods coming from Lisbon and the Portuguese Colonies. Very recently the principle of protection has been extended to the export of canned fruit, which are entitled to a bounty of 10 per cent on their basic price.

The Capital.

Nova-Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjim and Ribandar. Old Goa is some six miles distant from the new city. Panjim occupies a narrow strip of land leading up to the Cabo, the cape dividing the Aguada bay from that of Mormugao, and mainly slopes down to the edge of the Aguada. It was selected as the residence of the Portuguese Viceroy in 1750, and in 1843 it was raised to its present rank as the capital of Portuguese India. The appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, as seen from the water is very picturesque and this impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads, bordered by decent, tidy houses. The most imposing public structures are the barracks, an immense quadrangular building the eastern wing of which accommodates the Primary School, the Public Library and the Government Press. Other noticeable buildings are the Cathedral and various churches, the vice-regal palace, the High Court and so on. The square in the lower part of the town is adorned with a life-sized statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy.

History.

Goa was captured for the Portuguese by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510. Albuquerque promptly fortified the place and established Portuguese rule on a firm basis. From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance and became the metropolis of Portuguese power in the East. There was constant fighting with the armies of the Bijapur Kingdom, but the Portuguese held their own and gained the surrounding territory now known as the Velhas Conquistas.

The British and Dutch Governments had as their aim the attainment of prosperity at the end of the sixteenth century. The accounts of travellers show that the Goa of those days presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the British capitals of India. Portugal, however, with its three millions of population was too small to defend itself against Spain and maintain at the same time its immense Empire in the four Continents. Albuquerque tried to consolidate Portuguese rule in India by his policy of attracting the conquered Indians and granting them civil and religious liberties. His contemporaries, however, could not understand his far-seeing statesmanship and after his death they undid all his work basing their dominion on conquest by the sword and military force and they laboured to consolidate it by a proselytising organisation which throws all the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. Old Goa, as the ruins of the old capital are called to-day, had a hundred churches, many of them of magnificent proportions, and the Inquisition which was a power in the land. The sixty years' subjection to Spain in the 17th century completed the ruin of the Portuguese Empire in the East and though the Marquis of Pombal in the 18th century tried to stave off its decadence his subordinates in far off India either could not understand or would not carry out his orders and even his strong hand was unable to stop the decline. It was in the 18th century that the colonials began to enjoy full Portuguese citizenship and sent their representatives to the Parliament in Lisbon.

Modern Times.

There was frequently recurring fighting and in 1741 the Marathas invaded the neighbourhood of Goa and threatened the city itself. An army of 12,000 men arrived from Portugal at the critical moment. The invaders were beaten off and the Novas Conquistas were added to the Portuguese possessions. In 1844 the shelter given by Goa to fugitives from justice in British territory threatened to bring about a rupture with the British Government at Bombay. In 1852 the Ranes of Satara, in the Novas Conquistas, revolted. In 1871 the native army in Goa mutinied and the King's own brother came from Lisbon to deal with the trouble and having done so disbanded the native army, which has never been reconstituted. But another outbreak among the troops took place in 1895 and the Ranes joining them the trouble was again not quieted until the arrival of another special expedition from Lisbon. The Ranes again broke out in 1901 and again in 1912, troops being again imported to deal with the last outbreak, which was only reported concluded in the summer of 1913. There has been no outbreak after that time.

The people on the whole appear to be quite satisfied with the Portuguese connection. There is no agitation for further reforms as in British India and not a sign of disaffection against Portuguese rule. This is chiefly due to the fact that under the present regime the natives are equal completely with the natives of the

and Portugal. Bluvio de Britto who was Minister of Public Works towards the end of the last century was a native of Goa as was the father of Dr. Beito e court Rodrigues, Minister for Foreign Affairs in General Cammonas' dictatorial Government. Natives of Goa are also Dr. Almeida Azey, the President of the Supreme Court in Lisbon, Dr. Custodio Gonçalves, Judge of the same Court and Mr. Alberto Xavier, Secretary General of the Ministry of Finance.

Administration.

The Lisbon Government by Decree No. 3266, dated 27th July 1917, enacted new rules regarding the administration of Portuguese India under an Organic Charter (Carta Organica) in force since 1st July 1919. This Charter regarding civil and financial administration of the colony, was modified by rules Nos. 1030 and 1022, dated 7th and 20th August 1920 and decrees Nos. 7008 and 7030 dated 9th and 16th October. A new Organic Charter modifying in certain parts the earlier one was granted by Decree No. 12,409 of 14th Oct but 1926 and is now in force.

The territory of Portuguese India is ruled by one Governor-General, residing in the Capital of the State, at Panjim *alias* Nova-Goa, and is divided into three districts, Goa, Damu and Diu. The last two are each under a Lieutenant-Governor. The district of Goa is under the direct superintendency of the Governor-General.

Subordinate to the Governor-General the following Secretariats are working: Home and Political, Finance, Customs, Education, Military, Naval, Agriculture, Health and Public Works. There are also three special and autonomous Departments, which do not constitute exclusive Secretariats, one of them being the Department of Posts and Telegraphs, the second that of Survey and the third that of the Fiscal of the W. I. P. Railway.

As the principal organ of administration next to the Governor-General and in collaboration with him works a Governor's Council (*Conselho do Governo*) with legislative and advisory powers. The Council is constituted in addition to the Governor-General, *ex-officio* President or four officials (Attorney-General, the Director of Finance, the Director of Civil Administration and the Director of Public Works), five elected members (three representing *Pobres, Conquistas* and one the *Novas Conquistas* and one the Districts of Damu and Diu) and five members nominated by the Governor-General to represent the municipalities, agricultural, commercial and other interests and the press.

In each province of Goa, Damu and Diu there is a District Council to supervise the Municipalities and other local institutions. The District Council of Goa is composed of the Director of Civil Administration, President, the Government Prosecutor of the Nova-Goa Civil Court, the Deputy Chief Health Officer, the Engineer next to the Director of Public Works, the Deputy Director of Finance, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation of the Islands, one member elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations of the district, one member elected by the 80 *Aldeias* or *Vilas* of Goa and one member elected by the Associations of Land

Within about 60 days from the date of application for a plot, the same is made over to the applicant or to the highest bidder, should there be more than one applicant for one and the same plot. The plan of buildings is in all cases subject to the approval of the Chairman of the Improvement Trust, such plan being required to be submitted within 60 days from the date the plot is made over to the lessee, and the period within which building is to be completed is 2 years. Importation of building materials is allowed free of Custom duties. In addition to the above, there is an extensive area available and reserved only for Industrial and Commercial Establishments, this area being known as "Free Zone". Within this "Free Zone," in addition to plots, which are leased at a very low rate for building factories, bonded warehouses or for establishment of any kind of industrial or commercial concerns, in accordance with rules and regulations lately issued by the local Government, special concessions and privileges are granted, such as:

(I) *For Establishment of Factories or Industrial Concerns.*—All machinery, building materials, tools, raw materials, etc., required for construction, maintenance and regular working

of the Factories are permitted free of import duty, likewise export of the goods manufactured within the "Free Zone."

(II) *For Establishment of Depots of Manufactured or Unmanufactured Goods, Bonded Warehouses, etc., etc.*—All goods imported by the Concessionaire for the purpose of such depot are allowed to be exported to any Foreign Territory, after being improved and repacked if necessary, without payment of either import or export duty.

(III) *Exemption of Government Taxes*—In addition to the above privileges, all Factories, Commercial Establishments, buildings etc., within the "Free Zone" are exempt from all Government taxes for a period of 20 years from May 1923. Applications for any of the above concessions have to be addressed to H. L. the Governor-General of Portuguese India and presented at the office of the Mormugao Improvement Trust at Vasco da Gama, giving therein full particulars of the area and plot etc., required. Such applications are disposed of within as little time as possible. Full information can be obtained from the Mormugao Improvement Trust, Vasco da Gama.

DAMAN.

The settlement of Damam lies at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, about 180 miles north of Bombay. It is composed of two portions, namely, Damam proper, lying on the coast, and the detached pargana of Nagar Aveli, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory and bisected by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. Damam proper contains an area of 22 square miles and 28 villages and has a population (1921) of 17,566 of whom 1,480 are Christians. The number of houses is according to the same census 4,095. Nagar Aveli has an area of 60 square miles and a population (1921) of 31,048, of whom only 271 are Christians. The number of houses is 6,009. The town of Damam was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531 rebuilt by the natives and retaken by the Portuguese in 1553, when they made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church and have since built eight other places of worship. The native Christians adopt the European costume, some of the women dressing themselves after the present European fashion, and others following the old style of petticoat and mantle once prevalent in Spain and Portugal.

The soil of the settlement is moist and fertile especially in Nagar Aveli, but despite the

ease of cultivation only one-twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. The principal crops are rice wheat, the inferior cereals of Gujrat and tobacco. The settlement contains no minerals. There are stately forests in Nagar Aveli, and about two-thirds of them consist of teak, but the forests are not conserved and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not been determined. Before the decline of Portuguese power in the East, Damam carried on an extensive Commerce especially with the east coast of Africa. In those days it was noted for its dyeing and weaving.

The territory forms for administrative purposes a single district and has a Municipal Chamber and Corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is administered by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General and two clerks. In Nagar Aveli the greater part of the soil is the property of the Government, from whom the cultivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax forests, excise and customs duties.

DIU.

Diu is an island lying off the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp. It is composed of three portions, namely, Diu proper (island), the village of Gogla, on the Peninsula, separated by the channel, and the fortress of Sinhor, about 5 miles west of the island. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in two fathoms of water and owing to the great advantages which its position offers for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired at an early period with a desire to obtain possession

of it. This they gained, first by treaty with the Sultan of Gujarat and then by force of arms. Diu became opulent and famous for its commerce. It has now dwindled into insignificance. The extreme length of the island is about seven miles and its breadth, from north to south, two miles. The area is 20 square miles. The population of the town of Diu, from which the island takes its name is said to have been 50,000 in the days of its commercial prosperity. The total population of the island, according to the census of 1921, is 13,814, of whom 228 were Christians.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

The French possessions in India comprise five settlements, with certain dependent lodges, or *poils*. They aggregate 203 square miles, and had a total population in the first January 1927 of 254,432. The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to open up commercial relations, was attempted in 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants at Rozen, but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu founded the first *Compagnie d'Orient*, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India and its President, Caron, founded in 1688 the *Compagnie*, or agency, at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment he seized the harbour of Trincomalee in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomalee; and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized St. Thome, a Portuguese town adjoining Madras, which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He was, however, compelled to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending when one of its agents, the celebrated François Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wreck of the settlements at Trincomalee and St. Thome, he took up his abode at Pondicherry, then a small village which he purchased in 1683 from the Raja of Gingee. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up; but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who wrested it from him in 1692, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Peace of Ryswick, in 1697. Pondicherry became in this year and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was contemporaneous with that of Calcutta. Like Calcutta, its site was purchased by a European Company from a native prince, and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta François Martin proved to Pondicherry. On its restoration to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, Martin was appointed Governor, and under his able management Pondicherry became an entrepot of trade.

Chandernagar, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1688, by grant from the Delhi Emperor; Mahé, on the Malabar Coast, was obtained in 1725-6, under the government of M. Lenoir; Karikal, on the Coromandel Coast, under that of M. Dumas, in 1739. Yanam, on the coast of the Northern Circars, was taken possession of in 1750, and formally ceded to the French two years later.

Administration.

The military command and administration-in-chief of the French possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherry. The office is at present held by Monsieur H. Bidlot. He is assisted by a

Chief Justice and by several "Chefs de Service" in the different administrative departments. In 1879 local councils and a council-general were established, the members being chosen by a sort of universal suffrage within the French territories. Seventeen Municipalities, or *Communes*, Boards, were created in 1907, namely, Pondicherry, Arcachon, Ougaret, Villenour, Karikal, Nedoncadon, Tirunalar, Grande Aïde, Cutchery, for the establishment of Karikal, and also Chandernagar, Mahé and Yanam. On municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery. The army and establishments connected with the Governor and his staff at Pondicherry, and those of administrators at Chandernagar, Yanam, Mahé and Karikal together with other headquarters charges necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government, with four dependent ones, have to be maintained. This is effected by rigid economy, and the frugality of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherry is also the scene of considerable religious and missionary activity. It forms the seat of an Archbishop, with a body of priests for all French India; and of the Missions Étrangères, the successors of the Mission du Carmine founded by the Jesuits in 1776. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements, a large proportion of its Christians are British subjects and many of the churches are in British territory. The British rupee is the ordinary tender within French territories. A line of railway running via Villenour, from Pondicherry to Villupuram on the South Indian Railway, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India, and Karikal is linked to the same railway by the branch from Peralom. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of fifteen members, nine of them Europeans or persons of European descent, was reorganised by a decree of 7th March, 1914. The capital, Pondicherry, is a very handsome town, and presents, especially from the sea, a striking appearance of French civilisation.

People and Trade.

The Settlements are represented in Parliament at Paris by one senator and one deputy. The Senator is Mons. F. Binyen. The Deputy is Mons. G. Angouven. There were in 1926, 59 primary schools and 3 colleges all maintained by the Government, with 500 teachers and 10,459 pupils. Local revenue and expenditure (Budget of 1927) Rs. 2,235,350. The principal crops are paddy, groundnut, and ragi. There are at Pondicherry 3 cotton mills, and at Chandernagar 1 jute mill; the cotton mills have, in all, 1,685 looms and 72,067 spindles, employing 8,225 persons. There are also at work one oil factory and a few oil presses for groundnuts, one ice factory, one iron works and a cigarette factory.

The chief exports from Pondicherry are oil seeds. At the ports of Pondicherry, Karikal, and Mahé in 1926 the imports amounted to Rs. 10,137,752 and the exports to Rs. 26,285,194. At these three ports in 1926 336 vessels entered and cleared; tonnage

99,050T. Pondicherry is visited by French steamers, sailing monthly between Colombo and Calcutta in connection with the Messageries Maritimes. The figures contained in this paragraph are the latest available and are corrected up to December 1926.

PONDICHERRY.

Pondicherry is the chief of the French Settlements in India and its capital is the headquarters of their Governor. It is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 185 miles from Madras by road and 122 by the Villupuram-Pondicherry branch of the South Indian Railway. The area of the Settlement is 115 square miles and its population in the first January 1927 was 284,492. It consists of the eight communes of Pondicherry. The Settlement was founded in 1674 under François Martin. In 1693, it was captured by the Dutch but was restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege under Admiral Boscawen in 1748 was unsuccessful. The second, under Eyre Coote in 1761, resulted in the capture of the place, which was restored in 1765. It was again besieged and captured in 1778 by Sir Hector Munro, and the fortifications were demolished in 1779. The place was again restored in 1785 under the Treaty of Versailles of 1789. It was captured a fourth time by Colonel Brathwaite in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.

South Arcot is empowered to deal with ordinary correspondence with the French authorities on these and kindred matters and in this capacity is styled the Special Agent. At Pondicherry itself is a British Consular Agent accredited to the French Government, who is usually an officer of the Indian Army. The town is compact, neat and clean, and is divided by a canal into two parts, the *Ville blanche* and the *Ville noire*. The *Ville blanche* has a European appearance, the streets being laid at right angles to one another with trees along their margins reminding the visitor of continental boulevards, and the houses being constructed with courtyards and embellished with green venetians. All the cross streets lead down to the shore, where a wide promenade facing the sea is again different from anything of its kind in British India. In the middle is a screw-pile pier, which serves when ships touch at the port, as a point for the landing of cargo, and on holidays as a general promenade for the population. There is no real harbour at Pondicherry; ships lie at a distance of about a mile from the shore, and communication with them is conducted by the usual *nasula* boats of this coast. Facing the shore end of the pier is a statue of the great Dupleix, to whom the place and the French name owed so much.

The Settlement comprises a number of isolated pieces of territory which are cut off from the main part and surrounded by the British District of South Arcot, except where they border on the sea. The Collector of

CHANDERNAGAR.

Chandernagar is situated on the bank of the Hooghly, a short distance below Chinsura. Population (in the first January 1927) 26,545. The town was permanently occupied by the French in 1688, though previously it had been temporarily occupied by them at a date given as 1672 or 1676. It did not, however, rise to any importance till the time of Dupleix. It changed hands between British and French various times during the Napoleonic wars and was finally restored to the French in 1816.

The former grandeur of Chandernagar has

disappeared, and at present it is little more than a quiet suburban town with little external trade. The railway station on the East Indian Railway is just outside French territory 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah). The chief administrative officer is the Administrator who is subordinate to the Governor of the French Possessions. The chief public institution is the Collège Dupleix, formerly called St. Mary's institution, founded in 1832 and under the direct control of the French Government.

KARIKAL.

Karikal lies on the Coromandel Coast between the Tanjore District of Madras and the Bay of Bengal. The settlement is divided into six communes, containing 110 villages in all, and covering an area of 53 square miles. It is governed by an Administrator subordinate to the Governor at Pondicherry. The population has in recent years rapidly decreased. In 1883 it was 93,035; in 1891, 70,526; in 1901, 56,995; in 1912, 56,579; in 1921, 54,356; in 1922, 54,603; in 1923, 57,023; in 1924, 56,922; in 1925, 57,933 and in 1927 284,432 but the density is still very high, being 1,068 persons per square mile. Kumbakonam is the only taluk in Tanjore District which has a higher density. Each of the six communes—namely, Karikal, La Grande Alcee, Nedungadu, Ootcheri, Néravy and Tirnoudar—possesses a mayor and council. The members are all elected by

universal suffrage, but in the municipality Karikal half the number of seats are reserved for Europeans or their descendants. The country is very fertile, being irrigated by seven branches of the Cauvery, besides many smaller channels.

The capital of the settlement is situated on the north bank of the river Arasalar, about 1½ miles from its mouth. It has a brisk trade in rice with Ceylon, and to a less extent with the Straits Settlements. It has no commerce with France, and very little with other French colonies. The port is merely an open roadstead, provided with a light-house 142 feet high, the light in which has a range of from 8 to 10 miles. In 1899 Karikal was connected with Paralem on the Tanjore District Board Railway. Karikal finally came into French possession on the settlement after 1815.

By those who take a long view of politics in the wide sense of the term, it will be seen that the Indian Frontier Problem, which has loomed so large in the discussion of Indian questions, has always borne a two-fold character—the local issue and the international issue. For almost a century the international issue was the greater of the two, and the local issue was the lesser. But the local issue has become the greater, and the international issue the lesser. This is because the local issue has become the greater, and the international issue the lesser. This is because the local issue has become the greater, and the international issue the lesser.

The Local Problem.—The local problem, in its broadest outlines, may be briefly indicated before proceeding to discuss it in detail. From the Arabian Sea on the West to the confines of Nepal in the East and the mountains in the North, the Indian Frontier is a wild and troublesome sea of mountains in the world. The thin valleys in these immense ranges are poorly populated by hazy, brave, militant mountaineers, rendered the fiercer and the more difficult by professing the martial Moslem faith, accentuated by the most bitter fanaticism. But sparse as the population is, it is in excess of the supporting power of the country. Like mountaineers in all parts of the world, these brave and fearless men have sought to eke out their exiguous agriculture by raiding the rich plains of Hindustan. We may find a fairly close parallel to the situation in the position of the Highlanders of Scotland until after the rebellion of 1745 the English Government of the day sought a permanent remedy by opening for the warlike Highlanders a military career in the famous Highland regiments, and in rendering military operations easier by the construction of Wade's road. The Highland problem has disappeared so long from English politics that its pregnant lessons are little realised, but if the curious student will read again that brilliant novel by Neil Munro, "The New Road," he will find that Wade's work meant for the Highlanders what the Indian Frontier Problem means for the British. Wade's work meant for the Highlanders what the Indian Frontier Problem means for the British. Wade's work meant for the Highlanders what the Indian Frontier Problem means for the British.

seriously embarrass the Government of India from the time when Sandeman set his mark on the land. Not that the country was entirely peaceful. Occasional tribal raids or risings necessitated occasional military operations, and the Gomal Pass was involved in the general tribal disturbances which followed the warlike declaration of war by Afghanistan in 1919. But speaking broadly, Sandeman brought peace to Baluchistan, and to the large frontier area which is embraced in that generic term. So far as this section of the frontier is

concerned it may be said that no frontier problem exists, save the need for an economical and constructive policy.

Towards Afghanistan.—Far otherwise is it with the section of the frontier which stretches from Baluchistan to the confines of Nepal. That has, for three quarters of a century, been the scene of almost ceaseless military operations, which have constituted a devastating drain on the Indian exchequer. One seeks in vain for a clear and definite policy guiding the actions of the Government of India. One explanation of this is that the frontier has been delimited, the soldiers naturally pressed for the armed occupation of the whole country right up to the confines of Afghanistan, or at any rate, for military posts, linked with good communications, which would dominate the country. But those who looked at policy not only from the military standpoint, were conscious of two considerations. They saw that occupation up to the Afghan frontier only meant the shifting of the frontier problem farther North. Instead of the differing tribes, we should have to meet the Afghan on our border line. If Afghanistan were a strong, homogeneous State, that would be a matter of little account. But even under the iron rule of Abdurrahman Khan, the Amir's writ ran but lightly in the southern confines of his kingdom. Under his successor, Habibullah Khan, whose policy was generally wise and successful, it ran still less firmly. The organisation involved as it is in expeditions down of that arch pacifist Habibullah to deal effectively with a rising against his own Governor in Khost. The Afghan forces melted away under transport difficulties when they were moved against the rebellious Khostwalis, and the Amir had to make peace with them. Therefore the policy of the British Government was to use it as the line demarcating the British Empire, and to simply have meant that in time of trouble we should have to deal with Afghanistan instead of a tribe or two, and with the irremovable tribesmen along our difficult line of communications. There was the further consideration that finances were of the sound belief that even if the Forward Policy was wise from the military standpoint, it would involve charges over an indefinite period greater than the Indian finances would bear. Moreover on this section of the Frontier, the position was complicated by the expansion of Russia in Central Asia. The easiest passes, and the passes down which for centuries from the time of Alexander the Great invaders have swept from Persia and Central Asia to loot the fat plains of Hindustan, traverse this region. Therefore it was deemed essential to control, if not to occupy them, in the interests of the British Empire. In this zone therefore between the Forward Policy and the Russian Empire, the whole of the frontier is to be occupied, that is to say

those Border School, which would have us remain out of the difficult mountainous zone and meet the tribesmen on the plains if they sallied forth. The extreme advocates of this school would even have had us return to the line of the Indus.

The Two Policies.—The result of this conflict of opinion was a series of wavering compromises, which were not only unsatisfactory to the tribes here and there, but also made them dependent, without advanced posts, and held and rarely were they linked with their supporting posts by adequate means of communication. We preserved between our administrative frontier, and the Durand Line which demarcated our frontier with Afghanistan an irregular belt of land called. The Independent Territory, in which neither we nor the Afghan Government exercised jurisdiction. This was left entirely under the control of the tribes who peopled it. Now it has often been asked why we did not follow the precedent of Baluchistan and "Sandeman's," the Independent Territory. That is one of the perennial topics of Frontier discussions. It is however important to bear in mind that there were essential differences between this zone and Baluchistan. Sir Robert Sandeman found a strong tribal system existing in Baluchistan, and he was able to enter into direct engagements with the tribal chiefs. There is no such tribal organisation in the Independent Territory. The tribal chiefs, or maliks, exercise a very precarious authority, and the instrument for the collective expression of the tribal will is not the chief, but the jirgah, or tribal council, of the most democratic character, where the voice of the young men of the tribe often has the same influence, in time of excitement perhaps more influence, than the voice of the wiser greybeard. The bitter fruit of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897, when following a minor outbreak in the Tochi Valley the general uneasiness flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North-West Frontier, from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force, owing to the immense difficulties of transportation, was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration, and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through, in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. The area so separated was constituted into a separate administrative zone under the direct authority of the Government of India, exercised through a Chief Commissioner. Then Lord Curzon withdrew the advanced military posts and concentrated the Regular troops in bases better linked with the main military centres of India by roads and railways. The advanced posts, and especially important

Passes like the Tochi, the Kurrum and the Khyber, were entrusted to the defence of local militia, recruited from the tribesmen themselves, and officered by British officers drawn from the ranks of the Indian Army. Later it was supplemented by a fine development policy. The construction of the Upper Swat Canal, afterwards developed into the Swat Canal (q.v. Irrigation) led to such an increase in cultivation that the tribesmen were given a means of livelihood and were invested with the magic charm of valuable property. The irrigated part of the Frontier has since been one of the most peaceful in the whole border line.

Lord Curzon's Success.—Judged by every reasonable standard the Curzon policy was successful. It did not give us complete peace. There were occasional punitive expeditions demanded, such as for instance the Zikra Khel and Mohmand expeditions, and the Waziris and in particular the truculent Mahsud Waziris, never ceased raiding. But in comparison with what had gone before, it gave us relative peace. It endured throughout the War, though the Waziris built up a heavy bill of offences, which awaited settlement when Government were free from the immense preoccupations of the war. It broke down under the strain of the wanton invasion of India by the Afghans in the hot weather of 1919. On February 26th the Amir Habibullah Khan was assassinated in his sleep near Jelalabad. Although he does not figure so prominently in frontier history as his son father Abdurrahman Khan, he nevertheless has high claims on the favourable verdict of history. None anticipated that any successor to Abdurrahman Khan could hold in the leash of a single State the fractious, fanatical tribes who make up the population of the Afghan kingdom. Yet this Habibullah did. On occasion his attitude seemed to be equivocal, as when armed gatherings of the tribes called lashkars were permitted to do so. . . . history and to invade the . . . causing the Zakkas Kl . . . tions. But we must not judge a State like Afghanistan by European standards; the Amir had often to bow before the fanatical elements amongst his own people until they had burnt their fingers by contact with the British troops. At the outset of the War he warned the Government that he might often have to do things which seemed unfriendly but they must trust him. In truth, the position of the Amir when Turkey entered on the war, and called Moslems everywhere to arms on the side of Germany was extraordinarily difficult, he received Turkish, German and Austrian missions in Kabul from which British representatives were still excluded. But he kept Afghanistan out of the war, and . . . of the Central Powers a . . . policy was justified up . . . his success was the cause of his assassination. The irreconcilable elements in the Kingdom saw that the day of reckoning had come and strove to avert the settlement of their account by the murder. When he was done to death his brother, Nasrullah Khan, was proclaimed Amir by the assassins. But the conscience of Afghanistan revolted against the idea of Nasrullah, the arch-fanatic of the ruling House of Kabul, ascending the throne over the blood-stained corpse of his brother. A military government in Kabul, itself

trashed him and and n a ed tie on of
 Mah b al Ah Aman a Khan n the th one
 But Am qu a l h a n s on ound t was a ho av
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 deal with anarchical
 otion in April 25, 1919,
 mised his soldiery the
 an. The Indian army
 on, and as has always
 n Afghan Army was
 easily beaten. Dacca was seized. Jelalabad
 and Kabul were frequently bombed from the
 air, and there was nothing to prevent our oc-
 cupation of Kabul, save the knowledge gleaned
 from the bitter heritage of the wars of 1838
 and 1878, that it is onething to overest a govern-
 ment in Afghanistan, but it is quite another
 to set up a stable government in its stead. The
 Government of India wisely held their hand,
 and the Afghans having sued for peace, a treaty
 was signed on the 8th August 1919.

But an untoward effect of this wanton war
 was to set the Frontier from the Gomal to the
 Khyber ablaze. With one or two exceptions,
 the Tribal Militia could not stand the strain of
 an appeal from their fellow tribesmen, and either
 melted away or joined the rising. This has often
 been described as the failure of the Curzon
 policy, which was based on the tribal militia.
 But there is another aspect to this issue, which
 was set out in a series of brilliant articles which
 Mr. Arthur Moore, his special correspondent,
 contributed to *The Times*. He pointed out that
 the militia was meant to be a military police
 force. The lapse of time, and forgetfulness
 of its real purpose, had converted the militia
 into an imitation of the regular army. The
 militia was meant to be a police. When the
 war broke out its units were treated as a covering
 force behind which the Regular Army mobilised.
 This is a role which it was never intended they
 should serve; exposed to a strain which they
 should never have been called upon to bear,
 they crumpled under it. If this reasoning
 is correct—and a strong case can be marshalled
 in support of it—then what has been called the
 failure of the Curzon policy arose from the
 misconception and misdirection of that policy.

Russia and the Frontier.—On the other
 hand, if it be admitted that the Curzon policy
 was sound, and that its success was marked—a
 proposition with which we are in general agree-
 ment—it can also be claimed that the Curzon
 policy owed no small measure of its success to
 fortunate events. The greatest external
 force in moulding Indian frontier policy was
 the long struggle with Russia. For nearly
 three quarters of a century a vellel warfare
 for pre dominance in Asia was waged between
 Great Britain and Russia. There are few pages
 in British foreign policy less attractive to the
 student of Imperial affairs. Russia was con-
 fronted in Central Asia with precisely the same
 conditions as those which faced England in
 India when the course of events converted the
 old East India Company from a trading corpora-
 tion into a governing body. The despoiling
 khans of Central Asia were impossible neigh-
 bours. Confronted with an inferior civilisation,
 and with neighbours who would not let her
 alone, Russia had to advance. True, the adven-
 turous spirits in her armies, and some of the

g at administrators in the Turkestan cap a
 e not adv se to pay ng off on the Ind u
 Do d and sh score again. Great Britain for
 h. Crimean War, and for what the Russians
 thought was depriving them of the fruits of their
 costly victory over Turkey in 1877-78. The
 result was a long and unsatisfactory guerrilla
 enterprise between the hardest spirits on both
 sides, accompanied by periodic panics in the
 British Press each time the Russians moved
 forward, which induced the coining, after the
 Russian occupation of Merv, of the generic
 term "Nervousness." This external force
 involved the Government of India in the humili-
 tations of the Afghan War of 1838, with the
 tragic destruction of the retiring Indian force
 between Kabul and Jelalabad, slightly relieved
 by the heroic defence of Jelalabad and the
 firmness of General Pollock in refusing to with-
 draw the punitive army until he had set his
 mark on Kabul by the razing of the famous
 Bala Hissar fortress. It involved us in the second
 Afghan War of 1878, which left the baffling
 problem of no stable government in Afghanis-
 tan. There was a gleam of light when Abdur-
 rahman Khan, whom we set up at Kabul to
 believe us of our perplexities, proved himself
 a strong and capable ruler, if one ruthless in his
 methods. But in the early sixties the two
 States were on the verge of war over a squabble
 for the possession of Ferozshah, and then men
 began to think a little more clearly. There
 began a series of boundary delimitations and
 agreements which clarified the situation, without
 however finally settling it. The old controversy
 broke out in another form when intrigues with a
 Burjat monk, Dorjien, during Lord Curzon's
 viceroyalty, gave rise to the grave suspicion
 that the scene had only shifted to Tibet. An
 expedition to Lhasa rent the veil which had
 so long concealed the mysterious city and dis-
 persed the misaim of this intrigue. But it was
 not until the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian
 agreement of 1907 that the two countries arrived
 at a stage long sought by those who looked
 beyond their noses. The actual authors of the
 Agreement were Lord Grey, the Foreign Secre-
 tary, and Lord Hardinge, formerly British
 Ambassador in Petrograd, but it had been desired
 by their predecessors, whose efforts were
 rendered nugatory by the intransigent attitude
 of the dominant f
 until Russia was
 of Manchuria by as a
 a power in the decisive battle of Tushima,
 that an atmosphere was created favourable
 to the conclusion of an Agreement. This
 embraced the whole frontier zone. There were
 many unsatisfactory features in the Agreement,
 especially in regard to Persia, for which we
 had to pay a considerable price in the attitude
 of Persians in the War. But again taking long
 views, the Agreement fully justified itself in a
 broad definition of the interest of the two coun-
 tries, which put an end to the period of excur-
 sions and alarms up to the outbreak of the War.
 Henceforward Russia ceased to be a material
 factor in the Indian Frontier Problem, with
 the exception of a brief period when the Red
 Army was trotted out as another bogey.

German Influence.—But as nature abhors
 a vacuum, so in the case of States bordered by
 higher civilisations, no sooner does one strong

influence recedes than some other take place. Long before the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement the shadow of the German menace had begun to appear on the horizon. Imitative, not creative, in this, as in most other activities, the Germans adapted their methods from the penetration by railway which was so marked a feature of Russian expansion in Manchuria, brought to an end by the disastrous issue of the war with Japan. The seeds of the German effort were sown when the Kaiser, extending the hand of Christian fellowship to the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul-Hamed, at a time when that sovereign was ostracised by Europe for his direct complicity in the massacre of Armenians, or rather one of the massacres of Armenians, made German influence supreme at Constantinople. His theatrical tour through Palestine, which was generally treated in Europe as an exhibition of opera bouffe, soon bore fruit in the acquisition by German interests of the principal railways in Anatolia. Later it fructified more effectively in the Baghdad Railway concession, under which German interests secured the right of extending the Anatolian lines from the port of Haider Pasha, opposite Constantinople, to a port in the Persian Gulf. Now successive British Statesmen of both parties had declared that the acquisition of a territorial foothold in the Persian Gulf by any power—Russia and the port of Bunder Abbas being then in view—would be regarded as an unfriendly act. There followed a replica of the period of alarms and excursions which had disfigured our relations with Russia. Undaunted, even when their endeavour to secure British co-operation in the enterprise failed, and when the Revolution in Turkey which set the Committee of Union and Progress in power entailed a temporary interruption of their influence at Constantinople, the Germans pressed forward with their enterprise. They pushed the Anatolian railways as far east as Bourzulu, and constructed a line northwards from Baghdad to Samarra. They sent a mission to explore the potentialities of the port of Koweit in the Persian Gulf, and set the Turks in motion to subordinate the Sheikh of Koweit to direct Turkish sovereignty, with a nominal view to extending the Baghdad railway from Basra to Koweit, or the vicinity of Koweit at the deep water inlet behind Babilian Island. They commenced the most difficult part of the work in piercing the Amanus and Taurus ranges by a series of tunnels, and laid the rails on the other side of the mountains across the Euphrates to Ras-ul-Ain. Behind this railway activity stood a grandiose policy, which is indicated in what became known in Germany as "B.B.B."—Berlin, Byzantium, Baghdad. Throughout the progress of these schemes, which did not stop short of Baghdad, but were directed through a port in the Persian Gulf, at India, the Germans were anxious to secure the co-operation of Great Britain, if they could do so on their own terms, that is to say without affecting the enterprise as a dominant German adventure. Shortly before the commencement of the war the protracted negotiations with London which had this end in view ended in a definite agreement between the two Powers. Under this agreement the Gulf section of the line was to have been British and the other portion German. But this is the part which

had not been signed became waste paper with the outbreak of the war and the German plan vanished in thin air with the complete defeat of Turkey and Germany. Nevertheless the railway did not stand still during the war, Germany made immense efforts to complete the difficult tunnel sections and the work was substantially finished when the Armistice was signed.

The Significance of the Baghdad Railway

The great trunk line, which is the traditional British dominance by sea, and absorb the passenger and goods traffic from the East. This idea could only be nourished by those completely ignorant of the conditions of the Indian passenger service and the essentials of a competitive route for the carriage of merchandise. The rush of passenger traffic from India is from April to June, in order to escape the hot weather in India, and the return traffic is chiefly concentrated in October and November. From April to June the heat in Mesopotamia is appalling. To imagine that the passenger traffic from India would turn from the easy and comfortable as well as fairly expeditious sea route from Bombay to Marseilles and thence by the easiest railway travelling outside the British Isles to Calais and London, for such a land route was an amazing chimera. The Baghdad route would have involved a sea voyage from Bombay or Karachi to Koweit or Basra, then a journey across the burning plains of Mesopotamia and Asia Minor to Haider Pasha, then across the Straits to Constantinople, and finally right across Europe to a North Sea port. This would in any circumstances have been a costly freak journey in comparison with the sea route. Then as for the commercial aspect of the line, the natural port of the Middle East is Basra. The sea freight from England or Germany to Basra, is about one pound sterling a ton; before the war it was often down to fifteen shillings. The freight from Basra to Baghdad was from thirty shillings to two pounds a ton. To imagine again that merchandise would desert this route for a land and sea route, which would have involved a double break of bulk at Constantinople and Haider Pasha, is again a chimera; the freight charges could not have been less than fifteen to twenty pounds a ton.

As a through route the primary purpose of the Baghdad Railway was strategic. It was designed to make the Power seated at Constantinople—and that Power the Germans were resolved should be Germany—complete master of Asia Minor and the Middle East, and the route selected, often criticised, was the best for the rapid movement of troops to the strategic centres. As a commercial line, the Railway, if completed, would have served three zones. The western area of Turkey in Asia at Haider Pasha. The rich lands of Anatolia at Alexandretta. The eastern zone at Basra. The Germans, it is understood, attached immense importance to the subsequent engagements with Turkey which placed them in maritime command at Alexandretta. They began to inaugurate a commercial position in the Persian Gulf through the establishment of a line of steamships run by the great Hamburg—on

They strove to obtain an actual footing in the Gulf through the German house of Wunkhaus. We doubt if the Germans were ever serious in their alleged designs on Koweit, which could never have borne a more definite relation to the commerce of the Gulf than Hamburg to Antwerp or Cuxhaven to Hamburg; that was one of the red herrings they drew across their trail to divert attention from their real objective, Basra, which is destined by virtue of an unchallengeable geographical and natural position to be the great port of The Middle East. These considerations have no more than an academic value now. Germany has been defeated. The Turks now they are emerging from an isolated military despotism based on Angora, are confronted with the immense problem of re-building their bankrupt State, deprived of the most intelligent section of the old population—the Greeks and the Armenians, by massacre and expulsion—are a very uncertain factor. The completion of the through line is indefinitely postponed. But as the advantages of the route, for the purposes we have indicated, are many and great, the ultimate construction of the through line is only a matter of time. so we have placed these authoritative characteristics on record for the guidance of opinion when the project of the through route is revived, as it must be.

Turkey and the Frontier.—The position of Turkey on the Indian frontier was never of any considerable importance in itself, and never assumed any significance, save as the *avant courier* of Germany, when she passed under the tutelage of that Power, and for a limited period during the war. Although so long established in Mesopotamia, Turkey was not very firmly seated in that country, the Arabs tolerated rather than accepted Turkish rule so long as they were substantially left alone, and the administration it is understood never paid its way. For a brief period Midhat Pasha raised the status of Mesopotamia, and after the Revolution that fine soldier Nazim Pasha became a power in the land. But speaking broadly Turkey remained in Mesopotamia because it was no-one's interest, even that of the Arab, to turn her out. When however Germany developed her "B.B.B." policy, Turkey was used as a stalking horse. She moved a small force to the Peninsula of Al-Katr in order to frighten the Sheikh of Bahrein, and tried to convert the nominal suzerainty exercised, or rather claimed, over the Sheikh of Koweit into a *de facto* suzerainty, exercised by military force. These efforts faded before the vigorous action of the British Government which concluded a binding arrangement with the Sheikh of Koweit, and the position of the Turks at Al Katr was always very precarious. On the outbreak of the war however the situation changed. When the sound and carefully executed expedition to Basra and its strategic hinterland was developed into the insane enterprise to capture Baghdad by *coup de main*, with very

the Euphrates to the wildest part of Central Asia, producing military exploits of an almost epic character, but exercising little influence on the war. They were brought to an end by pressure not on extensive wings, but at the heart of Turkish Power in Palestine, where Lord Allenby scattered the Turks like chaff. But the aftermath of the war left us in an indefinite position in Mesopotamia, with indefinite frontiers. This enabled the Turks, if they were so disposed, to be troublesome through guerilla warfare in the Mosul Zone, and by stirring up the Kurds, who are the Ishmaelites of Asia Minor. The conclusion of the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923 brought temporary relief, but it did not settle the main issue, the frontier between Turkey and Irak. Under the Treaty it was provided that if the two parties could not agree to a boundary line delimitation should be left to The League of Nations. Negotiations were promptly opened at Constantinople but it was immediately found that there could be no mutual agreement; the Turks demanded the whole of the Mosul vilayet, and the British delegates declared that Mosul and its hinterland were necessary to the existence of Irak. The issue therefore went to the League of Nations. That body despatched a neutral commission to study the position on the spot; this commission reported that the best settlement would be for the Mosul vilayet to be incorporated in Irak, if the British Government were prepared to prolong its mandate over that State for a period of twenty-five years. When the report of this commission came before the League in 1925 Britain gave the necessary guarantee, and the Council of The League unanimously adopted the Mosul vilayet to Irak. The Turkish delegates, who at first recognised the decisive authority of The League, then declared that they would not be bound by its decisions. So the matter rested at the end of the year, with Irak in occupation of the disputed up to the temporary frontier, which is known as The Brussels Line. After at first breathing nothing but armed resistance to acceptance of the award, the Turks afterwards assumed a more conciliatory note, and alarmed, it may be, by the threat of Italian aggression accepted the frontier line demarcated by the League.

France and the Frontier.—If we touch for a few sentences on the position of France on the frontiers of India, it is not because they have any present day significance, but in order to complete this brief survey of the waxing and waning of external influences on Indian frontier policy. It is difficult to find any sound policy behind the efforts of France to obtain a coaling station at Maskat, in the Persian Gulf, and her long opposition to the steps necessary to extirpate the slave trade, and hold in check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping all the tribesmen on our North-West Frontier with rifles of precision and a large supply of ammunition. We can find no more definite purpose in it than a general pin-pricking policy, a desire to play the part of Russia, and perhaps a source of annoyance to Great Britain, which would form a useful lever for the execution of considerable concessions in West Africa, particularly in the neighbourhood of Gambia, as the price of abstention. These embarrassments were slowly removed one by one after the conclusion

with General Maude's occupation of Bagdad. After the Russian *débâcle* we found ourselves involved in new front which stretched from

The Frontiers

Anglo-French Entente Far off he was the East. The conclusion of French policy in French Indo-China was the prelude for the expansion of this authority over Siam and to find compensation for the veiled British protectorate of Egypt. We had earlier been muttering in Burma. We established in Lower Burma in the and in the eighties the foolish and small King Theebaw, in Upper Burma, an impossible neighbour, and ambitious men were not averse to fanning his on to the British. However, if any were entertained of extending the Asiatic empire of France in this direction, they were rebuffed by the Second Burmese War and the establishment of British rule. Farther west on the confines of Siam. It was the purpose of British policy to preserve a buffer state between Burma, then a Province of the Indian Empire, and Indo-China. This policy was definitely ended by French encroachments on Siam. It approached a crisis in 1894, and within measurable distance of a situation might have ended in open war between the States. But as in the case of Persia, when Major Marchand marched from Africa to Fashoda, the imminence of a crisis made statesmen on both sides ask themselves what they might be going to fight. They found there was nothing essential. An agreement was negotiated between the powers which secured the independence and integrity of Siam. That agreement has been maintained by wise and progressive rule in Siam, under its own independent sovereign, imbued with a strong friendship for Britain, whilst at the same time maintaining good relations with French neighbours.

New Frontier Problem.—The whole of this brief sketch has been to show three generations—most assuredly since the last leading to the Afghan War of 1838—the frontier problem has never been a problem. It has been dominated by influences—in the main the long struggle between Great Britain and Russia, for a brief time the German ambition to build up a position in the East through the use of the land route, and to a much lesser degree the ambitions of France and Turkey. As external influences have disappeared, there is no such prospect of their revival as we are taking them into consideration in the future which are forced on the Government. The Indian frontier question has developed from an Imperial into a national question—a condition on which we must hold, because people are tenacious of old loyalties when they are nearly a century old. No proper understanding of the present is possible, unless our consideration of it is based on this essential fact, that the frontier question is purely local. But whilst these changes were taking place, others were in the which powerfully influence the difficult situation. The tribesman was always content to be respected. Brave, hardy, and loyal, he has always been a first-class soldier. Knowing every inch of the border country in which punitive operations of necessity take place he has hung

on our rearguards and given them an efficient force. Even when armed with a jezail and when every cartridge had to be husbanded with jealous care, the tribesman was a respectable antagonist. Now the tribesmen are everywhere armed with magazine rifles, either imported through the Persian Gulf when gun running was a thriving occupation, stolen from British magazines, or secured from Russian and Afghan sources. They have an abundant supply of ammunition. Considerable numbers of the fighting men have been trained in the ranks of the Indian Army, either as Regulars in the Pathan regiments, or else in the tribal militias. We found this to our cost in the events following the Afghan War of 1919. The Afghan regular army was of little account. The tribesmen who rose at the call of the jihad especially in Waziristan, were of great account. They gave our troops the hardest fighting they have ever had on the Frontier; their marksmanship and fire discipline were described by experienced soldiers as admirable. The tribal militia, the keystone of the Curzon system, had for all practical purposes disappeared—what was to take its place?

Immediately following the Afghan War the frontier positions were garrisoned by regular troops, but this was only a temporary measure. It may be said that the crux of the situation was in Waziristan. This sector of the Frontier has always been the most difficult of the whole, because of the intractable character of the people. Besides, possessing a bolt hole into Afghanistan they had in the past evaded effective punishment in view of the complete disappearance of the external menace, and the consequent lapsing of any necessity to preserve open lines of communication which would enable us to go to the support of Afghanistan now formally recognised in the Treaty of 1921 as a completely independent state, there were many who urged the desirability of complete withdrawal, even to the line of the Indus. This extreme school gained little support. Our position in Quetta on the one side and Peshawar on the other is fully consolidated, and no good case can be made out for withdrawing from it. On the other hand, there was a strong case made out for leaving the tribesmen severely alone from the Gomal to the Kurram, and dealing with them if they emerged from their fastnesses. The military standpoint was that the Waziris are absolutely intractable; that it was unfair to impose on troops the frequent necessity of punitive operations in most arduous conditions; and that the only solution of the question was the occupation of dominant points in Waziristan as far north as Laddha, and linking these posts with our military bases, and particular with the termini of the Indian frontier railways, by good motor roads.

This controversy has not ended yet; indeed one feels inclined to say that it never will end. It has resulted in a typically British compromise. The present policy has been aptly described as the "half-forward" policy. There has been no withdrawal in the ordinary sense of the term, but the limits of the Waziristan occupation have been fixed at Ramzak, not at Laddha. The network of consequential roads is being pushed forward

The Indian red-head, which for so long terminated at Samrud, at the southern entrance to the Khyber Pass, has now been extended to Landi Kotal and the frontier between India and Afghanistan. The regular troops have been withdrawn, and their place taken by khassadars. The difference between the khassadars and the old tribal militia is material. The militia were armed and equipped by the

Indian military authorities; if they disappeared they took their arms and ammunition with them, and constituted a powerful reinforcement. The khassadars bring their own rides with them, and therefore if they desert they do not constitute any reinforcement to those in arms against us. Many of these khassadars have already done good work in the punishment of tribal rads.

I—THE PERSIAN GULF.

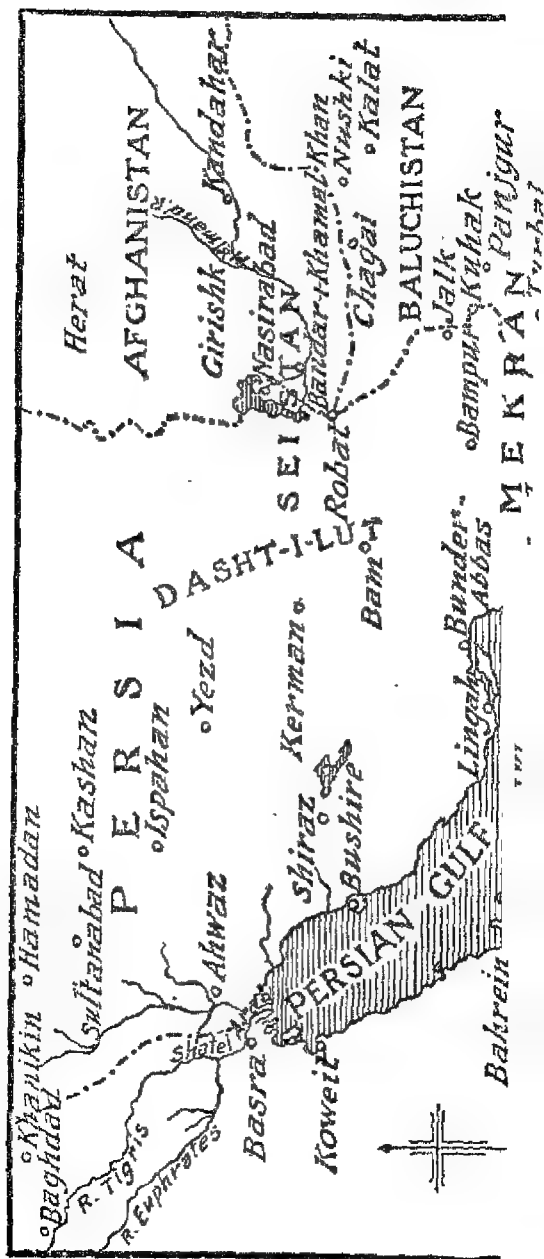
From what has gone before it will be seen that the keynote of this discussion of Indian frontier policy is that the external menace has disappeared, and that it is now a purely local question. No part of the frontier is more powerfully influenced by this consideration than the Persian Gulf. Our first appearance in the Gulf was in connection with the long struggle for supremacy with the Portuguese, the French and the Dutch, who had established trading stations there. With the capture and destruction of the great entrepot which the Portuguese had established at Ormuz, the supersession of the land by the sea route, and the appearance of anarchy in the interior the importance of the Gulf declined. The Indian Government remained there primarily to preserve the peace. This work it quietly and efficiently performed. Piracy was stamped out, the Trucial Chiefs, who occupy the Pirate Coast, were gradually brought into close relations with the Government, the vessels of the Royal Navy kept watch and ward, and our consuls regulated the external affairs of the Arab rulers on the Arab coast. In return for these services Great Britain claimed no selfish advantages. The waters of the Gulf were kept free to the navigation of the ships of all nations, and though Great Britain could have made any territorial acquisitions she pleased she retained possession of only the tiny station of Bassidra. Left to herself Great Britain desired no other policy, but for a quarter of a century the Gulf was involved in European affairs. France sought to acquire a coaling station at Jissa, near Maskat, and obstructed the efforts of the British Government to stamp out the slave trade and to check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping the tribes on our land frontier with weapons of precision and quantities of ammunition. All this was gradually removed by the Anglo-French Entente. In 1890 our finest cruisers to "show the flag" in the Gulf, and established consular posts where there were no interests of preserve. She was credited with the inter-war water port, and in covetous eyes on the mos Gulf, Bunder Abbas. 31.

after the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement, and disappeared with the collapse of Russian power. Then Turkey, the avant courier of the German occupation she had threatened the med occupation and moved troops to enforce her suzerainty over Koweit, the best port in the Persian Gulf and a possible terminus of the Baghdad Railway. Further to consolidate her interests, or to shake out a claim, Germany sent the heavily-subsidized ships of the Hamburg-America line to the Gulf, where they comforted themselves as the instruments of Imperial policy rather than as inoffensive merchantmen. She also strove, through the agency of the firm of Winkhaus, to acquire a territorial footing on the island of Sharjah. These events stirred the British Government to an unusual activity in the waters of the Gulf.

Counter Measures.

The first effective steps to counter these influences were taken during the vigorous viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who visited the Gulf during his early travels and incorporated a masterly survey of its features in his monumental work on Persia. He appointed the ablest men he could find to the head of affairs, established several new consulates, and was instrumental in improving the sea communications with the Gulf by also took alarm. stand against for of a writer of American Naval placed on record in the Persian Gulf, whether by formal arrangement (with other Powers) or by neglect of the local commercial interests which now under the political and military control will imperil Great Britain's naval position in the Farther East, her political position in India, her commercial interests in both, and the Imperial tie between herself and Australasia. The Imperial standpoint, endorsed by both Parties in the State, was set out by Lord Lansdowne in

Map of the Persian Gulf.



words of great import—"We (i.e., His Majesty's Government) should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, which we should certainly resist with all the means at our disposal." The negative measures following these declarations were followed by a constructive policy when the oil fields in the Baghlian country, with a great refinery, were developed by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, in which the British Government has a large financial stake. But with the disappearance of these external forces on Gulf policy, as set out in the introduction to this section, the politics of the Persian Gulf reposed in importance, until they are now more than they were before these external influences developed—a local question, mainly a question of police. They are therefore set out more briefly and those who desire a complete narrative are referred to the Indian Year Book for 1923, pp. 178-182.

Maskat.

Maskat, which is reached in about forty-eight hours from Karachi, is outside the Persian Gulf proper. It lies three hundred miles south of Cape Musandim, which is the real entrance to the Gulf, but its natural strength and historical prestige combine to make it inseparable from the politics of the Gulf, with which it has always been intimately associated.

Formerly Maskat was part of a domain which embraced Zanzibar, and the islands of Kishm and Larak, with Bandar Abbas on the Persian shore. Zanzibar was separated from it by agreement, and the Portoguese succeeded in establishing their authority over the possession on the eastern shore.

The relations between Britain and Maskat have been intimate for a century and more. It was under British auspices that the separation between Zanzibar and Maskat was effected, the Sheikh accepted a British subsidy in return for the suppression of the slave trade and in 1892 sealed his dependence upon us by concluding a treaty pledging himself not to cede any part of his territory without our consent.

The Pirate Coast.

Turning Cape Musandim and entering the Gulf Proper, we pass the Pirate Coast, controlled by the six Trucial Chiefs. The ill-name of this territory has now ceased to have any meaning, but in the early days it had a very real relation to the actual conditions. The pirates were the boldest of their kind, and they did not hesitate to attack on occasion, and not always without success, the Company's ships of war. Large expeditions were fitted out to break their power, with such success that since 1820 no considerable punitive measures have been necessary. The Trucial Chiefs are bound to Great Britain by a series of engagements, beginning with 1800 and ending with the perpetual treaty of 1853 by which they bound themselves to avoid all hostilities at sea, and the subsequent treaty of 1873 by which they undertook to prohibit altogether the traffic in slaves. The relations

of the Trucial Chiefs are controlled by the British Resident at Bushire, who visits the Pirate Coast every year on a tour of inspection.

The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing through the rise of Debal. Formerly Lingah was the entrepot for this trade, but the exactions of the Belgian customs officials in the employ of Persia drove this traffic from Lingah to Debal. The Trucial Chiefs are—Debal, Abu Thabec, Shargah Ajman, Um-al-Gawain and Ras-el-Kheyma.

Bahrain.

North of the Pirate Coast lies the little Archipelago which forms the chiefship of the Sheikh of Bahrain. Of this group of islands only those of Bahrain and Maharak are of any size, but their importance is out of all proportion to their extent. This is the great centre of the Gulf pearl fishery, which, in a good year, may be worth half a million pounds sterling. The anchorage is stretched, and at certain states of the tide ships have to lie four miles from the shore, which is not even approachable by boats, and passengers, mails and cargo have to be handed on the donkeys for which Bahrain is famous. But this notwithstanding the trade of the port is valued at over a million and a quarter sterling, and the customs revenue, which amounts to some eighty thousand pounds, makes the Sheikh the richest ruler in the Gulf.

In the neighbourhood of Bahrain is the vast burying ground which has hitherto baffled archaeologists. The generally accepted theory is that it is a relic of the Phœnicians, who are known to have traded in these waters.

Political Agent: Captain R. G. E. W. Alban.

Koweit.

In the north-west corner of the Gulf lies the port which has made more stir than any place of similar size in the world. The importance of Koweit lies solely in the fact that it is the one possible Gulf terminus of the Baghdad Railway. This is no new discovery, for when the Euphrates Valley Railway was under discussion, General Chesney selected it under the alternative name of the Grane—so called from the resemblance of the formation of the Bay to a pair of horns—as the sea terminus of the line. Nowhere else would Koweit be called a good or a promising port. The Bay is 20 miles deep and 6 miles broad, but so shallow that heavy expense would have to be incurred to render it suitable for modern ocean-going steamers. It is sheltered from all but the westerly winds; and the clean thriving town is peopled by some 20,000 inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the sea, for the mariners of Koweit are noted for their boldness and hardihood.

Political Agent: Major C. C. J. Barrett, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Muhammerah.

On the opposite side of the entrance to the Shatt-el-Arab lie the territories of Sheikh Khazal of Muhammerah. The town, favourably situated near the mouth of the Karun River, has grown in importance since the opening of the Karun River route to Iraq through the enterprise of Messrs. Lynch

Brothers. This route provides the shortest passage to Ispahan and the central tableland, and already competes with the older route by way of Bushire and Shiraz. This importance has grown since the Anglo-Persian Oil Company established refineries at Muhammerah for the oil which they win in the rich fields which they have tapped near Ahwaz. Its importance will be still further accentuated, if the scheme for a railway to Khorremabad by way of Dizful matures. A concession for a road by this route has long been held by a British Company.

Vice Consul at Ahwaz: Captain H. A. Barnes.

Basra.

In a sense Basra and Turkish Arabistan can hardly be said to come within the scope of the frontiers of India, yet they are so indissolubly associated with the politics of the Gulf that they must be considered in relation thereto. Basra is the inevitable sea terminus of the Baghdad Railway. It stands on the Shatt-el-Arab, sixty miles from its mouth, favourably situated to receive the whole water-borne trade of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The local traffic is valuable, for the richness of the date groves on either side of the Shatt-el-Arab is indescribable, there is a considerable entrepot traffic, whilst Basra is the port of entry for Baghdad and for the trade with Persia, which follows the caravan route via Kermanshah and Hamadan.

The political destinies of Basra are at present wrapped up with the destinies of the new Arab State which we have set up in Mesopotamia under King Feisal. When the war was over we found ourselves committed to immense, undefined and burdensome responsibilities in that land. The sound concepts which dictated the original expedition were dislocated in the foolish advance to Baghdad; then the great military enterprises necessitated by the fall of Kut-al-Amara carried our frontier north to Mosul and the mountains of Kurdistan, east to the Persian Gulf, and west to the confines of the British Empire. The Imperialist hope that this immense area would be in one way or another an integral part of the British Empire. The cold fit followed when the cost was measured, and the Arabs rose in a revolt which showed that any such domination could only be maintained by force of arms and that the cost would be prodigious. Under these circumstances King Feisal was imported from the Hedjaz and installed on the throne under the aegis of Great Britain. Still we were committed to the support of the new kingdom, and that most dangerous condition arose—responsibility without any real power unless King Feisal was to be a mere puppet. Immense expenditure and indefinite military commitments. In these circumstances there was an insistent demand for withdrawal from the land. British policy moved slowly towards that end, but a definite step was taken in 1923. The Secretary of State for the Colonies announced this policy in a statement which is reproduced textually, for the purpose of reference. Addressing the House of Lords on May 3rd he said—

Your Lordships will remember that the Cabinet have been discussing this matter for some time and decisions have now been taken.

Sir Percy Cox has accordingly been authorised by His Majesty's Government to make an announcement at Baghdad, the terms of which I propose to read out to Your Lordships. This announcement was drawn up in consultation with King Feisal and his Government, and has their cordial assent. It is being published at Baghdad to-day.

The announcement is as follows:—

"It will be remembered that in the autumn of last year, after a lengthy exchange of views, it was decided between the Governments of His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty King Feisal that a Treaty of Alliance should be entered into between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. This Treaty, which was signed on the 10th October, 1922, and the term of which was to be twenty years (subject to periodical revision at the desire of either party) provided for the establishment of an independent Constitutional Government in Iraq, enjoying a certain measure of advice and assistance from Great Britain of the nature and extent indicated in the text of the Treaty itself and of subsidiary Agreements which were to be made thereunder.

"Since then the Iraq Government has made great strides along the path of independent and stable existence and has been able successfully to assume administrative responsibility and both parties being equally anxious that the commitments and responsibilities of His Majesty's Government in respect of Iraq should be terminated as soon as possible, it is considered that the period of the Treaty in its present form can conveniently be shortened. In order to obviate the inconvenience of introducing amendments into the body of a Treaty already signed, it has been decided to bring about the necessary modifications by means of a protocol which, like the Treaty itself, will be subject to ratification by the Constituent Assembly.

"Accordingly a protocol has now been signed by the parties in the following terms:—

"It is understood between the High Contracting Parties that, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 18, the present Treaty is all terminate upon Iraq becoming a member of the League of Nations and in any case not later than four years from the ratification of peace with Turkey. Nothing in this protocol shall prevent a fresh agreement from being concluded with a view to regulate the subsequent relations between the High Contracting Parties; and negotiations for that object shall be entered into between them before the expiration of the above period.

It will be noticed that under this protocol the Treaty in its present form is to terminate on the entry of Iraq into the League of Nations or in four years, whichever may be earlier.

The position of Iraq as regards the League is that when the Treaty has been ratified His Britannic Majesty will be bound under Article 6 to use his good offices to secure the admission of Iraq to membership of the League of Nations as soon as possible. His Majesty's Government will be in a position to take this step on the fulfilment of the two following essential conditions, namely, the delimitation of the frontiers of Iraq, and the establishment on a stable government in Iraq with the Organic Law

Under the Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and the Powers which was signed in 1923, it was agreed that the frontier between King Feisal's State and Turkey, the important frontier because the future of Mosul was in dispute, should be settled by the League of Nations, should Great Britain and Turkey be unable to come to agreement by direct negotiation. These direct negotiations were opened at Constantinople, but no agreement was reached, so the question was opened before the Council of the League in September 1924. Whilst the matter was under discussion complaint was made by Great Britain that Turkey had violated the provisional frontier drawn in the Treaty of Lausanne, and certain irregular hostilities were carried on in the disputed zone. This matter too was remitted to the League, and a further provisional boundary was drawn, which was accepted by both parties.

Here the matter remained until the autumn of 1925. In order to secure the material for a decision the League of Nations despatched a neutral commission to Mosul to investigate the situation. This commission produced a long and involved report, but one which led by devious paths to a common sense recommendation. It was that the first essential in the Mosul vilayet is stable government. The desires of the people were for incorporation in the State of Iraq. If therefore the British Government was willing to extend its mandate over Iraq for a further period of twenty-five years—a guarantee of stable government—then Mosul should be incorporated in Iraq; if Britain was not willing, then Mosul should return to Turkey. When the matter came before the Council of the League Great Britain gave the necessary guarantee. The Turks thereupon challenged the whole competence of the Council to give an award under the terms of the Treaty of Lausanne. The issue was remitted to the Court of International Justice at The Hague which decided in favour of the competence of the Council. About this time there was published the report of a distinguished Estonian General, General Laidoner, who had been despatched by the League to investigate allegations of brutality by the Turks in deporting Christians from their own zone, and this report was of the most damning character. Great Britain having given the necessary assurance, that she was prepared to extend her mandate over Iraq for a further twenty-five years, thereupon the Council of the League allocated the whole of the area in dispute, right up to the temporary frontier—commonly called The Brussels Line—to Iraq. The Turks refused to accept the award and withdrew from Geneva threatening force. Later wiser counsels and in 1926 Turkey accepted a frontier substantially as drawn by the League. A formal treaty was concluded between Great Britain and Iraq extending the mandate for a further twenty-five years. The British Government express the hope that a shorter period will be sufficient to set Iraq on its feet as an independent and stable State; but these hopes are not shared by any who know the country. They are convinced that at least two generations must pass before Iraq can stand alone.

A New Treaty A new Treaty signed between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. It states that "Provided the present rate of progress in Iraq is maintained and all goes well in the interval, His Britannic Majesty will support the candidature of Iraq for admission to the League of Nations in 1932." It stipulates that separate agreements superseding those of March 25, 1924, shall regulate the financial and military relations.

The King of Iraq undertakes to secure the execution of all international obligations which His Britannic Majesty has undertaken to see carried out in respect of Iraq. He also undertakes not to modify the existing provisions of Iraq's organic law so as adversely to affect the rights and interests of foreigners, and to constitute any difference in the rights before the law among Iraqis on the grounds of differences of race, religion, or language.

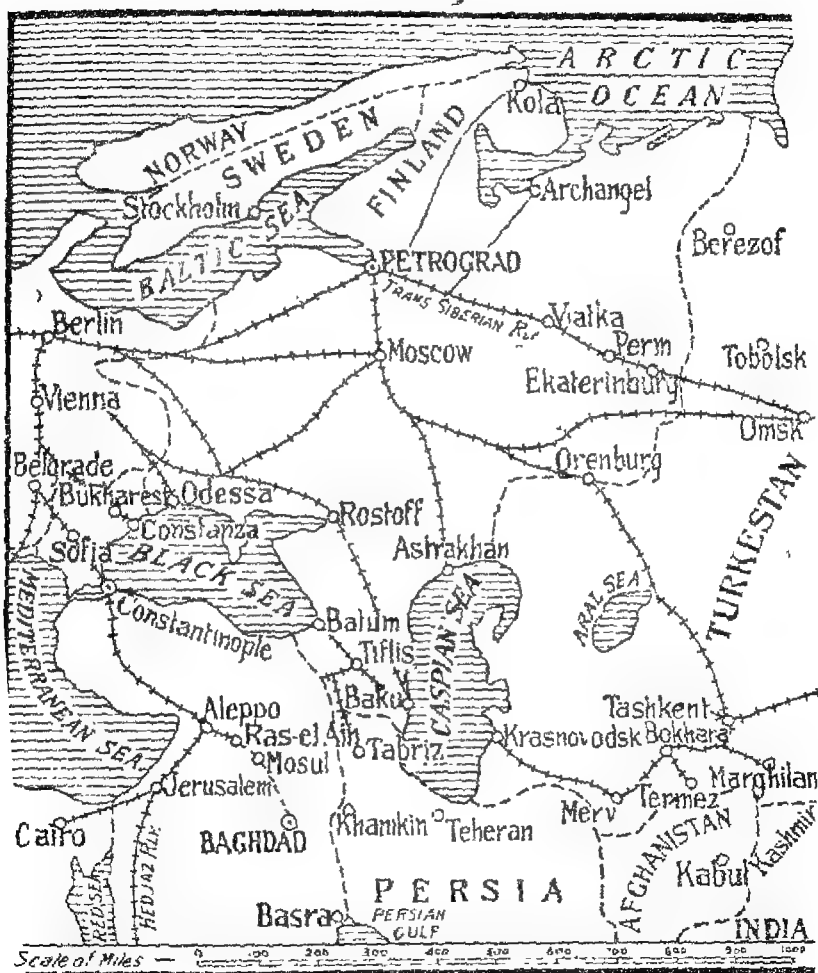
There shall be full and frank consultation between the high contracting parties in all matters of foreign policy which may affect their common interests. The King of Iraq undertakes, so soon as local conditions permit, to accede to all general international agreements already existing, or which may be concluded hereafter with the approval of the League of Nations in respect of the slave trade, the traffic in drugs, arms and munitions, the traffic in women and children, transit navigation, aviation, and communications, and also to execute the provisions of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Treaty of Lausanne, the Anglo-French Boundary Convention, and the San Remo Oil Agreement in so far as they apply to Iraq.

There shall be no discrimination in matters concerning taxation, commerce, or navigation against nationals or companies of any State which is a member of the League of Nations, or of any State to which the King of Iraq has agreed by Treaty that the same rights should be ensured as if it were a member of the League.

Any difference that may arise between the high contracting parties shall be referred to the Permanent Court of International Justice provided for by Article Fourteen of the Covenant of the League. The Treaty shall be subjected to revision with the object of making all the modifications required by the circumstances when Iraq enters the League of Nations.

It is important to remember that there is a considerable difference between the vilayet of Basra and the other portions of King Feisal's State. Basra has for long been in the closest commercial contact with India, and is in many respects a commercial appanage of Bombay. Its people have not much in common with those of the North. They took no part in the Arab rising which followed the war, and they ask nothing better than to remain in close touch with India and through India with the British Government. If we are correct in the

Railway Position in the Middle East.



supposition that Basra is destined to be the great port of the Middle East, then its future under an Arab State, with no experience of administration in such conditions, is one of the greatest interest, which can hardly be regarded as settled by the policy underlying the declaration which is set out above.

The Persian Shore.

The Persian shore presents fewer points of permanent interest. The importance of Bushire is administrative rather than commercial. It is the headquarters of Persian authority, the residence of the British Resident, and the centre of many foreign consuls. It is also the main entrepot for the trade of Shiraz, and competes for that of Isfahán. But the anchorage is wretched and dangerous, the road to Shiraz passes over the notorious kotala which preclude the idea of rail connection, and if ever a railway to the central tableland is opened, the commercial value of Bushire will dwindle to insignificance. Further south lies Lingah, reputed to be the prettiest port on the Persian coast, but its trade is being diverted to Debal on the Pirate Coast. In the narrow channel which forms the entrance to the Gulf from the Arabian Sea is Bunder Abbas. Here we are at the key of the Gulf. Bunder Abbas is of some importance as the outlet for the trade of Kerman

and Yezd. It is of still more importance as a possible naval base. To the west of the town between the Island of Kish and the mainland lie the Clarence Straits. These straits are less than three miles across, and contain an abundance of water. Here, according to sound naval opinion, there is the possibility of creating a naval base which would command the Gulf. The great obstacle is the climate, which is one of the worst in the world. On the opposite shore, under the shadow of Cape Musandam, lies another sheltered deep-water anchorage, Elphinstone's Inlet, where the climate conditions are equally vile. But between these two points there is the possibility of controlling the Gulf just as Gibraltar controls the Mediterranean. For many years Bunder Abbas loomed large in public discussions as the possible warm water port for which Russia was seeking. On the Mekran coast, there is the cable station of Jask, and the possible port of Chahbar.

Political Resident in the Persian Gulf—Lt. Col. L. B. H. Haworth.

Residence Surgeon at Bushire—Lt.-Col. A. N. Dickson, M.C.

Consul at Bunder Abbas and Assistant to the Resident—G. A. Richardson, O.B.E.

II.—SEISTAN.

The concentration of public attention on the Persian Gulf was allowed to obscure the frontier importance of Seistan. Yet it was for many years a serious preoccupation with the Government of India. Seistan lies midway north and south between the point where the frontiers of Russia, Persia and Afghanistan meet at Zulfiqar and that where the frontiers of Persia and of our Indian Empire meet on the open sea at Gwattur. It marches on its eastern border with Afghanistan and with Baluchistan. It commands the valley of the Helmand, and with it the road from Herat to Kandahar, and its immense resources as a wheat-producing region have been only partly developed under Persian misrule. It offers to an aggressive rival, an admirable strategic base for future military operations; it is also midway athwart the track of the shortest line which could be built to connect the Trans-Caspian Railway with the Indian Ocean, and if and when the line from Askabad to Meshed were built, the temptation to extend it through Seistan would be strong. Whilst the gaze of the British was concentrated on the North-West Frontier, and to possible lines of advance through Kandahar to Quetta, and through Kabul to Peshawar, there can be little doubt that Russian attention was directed to a more leisurely movement through Seistan, if the day came when she moved her armies against India.

Whether with this purpose or not, Russian

intrigue was particularly active in Seistan in the early years of the century. Having Russianised Khorassan, her agents moved into Seistan and through the agency of the Belgian Customs officials, "scientific missions" and an irritating plague cordon, sought to establish influence, and to stifle the British trade which was gradually being built up by way of Nushki. These efforts died down before the presence of the McMahon mission, which, in pursuance of Treaty rights, was demarcating the boundary between Persia and Afghanistan, with special reference to the distribution of the waters of the Helmand. They finally ceased with the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement. Since then the international importance of Seistan has waned.

The natural conditions which give to Seistan this strategic importance persist. Meantime British influence is being consolidated through the Seistan trade route. The distance from Quetta to the Seistan border at Killa Rahat is 465 miles, most of it dead level, and it has now been provided with fortified posts, dak bungalows, wells, and all facilities for caravan traffic. The railway was pushed out from Spezzard, on the Bolan Railway to Nushki, so as to provide a better starting point for the caravans than Quetta. This line was extended to the Persian Frontier, during the war as a military measure, but the traffic supports only two trains a week.

Frontier (Durand Line) ———
 British Administrative Border



III.—PERSIA.

From causes which only need to be very briefly set out, the Persian question as affecting Indian frontier policy has receded until it is of no account. Reference is made in the introduction to this section to the fact that the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement left us a bitter legacy in Persia. That Agreement divided Persia into two zones of influence, and the Persians bitterly resented this apparent division of their kingdom between the two Powers, though no such end was in view. German agents, working cleverly on this feeling, established an influence which was not suspected, and when the war broke out they were able to raise the tribes in opposition to Great Britain, in the South, and after the fall of Kut-al-Amara when a Turkish Division penetrated Western Persia, they exercised a strong influence in Teheran. With the defeat of Turkey and the Central Powers this influence disappeared, but at that time there was no authority in Persia besides that of the British Government, which had strong forces in the North-West and controlled the southern provinces through a force organised under British officers and called The South Persian Rifles. It was one of the first tasks of the British Government to regularise this position, and for this purpose an agreement was reached with the then Persian Government, the main features of which were:—

To respect Persian integrity;

To supply experts for Persian administration,

To supply officers and equipment for a Persian force for the maintenance of order;

To provide a loan for these purposes;

To co-operate with the Persian Government in railway construction and other forms of transport.

Both Governments agreed to the appointment of a joint committee to examine and revise the Customs tariff.

The second agreement defined the terms and conditions on which the loan was to be made to Persia. The loan was for £2,000,000 at 7 per cent. redeemable in 20 years. It was secured on the revenues and Customs' receipts assigned for the repayment of the 1911 loan and should these be insufficient the Persian Government was to make good the necessary sums from other sources.

The Present Position.—We have given the main points in the Anglo-Persian agreement, because few documents have been more misunderstood. Those who desire to study it in greater detail will find it set out in the Indian Year Book for 1921, page 138 *et seq.* It has been explained that most Persians construed it into a guarantee of protection against all external enemies. When the British troops in the north-west retired before the Bolsheviks, the Persians had no use for the agreement and

it soon became a dead instrument. It was finally rejected and the advisers who were to have assisted Persia under it withdrew.

A remark frequently heard amongst soldiers and politicians in India after the War was that Great Britain must take an active hand in Persia because she could not be a passive witness to chaos in that country. The view always taken in the Indian Year Book was that the internal affairs of Persia were her own concern; if she preferred chaos to order that was her own look out, but left alone she would hammer out some form of Government. That position has been justified. The Sirdar Sipah, or commander in chief, a rough but energetic soldier, gradually took charge of Persian affairs and established a thinly-veiled military dictatorship which made the Government feared and respected throughout the country for the first time since the assassination of Shah Nasr-ed-din. A body of capable Americans under Dr. Millsbaugh restored order to the chaotic finances. These two forces operating in unison gave Persia the best government she had known for a generation. But the Sirdar Sipah chafed under the irregularities of his position, with a Shah spending his time in Europe and wasting the resources of the country. He moved to have his position regularised by the deposition of the absentee Shah and his own ascent of the throne. At first he was defeated by the opposition of the Mollahs, but in 1925 prevailed, when the Shah was formally deposed and the Sirdar Sipah chosen monarch in his place. The change was made without disturbance, and Persia entered on a period of peace and consolidation which has removed it from the disturbing forces in the post-war world. Throughout the year considerable progress was made with the reform of the administration, and many projects are afoot for the improvement of communications which is the greatest need of the land, such as an air service to Teheran and railway construction. The least reassuring episode of the year was the departure of the American financial mission, which had done admirable work in the restoration of the finances. When their contract expired Dr. Millsbaugh and his colleagues were offered a renewal of it on terms which they did not regard as satisfactory, especially in regard to the powers they were to exercise. They therefore withdrew from the country. At the close of the year there was some talk of the replacement of Dr. Millsbaugh by another foreign expert on a short term contract, but no definite steps had been taken.

Sir Percy Lorraine assumed office as British Minister at Teheran in December 1921.

H. B. M.'s Consul-General and Agent of the Government of India in Khorasan—Lt.-Col. H. V. Blasco.

H. B. M.'s Consul in Seistan and Kain—C. P. Sirluc.

Medical Officer and Vice-Consul—Captain L. K. Ledger.

IV.—THE PRESENT FRONTIER PROBLEM.

There yet remains a small part of British India where the King's writ does not run. Under what is called the Durand Agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan, the boundary between India and Afghanistan was settled, and it was delimited in 1903 except for a small section which was delimited after the Afghan War in 1919. But the Government of India have never occupied up to the border. Between the administered territory and the Durand line there lies a belt of territory of varying width extending from the Gomal Pass in the south, to Kashmir in the north; this is generically known as the Independent Territory. Its future is the keynote of the interminable discussions of frontier policy for nearly half a century.

This is a country of deep valleys and secluded glens, which nature has fenced in with almost inaccessible mountains. It is peopled with wild tribes of mysterious origin, in whom Afghan, Tartar, Turkoman, Persian, Indian, Arab and Jewish intermingling. They had lived their own lives for centuries, with little intercourse even amongst themselves, and as Sir Valentine Chirol truly said "the only bond that ever could unite them in common action was the bond of Islam." It is impossible to understand the Frontier problem unless two facts are steadily borne in mind. The strongest sentiment amongst these strange people is the desire to be left alone. They value their independence much more than their lives. The other factor is that the country does not suffice even in good years to maintain the population. They must find the means of subsistence outside, either in trade, by service in the Indian Army or in the Khassadars or else in the outlier which hill-men all the world over have utilised from time immemorial, the raiding of the wealthier and more peaceful population of the Plains.

Frontier Policy.

The policy of the Government of India toward the Independent Territory has ebbed and flowed in a remarkable degree. It has fluctuated between the Forward School, which would occupy the frontier up to the confines of Afghanistan, and the school of Masterly Inactivity, which would leave the tribesmen entirely to their own devices, finishing their only when in a state of "horry." Behind both the policy of a Russian invasion, and that coloured our frontier policy until the Anglo-Russian Agreement. This induced what was called Hit and Retire tactics. In the half century which ended in 1897 there were nearly a score of punitive expeditions, each one of which left behind a legacy of distrust, and which brought no permanent improvement in its train. The fruit of the suspicion thus engendered was seen in 1897. Then the whole frontier, from the Malakand to the Gomal, was ablaze. The extent of this rising and the magnitude of the military measures which were taken to meet it compelled a consideration of the whole position. The broad outlines of the new policy were laid down in a despatch from the Secre-

tary of State for India, which prescribed for the Government the "limitation of your interference with the tribes, so as to avoid the extension of administrative control over tribal territory." It fell to Lord Curzon to give effect to this policy. The main foundations of his action were to exercise over the tribes the political influence requisite to secure our imperial interests, to pay them subsidies for the performance of specific duties, but to respect their tribal independence and leave them, as far as possible, free to govern themselves according to their own traditions and to follow their own inherited habits of life without let or hindrance.

New Province.

As a first step Lord Curzon took the control of the tribes under the direct supervision of the Government of India. Up to this point they had been in charge of the Government of the Punjab, a province whose head is busied with many other concerns. Lord Curzon created in 1901, the North-West Frontier Province, and placed it in charge of a Chief Commissioner with an intimate frontier experience, directly subordinate to the Government of India. This was a revival of a scheme prepared by Lord Lytton in 1877, and often considered afterwards, but which had slipped for lack of driving power. Next Lord Curzon withdrew the regular troops so far as possible from the advanced posts, and placed these fortresses in charge of tribal levies, offered by a handful of British officers. The most successful of these was the Khyber Rifles, which steadfastly kept the peace of that historic Pass until 1919. At the same time the regular troops were cantoned in places whence they could quickly move to any danger point, and these bases were connected with the Indian Railway system. In pursuance of this policy frontier railways were run out to Dargal, and a narrow-gauge line, since converted to the broad-gauge, was constructed from Kushalgarh to Kohat at the entrance of the Kohat Pass, and to Thal at the mouth of the Kurram Valley. These railways were completed by lines to Tonk and Bannu. By this means the striking power of the regular forces was greatly increased. Nor was the policy of economic development neglected. The railways gave a powerful stimulus to trade; and the Lower Swat Canal converted fractious tribesmen into successful agriculturists. This policy of economic development is receiving a great development through the completion of the Upper Swat Canal (i.e. Irrigation). Now it is completed there are other works awaiting attention. For many years this policy was completely justified by results.

A New Policy.

It saved us from serious complications for nearly twenty years, although the position could never be said to be entirely satisfactory particularly in Waziristan, peopled by the most reckless raiders on the whole border-line with a bold hole into Afghanistan when pressed from the British side. It endured throughout the war and did not break

low until the Amir of Afghanistan sought refuge from his internal troubles in a jihad against India. In this insane enterprise the Afghans placed less reliance in their regular troops, which have never offered more than a contemptible resistance to the British forces, than in the armed tribesmen. In this they were justified, for the most serious fighting was with the tribesmen. The tribal levies collapsed with almost universal swiftness. The Southern Waziristan Militia broke and there was serious trouble throughout the Zhob district. The Afghans, our most serious enemies in 1897, and the most powerful of the tribes on the North-West Frontier, remained fairly quiet throughout the actual hostilities with Afghanistan, but later, it was necessary to take measures against a leading malecontent and destroy his fort at Chora. But the Mahsuds and the Waziris broke into open hostilities. Their country lies within the belt bounded by the Durand Line and the Afghan frontier on the west, and by the districts of Bannu and Dehra Ismail Khan on the east. Amongst them the Afghan emissaries were particularly active and as they could put in the field some 30,000 warriors, 75 per cent. armed with modern weapons of precision, they constituted formidable adversaries. They refused to make peace even when the Afghans caved in. They rejected our terms and active measures were taken against them. The fighting was the most severe in the history of the Frontier. The Mahsuds fought with great tenacity. Their shooting was amazingly good, their tactics were admirable, for amongst their ranks were many men trained either in the Militia or in the Indian Army; and more than once they came within measurable distance of considerable success. They were assisted by the fact that the best trained troops in the Indian Army were still overseas and younger soldiers were opposed to them. But their very tenacity and bravery were their own undoing; their losses were the heaviest in the long history of the Borderland and when the Mahsuds made their complete submission in September 1921 they were more severely chastened than at any time during their career.

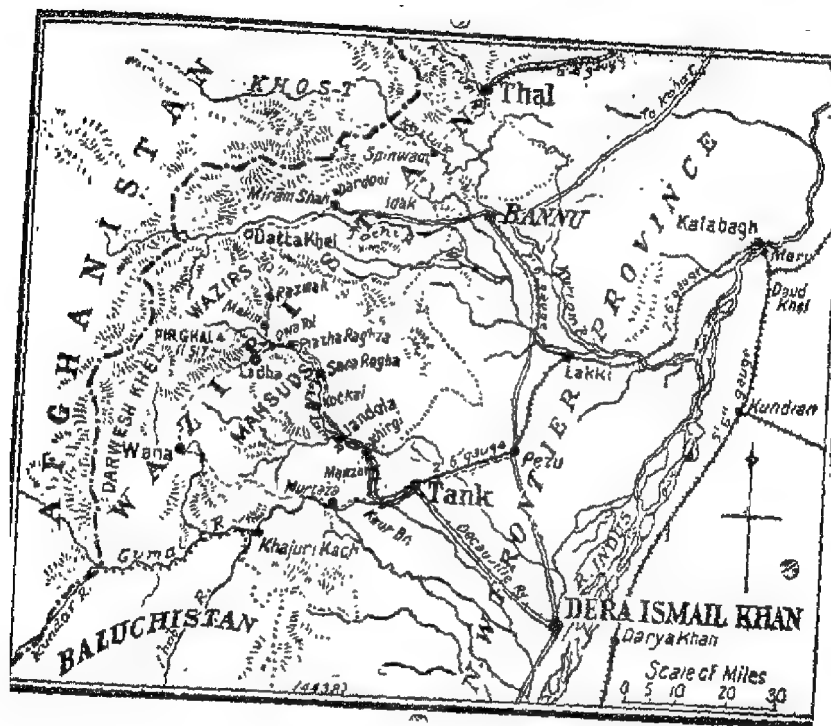
A New Chapter.—As the result of the Afghan War of 1919, Indian frontier policy was again thrown into the melting pot. There was much vague discussion of the position in the course of the months which followed the Afghan War and the troubles in Waziristan which succeeded it, but this discussion did not really come to a head until February-March 1922. The Budget then presented to the country revealed a serious financial position. It showed that despite serious increases in taxation, the country had suffered a series of deficits, which had been financed out of borrowings. Further heavy taxation was proposed in this Budget, but even then the equilibrium which the financial authorities regarded as of paramount importance was not attained. When the accounts were examined, it was seen that the heaviest charges on the exchequer were those under Military Expenses, and that there was an indefinitely large, and seemingly unending expenditure on Waziristan. This forced the Military, and allied with it the Frontier, expenditure to the front. In actual practice the discussion is really focussed on

Waziristan. In essentials it is the aged controversy—shall we deal with this part of the Frontier on what is known as the Saugeman system, namely, by occupying commanding posts within the country itself, dominating the tribesmen but interfering little in their own affairs; or shall we revert to what was known as the close border system, as modified by Lord Curzon, of withdrawing our regular troops to strategic positions outside the tribal area, leaving the tribesmen, organised into militia to keep the passes open, and punishing the tribesmen by expeditions when their raiding propensities become unbearable.

The Curzon Policy.—The Curzon policy adopted in 1899, to clear up the aftermath of the serious and unsatisfactory Frontierism in 1897, was a compromise between the "occupation" and the "close border" policies. It was based on the withdrawal of the regular troops as far as possible to cantonments in rear whilst the frontier posts, such as those in the Tochi at Wana and in the Khyber and Kurram were held by militia, recruited from amongst the tribesmen themselves. The cantonments for regular troops were linked so far as possible with the Indian railway system, so as to permit of rapid reinforcement. But it must be remembered that like all Frontier students, Lord Curzon did not regard this as the final policy. He wrote in the Memorandum formulating his ideas "It is of course inevitable that in the passage of time the whole Waziri country up to the Durand line will come more and more under our control. No policy in the world can resist or greatly retard that consummation. My desire is to bring it about by gradual degrees and above all without the constant aid and presence of British troops." The Curzon policy, though it was not pursued with the steadfastness he would have followed if he had remained in control, gave us moderate—or rather it should be said bearable—frontier conditions until the Afghan War. It then broke down, because the tribal militia, on which it was based, could not withstand the wave of fanaticism, and other conditions set up by the Afghan invasion of 1919. The Khyber militia faded away, the Waziri militia either mutinied, as at Wana, or deserted. The pillar of the Curzon system fell in the military phrase of the hour, it could not stand the test of religious fanaticism or an Afghan War. The very word Militia became anathema.

The Policy.—The new policy adumbrated by the Government in the Budget of 1922 was outlined by the Viceroy, in a speech to the Indian Legislature, in which he said "I have decided to retain commanding posts in Waziristan, to open up the country by roads; to extend the main Indian railway system from its then terminus, Jamrud, through the Khyber to the frontier of Afghanistan, and to take over the duties of the Militia by regular troops. That immediate policy was soon modified so far as the garrisoning of these frontier positions by regular troops was concerned. Such duties are immensely unpopular in the regular army, which is not organised and equipped for work of this character. Irregulars have always existed on the frontier, and as they had disappeared with the Militia, it was to those."

WAZIRISTAN.



The new form of irregular was what have been called Khassadars and Scouts. The Khassadar is an extremely irregular irregular. He has no British officers and no uniform, except a distinguishing kind of *pagri*. In contradistinction to the old Militia, he finds his own rifle. As one informed observer remarked, the beauty of the system is that so long as the Khassadars, under their own headmen, secure the immunity of the caravans and perform their other police duties, they draw their pay and no questions

are asked. If they desert in the day of trouble, they lose their pay but the Government loses no rifles, nor does it risk mutiny or the loss of British and Indian officers. But the application of this policy produced an acute controversy. It was one thing to say that commanding posts in Waziristan should be retained; it was another to decide what these posts should be. We must therefore consider the special problem of Waziristan.

V.—WAZIRISTAN.

We can now approach the real frontier question of the day, the future of Waziristan. What follows is drawn from an admirable article contributed to the January number of "The Journal of the United Service Institution of India," written by Lt.-Col. G. M. Routh, D.S.O.

Geographically Waziristan is a rough parallelogram averaging 60 miles from East to West and 180 from North to South. The western half consists of the Suleiman Range gradually rising up to the ridge from five to ten thousand feet high, which forms the watershed between the Indus and the Helmund Rivers and corresponds with the Durand Line separating India from Afghanistan. This is the western boundary. On the east is the Indus. North is the watershed of the Kurram River running East and West about 30 miles north of Bannu separating Waziristan from the Kohat District. South is a zigzag political boundary from the Durand Line running between Wana and Fort Sandeman in Baluchistan with a turn southwards to the Indus.

The western half is a rugged and inhospitable medley of ridges and ravines straggled and confused in hopeless disarray. The more inhabited portions lie well up the slope at heights of four to six thousand feet. Here are our outposts of Wana and Ladha some 15 and 20 miles respectively from the Durand Line, in the centre of the grazing district, the latter within five miles of important villages of Kaniguram and Makin.

The submontane tracts from the hills to the Indus vary from the highly cultivated and irrigated land round Bannu to the sandy desert in the Marwat above Peshawar.

Where irrigation or river water is obtainable cultivation is attempted under conditions which can hardly be encouraging. Other tracts like that between Peshawar and Tank, usually pastoral, can only hope for an occasional crop after a lucky rainfall.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants, unable to support existence on their meagre soil, make up the margin by armed robbery of their richer and more peaceful neighbours. The name originates according to tradition, from one Wazir, two of whose grandsons were the actual founders of the race. Of the four main tribes Darweshkhel, Mahsuds, Dawars and Batanni, only the first two are true Wazirs. Their villages are separate though dotted about more or less indiscriminately, and inter-marriage is the exception—in fact all traditionally are in open strife, a circumstance which, until some bright political comet like the Afghan War of 1919 joined them together as materially aided our dealings with them.

Unlike other parts of India, however, these wild people acknowledge little allegiance to maliks or headmen. No one except perhaps the Mulla Powindah till his death in 1913 could speak of any portion of them as his following.

Policy.—The policy of the British was at first one of non-interference with the tribes. Even now only part of the country is administered. Gradually it was found that more and more supervision became necessary to control raiding and this was attempted by expeditions to portions of the country with Regulars, followed by building posts and brick towers to be held by Militia. These posts were at first placed at the points where raiders usually debouched. The Political Officers, at first supported by Regulars, built up from 1904 onwards a force of some 3,000 Militia with British Officers at their disposal, who were backed up by the garrisons at Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. In addition certain allowances were made to the tribes for good behaviour, prevention of raids and surrender of offenders when required, also for tribal escorts as necessary. Gradually, as occasion required, posts were occupied. Wana was occupied in 1895 at the request of the Wana Wazirs. Similarly the Tochi in 1898. In the comprehensive expedition of 1895-96 when this policy was put into effect, the British arms were shown in every remote valley in the vain hope of taming the Mahsuds. It was hoped the various posts would prove a pacifying influence and a rallying ground for Government supporters. From 1904 to 1919 they were held by Militia. Roads and communications were improved and tribal allowance augmented by sales of produce to the troops on a liberal scale.

A Programme.—Lt.-Col. Routh then outlined a possible policy for Waziristan. We give it textually, because we believe it substantially reflects military opinion in India;—

To the unprejudiced mind it appears more practical to grasp the nettle firmly and dominate the inhabited tracts. Why should not the road now being made to Ladha be continued 30 miles north to the Tochi road at Datta Khel and 29 miles south to Wana? Why should we not occupy the healthier portions of Waziristan rather than the foothills or Cis-Indus zones. The Razmak district round Makin 6,000 feet up is both healthy and fertile. The same applies to the Shawal valley lying behind Pir Gul, the national peak near Ladha rising to a height of 11,556 feet above the sea. The Wana plain 5,000 feet up, 30 miles by 15, could with railway support an army corps; there is no doubt that a forward railway policy will help to solve the problem. A line has been surveyed from

Tank to Draban and thence up the valley to Fort Sandeman, so connecting with the Zhob and perhaps later to Wana. The Gumal Tangi from Murtaza to Khajuri Kach is the apparently obvious route, but would be prohibitively expensive in construction and require much tunnelling. Beyond Khajuri Kach *via* Tanai and Roxha Kot to Wana, some 23 miles, offers no difficulty. The old policy of the raiders working westwards and our retributive expeditions stretching their very temporary tentacles eastwards seems to suggest better lateral communications. The broad gauge at Kohat might without undue cost be extended to Thal and thence to Idak *via* Spinwam. From here till further extension proved desirable, a motor road through Razmak, Makin and Dwatoi to link up with that now surveyed to Ladha sounds possible to the looker on. Eventually such communications, road, rail, or both, could continue to Wana, Fort Sandeman and Quetta *via* Hindu Bagh, a strategic line offering great defensive possibilities substituting Razmak, which resembles Ootacamund, and healthy uplands for the deadly fever spots now occupied. The very fact of employing the tribesmen on these works with good pay and good engineers tends to pacify the country as well as providing healthy accessible hill stations in place of the proverbially uncomfortable cantonments which now exist in this part of the Frontier.

The Compromise.—The new policy, which has been called "the half forward policy," was announced in 1923. It was a compromise between the two extreme schools of thought.

VI.—AFGHANISTAN.

The relations of Afghanistan w. the Indian Empire were for long dominated by one main consideration—the relation of Afghanistan to a Russian invasion of India. All other considerations were of secondary importance. For nearly three-quarters of a century the attitude of Great Britain toward successive Amirs has been dictated by this one factor. It was in order to prevent Afghanistan from coming under the influence of Russia that the first Afghan War of 1838 was fought—the most melancholic episode in Indian frontier history. It was because a Russian envoy was received at Kabul whilst the British representative was turned back at Ali Masjid that the Afghan War of 1878 was waged. After that the whole end of British policy toward Afghanistan was to build up a strong independent State, friendly to Britain, which would act as a buffer against Russia, and so to order our frontier policy that we should be in a position to move large forces up if necessary, to support the Afghans in resisting aggression.

Gates to India.

A knowledge of the trans-frontier geography of India brought home to her administrators the conviction that there were only two main gates to India—through Afghanistan, the historic route to India, along which successive invasions have poured, and by way of Sistan. It was the purpose of British policy to close them, and of Russia to endeavour to keep

This involved the completion of various roads fit for mechanical transport within Waziristan and along the Derajat border; the holding of certain posts, Jandola and Razmak, by Regular troops until this road programme was completed, and thereafter the location of Scouts, who are *mutato nomine* militia, at certain points on the roads within Waziristan, assisted by *Khasaddars* or local levies, finding their own arms and led by their own leaders.

Results.—The official view of the working of the new system is strongly optimistic. It is that since May 1st, 1925, Waziristan is in the happy position of having no history. The Mahsuds have discovered that if the new military roads lead into their country, they also lead out of it, and many of them are taking the opportunity of seeing something of the neighbouring districts of Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. The building of the roads enables many of the Mahsuds to acquire some money honestly and now it is not an uncommon sight to see a Mahsud Malik, accompanied by as many of his friends as can find a place, driving in an old battered Ford towards Tank or Dera Ismail Khan. A promising sign is that this peaceful intercourse with the outer world is inducing in the Mahsuds a taste for the lighter episodes of social life. Of high promise is the opening of two primary schools at Karamma and Madan. Along the whole frontier, between April 1925 and the end of February 1926 only 26 raids were made into British districts, as compared with that in the period immediately following 1919, when within three years 1106 raids into British India were made.

them at any rate half open. To this end having pushed her trans-Persian railway to Samarkand, Russia thrust a military line from Merv to the Kushkinsky Post, where railway material is collected for its immediate prolongation to Herat. Later, she connected the trans-Siberian railway with the trans-Caucasian system, by the Grenburg-Tashkent line, thus bringing Central Asia into direct touch with her European magazines. Nor has Great Britain been idle. A great military station has been created at Quetta. This is connected with the Indian railway system by lines of railway which climb to the Quetta Plateau by the Bolan Pass and through the Chapparr Rift, lines which rank amongst the most picturesque and daring in the world. From Quetta the line has been carried by the Khojak tunnel through the Khwaja Amran Range, until it leads out to the Afghan Border at New Chaman, where it opens on the route to Kandahar. The material is stocked at New Chaman which would enable the line to be earned to Kandahar in sixty days. In view of the same menace it has been brought under is now one of the gr of the world, and nothing has been less than which modern military science can achieve to add to its natural strength. In the opinion of many military authorities it firmly closes the western gate to India, either by way of or the direct route through Sistan

Further east the Indian railway system was carried to Jamrud later up the Khyber Pass to Landi Kotal. A first class military road sometimes double, sometimes triple, threads the Pass to our advanced post at Landi Kotal, and then descends until it meets the Afghan frontier at Landi Khana. Later, a commencement was made with the Lori Shikhar Railway, which, starting from Peshawar, was designed to penetrate the Mullagar country and provide an alternative advance to the Khyber for the movement of British troops for the defence of Kabul. For unexplained reasons, this line was suddenly stopped and is now thrust in the air. In this wise the two Powers prepared for the great conflict which was to be fought on the Kandahar-Ghazni-Kabul line.

Relations with India.

Between the advanced posts on either side stands the Kingdom of Afghanistan. The end of British policy has been to make it strong and friendly. In the first particular it has largely succeeded. When the late Abdurrahman was invited to ascend the throne, as the only means of escape from the tangle of 1879, none realised his great qualities. Previously the Amir of Afghanistan had been the chief of a confederacy of clans. Abdurrahman made himself master in his own kingdom. By means into which it is not well closely to enter; he beat down opposition until none dared lift a hand against him. Aided by a British subsidy of twelve lakhs of rupees a year, increased to eighteen by the Durand Agreement of 1893, and subsequently to over 20 lakhs, he established a strong standing army and set up arsenals under foreign supervision to furnish it with arms and ammunition. Step by step his position was regularised. The Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission,—which nearly precipitated war over the Penjdeh episode in 1885,—determined the northern boundaries. The Pamirs Agreement delimited the borders amid those snowy heights. The Durand Agreement settled the border on the British side, except for a small section to the west of the Khyber which remained a fruitful source of trouble between Afghanistan and ourselves until 1919, when the Afghan claims and action upon the undemarcated section led to war. That section was finally surveyed and the frontier determined shortly after the conclusion of peace with Afghanistan. Finally the McMahon award closed the old feud with Persia over the distribution of the waters of the Helmand in Seistan. It was estimated by competent authorities that about the time of Abdurrahman's death, Afghanistan was in a position to place in the field, in the event of war, one hundred thousand well armed regular and irregular troops, together with two hundred thousand tribal levies, and to leave fifty thousand regulars and irregulars and a hundred thousand levies to maintain order in Kabul and the provinces. But if Afghanistan were made strong, it was not made friendly. Abdurrahman Khan trusted British policy up to the day of his death. All that can be said is that he distrusted it less than he distrusted Russia, and if the opinion had arisen for him to make choice he

advance with all the force at his disposal. He closed his country absolutely against all foreigners, except those who were necessary for the supervision of his arsenals and factories. He refused to accept a British Resident, on the ground that he could not protect him, and British affairs were entrusted to an Indian agent, who was in a most equivocal position. At the same time he repeatedly pressed for the right to pass by the Government of India and to establish his own representative at the Court of St. James.

Afghanistan and the War.—These relations were markedly improved during the reign of His Majesty the Amir Habibullah Khan. It used to be one of the trite sayings of the Frontier that the system which Abdurrahman Khan had built up would perish with him, for none was capable of maintaining it. Habibullah Khan more than maintained it. He visited India soon after his accession and acquired a vivid knowledge of the power and resources of the Empire. He strengthened and consolidated his authority in Afghanistan itself. At the outset of the war he made a declaration of his complete neutrality. It is believed—a considerable reticence is preserved over our relations with Afghanistan—that he warned the Government of India that he might be forced into many equivocal acts, but they must trust him; certainly his reception of Turkish, Austrian and German "missions" at Kabul, at a time when British representatives were severely excluded, was open to grave misconstruction. But a fuller knowledge induced the belief that the Amir was in a position of no little difficulty. He had to compromise with the fanatical and anti-British elements amongst his own people, inflamed by the Turkish preaching of a jihad, or holy Islamic war. But he committed no act of hostility; as soon as it was safe to do so he turned the members of these missions out of the kingdom. At the end of the war his policy was completely justified; he had kept Afghanistan out of the war, he had adhered to the winning side; his authority in the kingdom and in Central Asia was at its zenith.

Murder of the Amir.—It is believed that if he had lived Habibullah Khan would have used this authority for a progressive policy in Afghanistan, by opening up communications and extending his engagements with India. He was courted by the representatives of Persia and the Central Asian States as the possible rallying centre of a Central Asian Islamic confederation. At this moment he was assassinated on the 20th February 1919. The circumstances surrounding his murder have never been fully explained; but there is strong ground for the belief that it was promoted by the reactionaries who had harassed him all his reign. These realised that with his vindication by the war their time of reckoning had come, they anticipated it by suborning one of his aides to murder him in his sleep. His brother, Nasrullah Khan, the nominee of the fanatical element, was proclaimed Amir at Jelalabad in his stead, but public opinion in Afghanistan revolted at the idea of the brother seizing power over the corpse of the murdered man. His sons Hayat and Amanullah were not disposed to waive their

Kabul, contraband the treasury and the arsenal and supported by the Army. Nasrullah found it impossible to make head against him and withdrew. The new Amir, Amanullah, at once communicated his accession to the Government of India and proclaimed his desire to adhere to the traditional policy of friendship. But his difficulties at once commenced; he had to deal with the war party in Afghanistan; he was confronted with the dissatisfaction arising from the manner in which the murderers of Habibullah had been dealt with; the fanatical element was exasperated by the imprisonment of Nasrullah; and the Army was so incensed that it had to be removed from Kabul and given occupation to divert its thoughts. A further element of complexity was introduced by the political situation in India. The agitation against the Rowlatt Act was at its height. The disturbances in the Punjab and Gujarat had taken place. Afghan agents in India, of whom the most prominent was Ghulam Hyder Khan, the Afghan postmaster at Peshawar, flooded Afghanistan with exaggerated accounts of the Indian unrest. The result of all this was to convince the Amir that the real solution of his difficulties was to unite all the disturbing elements in a war with India. On the 25th April his troops were set in motion and simultaneously a stream of anti-British propaganda commenced to flow from Kabul and open intrigue was started with the Frontier tribes, on whom the Afghans placed their chief reliance.

Speedy Defeat.—The war caught the Army in India in the throes of demobilisation and with a large proportion of the seasoned troops on service abroad. Nevertheless the regular Afghan Army was rapidly dealt with. Strong British forces moved up the Khyber and seized Dacca. Jelalabad was repeatedly bombed from the air and also Kabul. Nothing but a shortage of mechanical transport prevented the British forces from seizing Jelalabad. In ten days the Afghans were severely defeated. On the 14th May they asked for an Armistice. With the usual Afghan spirit of haggling, they tried to water down the conditions of the armistice, but as they were met with an uncompromising emphasis of the situation they despatched representatives to a conference at Rawalpindi on the 26th July. On the 8th August a Treaty of Peace was signed which is set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 196-197.

Post War Relations.—It will be seen that under this Treaty the way was paved for a fresh engagement six months afterwards. During the hot weather of 1920 there were prolonged discussions at Mussoorie between Afghan Representatives and British officials under Sir Henry Dobbs. These were private, but it is believed that a complete agreement was reached. Certainly after an interchange of Notes which revealed no major point of difference it was agreed that a British Mission should proceed to Kabul to arrange a definite treaty of peace. This Mission crossed the Border in January 1921 and entered Kabul where a peace treaty was signed.

The main points of the Treaty are set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 197, 198-199.

Afghanistan after the War.—Since the War the relations between Afghanistan and Great Britain have been good and improving. There were painful episodes in 1923 when a murder gang from within Afghanistan committed raids in British India, murdering English people and kidnapping English women. In course of time this gang was broken up. His Majesty the King of Afghanistan has had troubles within his own borders which have made him glad of British help. The main object of his government has been to strengthen the resources of the country and to bring it into closer relation with modern methods of administration. But Afghanistan is an intensely conservative country and no changes are popular; especially violent was the opposition to a secular form of administration and education. The direct result was a formidable rebellion of Mangals and Zadran in the Southern Provinces, and serious reverses to the regular troops sent against the rebels. At one time the position was serious but the rebels were not sufficiently united to develop their successes, and with the aid of aeroplanes and other assistance afforded by the Government of India the insurrection was broken. Whilst this assistance was appreciated the whole business gave a serious set-back to the reforms initiated by His Majesty; he had to withdraw almost the whole of his administrative code and to revert to the Mahomedan Law which was previously in force.

Bolshevik Penetration.—Taking a long view, a much more serious development of the policies of Afghanistan was the penetration of the Bolsheviks. These astute propagandists have converted the former Trans-Caspian States of Tsarist Russia into Soviet Republics, where the rule of the Bolsheviks is much more drastic and disruptive than was that of what was called the despotism of the Romanoffs. The object of this policy is gradually to sweep into the Soviet system the outlying provinces of Persia, of China and of Afghanistan. In Persia this policy has been foisted by the victory of the Sipar Salah, Beza Khan, since declared Shah. In Chinese Turkestan it is pursued with qualified success. In Afghanistan it has made certain progress. The first step of the Bolsheviks was to extend the Soviet Republics of Tajikistan, Uzbekia and Turkmanistan so as to absorb all Northern Afghanistan. This has apparently been abandoned for the moment for a more gentle penetration. Large subsidies, mostly delivered in kind, have been given to Afghanistan. Telegraph lines are being erected

Afghanistan.

It is very doubtful if they were deceived by these they did not pursue them all they could get with a view of handing them over. But it is easier to let the Bolshevik in than to get him out; friends of the Afghans were asking

themself es whether the Amur was n t nouri h
ng vip s in his b m T wa ds the end o
1925 and in the ea y part of 19 6 he wa a
rude awakening. The Northern Frontier of the
country has always been unsettled because of
the shifting courses of the Oxus. In December
Bolshevik forces captured with violence the
Afghan post of Darkabad, killing one soldier,
these events aroused great indignation at Kabul
and were denounced by the Amir *coram publico*.
There is no little evidence to show that
though the form of government has changed in
Russia the aims of Russian policy are the
same. It used to be said that the test of Russian
good faith under the Anglo-Russian Agreement
would be the attitude of Petrograd towards the
extension of the Orenberg-Pashkent railway to
Termes. That line has been constructed by
the Bolsheviks. The Afghans have had their
eyes opened, with what results remains to be
seen.

Russo-Afghan Treaty.—Outwardly the
relations between the two States are friendly.
In December 1926 the Afghan papers published
the text of a new treaty concluded with Soviet
Russia, which was signed on August 31st, but
it provided that it should in no way interfere
with the secret treaty signed in Moscow on
February 28th, 1921. The principal clauses of
this treaty, as disclosed in the Afghan papers,
are as follows:—

Clause 1.—In the event of war or hostile
action between one of the contracting parties
and a third power or powers, the other
contracting party will observe neutrality in re-
spect of the first contracting party.

Clause 2.—Both the contracting parties
agree to abstain from mutual aggression, the
one against the other. Within their own
dominions also they will do nothing which may
cause political or military harm to the other
party. The contracting parties particularly
agree not to make alliances or political and
military agreements with any one or more
other powers against each other. Each will
also abstain from joining any boycott or financial
or economic blockade organized against the
other party. Besides this in case the attitude
of a third power or powers is hostile towards
one of the contracting parties, the other
contracting party will not help such hostile
policy, and, further, will prohibit the execution
of such policy and hostile actions and
measures within its dominions.

Clause 3.—The high contracting parties
acknowledge one another's Government as

gh fu nd d p nd t T ey agge to ab am
om a it of arm d o un m d n rence
n n ano h rna affa Th y will
decidedly neither join nor help any one or more
other powers which interfere in or against one
of the contracting Government. None of the
contracting parties will permit in its dominions,
the formation or existence of societies and the
activities of individuals whose object is to gather
armed force with a view to injuring the other's
independence, or otherwise such activities will
be checked. Similarly, neither of the con-
tracting parties will allow armed forces, arms
ammunition, or other war material, meant
to be used against the other contracting party
to pass through its dominions.

Clause 6.—This treaty will take effect from
the date of its ratification, which should take
place within three months of its signature.
It will be valid for three years. After this
period it will remain in force for another year
provided neither of the parties has given notice
six months before the date of its expiry that it
should cease after that time.

On March 23rd there was also signed in Berlin
a treaty between Germany and Afghanistan
which amounted to no more than the establish-
ment of diplomatic relations.

A British Minister is established in Kabul
as well as the representatives of other European
States. The representatives of Afghanistan are
established in India and in London, and at some
of the European capitals. The various sub-
sidiary agreements under the Treaty have been
carried into effect.

The recent history of Afghanistan is a record
of recuperation and development. The coun-
try has recovered from the Khosh rebellion
which seriously impaired the finances and His
Majesty the King is steadily raising the standard
of the administration and improving means
of communication. Several projects for new
telegraph lines and roads are afoot, and there
is an increasing motor traffic between Afghanis-
tan and India. In December 1927 His Majesty
the King embarked on his first foreign tour. He
left Afghanistan for India, journeying from the
frontier to Karachi and thence by sea to
Bombay, where he had an enthusiastic popular
reception. He sailed on December 17th for
Egypt, whence he intends to visit England and
the Continent and to return to Kabul by way
of Russia.

British Representative—Major Humphreys

VII.—TIBET.

Recent British policy in Tibet is really another
phase in the long-drawn-out duel between Great
Britain and Russia in Central Asia. The
earliest efforts to establish union with

that country were not, of course, inspired
by this apprehension. When in 1774 Warren
Hastings despatched Bogle on a mission to the
Tashi Lama of Shigatse, the spiritual equal

if not superior, of the Dalai Lama of Lhasa—his desire was to establish facilities for trade, to open up friendly relations with a Power which was giving us trouble on the frontier, and gradually to pave the way to a good understanding between the two countries. After Warren Hastings' departure from India the subject slept, and the last Englishman to visit Lhasa, until the Younghusband Expedition of 1904, was the unofficial Manning. In 1885, under the inspiration of Colman Macaulay, of the Bengal Civil Service, a further attempt was made to get into touch with the Tibetans, but it was abandoned in deference to the opposition of the Chinese, whose suzerainty over Tibet was recognised, and to whose views until the war with Japan, British statesmen were inclined to pay excessive deference. But the position on the Tibetan frontier continued to be most unsatisfactory. The Tibetans were aggressive and obstructive, and with a view to putting an end to an intolerable situation, a Convention was negotiated between Great Britain and China in 1890. This laid down the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet, it admitted a British protectorate over Sikkim, and paved the way for arrangements for the conduct of trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontiers. Those supplementary arrangements provided for the opening of a trade mart at Yatung, on the Tibetan side of the frontier, to which British subjects should have the right of free access, and where there should be no restrictions on trade. The agreement proved useless in practice, because the Tibetans refused to recognise it, and despite their established suzerainty, the Chinese Government were unable to secure respect for it.

Russian Intervention.

This was the position when in 1890 Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, endeavoured to get into direct touch with the Tibetan authorities. Three letters which he addressed to the Dalai Lama were returned unopened, at a time when the Dalai Lama was in direct intercourse with the Tsar of Russia. His emissary was a Siberian Dorjeff, who had established a remarkable ascendancy in the councils of the Dalai Lama. After a few years' residence at Lhasa Dorjeff went to Russia on a confidential mission in 1899. At the end of 1900 he returned to Russia at the head of a Tibetan mission, of which the head was officially described in Russia as "the senior Tsanfe Khomha attached to the Dalai Lama of Tibet." This mission arrived at Odessa in October 1900, and was received in audience by the Tsar at Livadia. Dorjeff returned to Lhasa to report progress, and in 1901 was at St. Petersburg with a Tibetan mission, where as bearers of an autograph letter from the Dalai Lama they were received by the Tsar at Peterhoff. They were escorted home through Central Asia by a Russian force to which several Intelligence Officers were attached. At the time it was rumoured that Dorjeff had, on behalf of the Dalai Lama, concluded a treaty with Russia, which virtually placed Tibet under the protectorate of Russia. This rumour was afterwards officially contradicted by the Russian Government.

The Expedition of 1904.

In view of these conditions the Government of India, treating the idea of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet as a constitutional fiction proposed in 1903, to despatch a mission, with an armed escort, to Lhasa to discuss the outstanding questions with the Tibetan authorities on the spot. To this the Home Government could not assent, but agreed, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, to a joint meeting at Khamba Jong, on the Tibetan side of the frontier. Sir Francis Younghusband was the British representative, but after months of delay it was ascertained that the Tibetans had no intention of committing themselves. It was therefore agreed that the mission, with a strong escort, should move to Gyantse. On the way the Tibetans developed marked hostility, and there was fighting at Tuna, and several sharp encounters in and around Gyantse. It was therefore decided that the mission should advance to Lhasa, and on August 3rd, 1904 Lhasa was reached. There Sir Francis Younghusband negotiated a convention by which the Tibetans agreed to respect the Chinese Convention of 1890; to open trade marts at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung; to pay an indemnity of £500,000 (seventy-five lakhs of rupees); the British to remain in occupation of the Chumbi Valley until this indemnity was paid off at the rate of a lakh of rupees a year. In a separate instrument the Tibetans agreed that the British Trade Agent at Gyantse should have the right to proceed to Lhasa to discuss commercial questions, if necessary.

Home Government intervenes.

For reasons which were not apparent at the time, but which have since been made clearer, the Home Government were unable to accept the full terms of this agreement. The indemnity was reduced from seventy-five lakhs of rupees to twenty-five lakhs, to be paid off in three years, and the occupation of the Chumbi Valley was reduced to that period. The right to despatch the British Trade Agent to Lhasa was withdrawn. Two years later (June 1906) a Convention was concluded between Great Britain and China regulating the position in Tibet. Under this Convention Great Britain agreed neither to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the internal administration of Tibet. China undertook not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet. Great Britain was empowered to lay down telegraph lines to connect the trade stations with India, and it was provided that the provisions of the Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, remained in force. The Chinese Government paid the indemnity in three years and the Chumbi Valley was evacuated. The only direct result of the Mission was the opening of the three trade marts and the establishment of a British Trade Agent at Gyantse.

Chinese Action.

The sequel to the Anglo-Russian Agreement was dramatic, although it ought not to have been unexpected. On the approach of the Younghusband Mission the Dalai Lama fled to Urga, the sacred city of the Buddhists in Mongolia. He left the internal government of Tibet in confusion, and one of Sir Francis

Younghusband's great difficulties was to find Tibetan officials who would undertake the responsibility of signing the Treaty. Now the suzerainty of China over Tibet had been explicitly reaffirmed. It was asserted that she would be held responsible for the foreign relations of Tibet. In the past this suzerainty, having been a "constitutional action," it was inevitable that China should take steps to see that she had the power to make her will respected at Lhasa. To this end she proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a province of China. In 1908 Chao Erh-feng, Acting Viceroy in the neighbouring province of Szechuen, was appointed Resident in Tibet. He proceeded gradually to establish his authority, marching through eastern Tibet and treating the people with great severity. Meantime the Dalai Lama, finding his presence at Urga the seat of another Buddhist Pontiff, irksome, had taken refuge in Si-ning. Thence he proceeded to Peking where he arrived in 1908, was received by the Court, and despatched to resume his duties at Lhasa. Moving by assured stages, he arrived there at Christmas, 1909. But it was soon apparent that the ideas of the Dalai Lama and of the Chinese Government had little in common. The Dalai Lama expected to resume the temporal and spiritual despotism which he had exercised prior to 1904. The Chinese intended to deprive him of all temporal power and preserve him as a spiritual pope. The Tibetans had already been exasperated by the pressure of the Chinese soldiery. The report that a strong Chinese force was moving on Lhasa so alarmed the Dalai Lama that he fled from Lhasa, and by the irony of fate sought a refuge in India. He was chased to the frontier by Chinese troops, and took up his abode in Darjeeling, whilst Chinese troops overran Tibet.

Later Stages.

The British Government, acting on the representations of the Government of India, made strong protests to China against this action. They pointed out that Great Britain while disclaiming any desire to interfere with the internal administration of Tibet, could not be indifferent to disturbances in the peace of a country which was a neighbour on intimate terms with other neighbouring States on our frontier, especially with Nepal, and pressed that an effective Tibetan Government be maintained. The attitude of the Chinese Government was that no more troops had been sent to Tibet than were necessary for the preservation of order, that China had no intention of converting Tibet into a province, but that being responsible for the good conduct of Tibet, she must be in a position to see that her wishes were respected by the Tibetans. Finally, the Chinese remarked that the Dalai Lama was such an impossible person that they had been compelled again to depose him. Here the matter might have rested, but for the revolution in China. That revolution broke out in Szechuen, and one of the first victims was Chao Erh-feng. Cut off from all support from China, surrounded by a hostile and infuriated populace, the Chinese troops in Tibet were in a hopeless case; they surrendered, and sought escape not through China, but through

India, by way of Darjeeling and Calcutta. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa, and in 1913, in the House of Lords on July 28, Lord Morley stated the policy of the British Government in relation to these changes. He said the declaration of the President of the Chinese Republic saying that Tibet came within the sphere of Chinese internal administration, and that Tibet was to be regarded as on an equal footing with other provinces of China, was met by a very vigorous protest from the British Government. The Chinese Government subsequently accepted the principle that China is to have no right of active intervention in the internal administration of Tibet, and agreed to the constitution of a conference to discuss the relation of the three countries. This Convention met at Simla when Sir Henry McMahon, Foreign Secretary to the Government of India; Mr. Ivan Chen, representing China; and Mr. Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, threshed out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has been made on the subject, it is understood that a Convention was initiated in June which recognised the complete autonomy of Tibet proper, with the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhasa with a suitable guard. A semi-autonomous zone was to be constituted in Eastern Tibet, in which the Chinese position was to be relatively much stronger. But this Convention, it is understood, has not been ratified by the Chinese Government, owing to the difficulty of defining Outer and Inner Tibet, and in 1913 Tibet took the offensive and threw off the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty. When the Chinese provinces of Szechuan went over to the South, the Central Government at Peking was unable to finance the frontier forces or to withstand the Tibetan advance, which was directed from Lhasa and appeared to be ably managed. After the Tibetan army had occupied some towns on the confines of the Szechuan marshes, hostilities were suspended and an armistice was concluded.

From what has gone before, it will be seen that the importance which formerly attached to the political condition of Tibet was much less a local than an external question, and was influenced by our relations with Russia and China rather than with our relations with Tibet. Russia having relapsed into a state of considerable confusion, and China having relapsed into a state of absolute confusion these external forces have disappeared, and Tibet no longer looms on the Indian political horizon. The veil has been drawn afresh over Lhasa, and affairs in that country pursue an isolated course, with this considerable difference. The Dalai Lama is now on terms of the greatest cordiality with the Government of India. In 1920 he requested that a British officer should be sent to discuss with him the position in Central Asia brought about by the Revolution in Russia and the collapse of Government in China, and Mr. Bell, C. M. G., I. C. S., Political Officer in Sikkim, was deputed for this purpose. In 1922 telephonic communication between Lhasa and India was established.

British Trade Agent, Gyantse.—A. J. Hopkinson.

British Trade Agent, Yatung.—A. J. Hopkinson.

VIII THE NORTH EASTERN FRONTIER.

The position on the northern frontier has been considered as if the British line were contiguous with that of Tibet. This is not so. The real frontier States are Kashmir, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. From Chitral to Gilgit, now the northernmost posts of the Indian Government, to Assam, with the exception of the small wedge between Kashmir and Nepal, where the British district of Kumaon is thrust right up to the confines of Tibet, for a distance of nearly fifteen hundred miles there is a narrow strip of native territory between British India and the true frontier. The first of these frontier States is Kashmir. The characteristics of this State are considered under Indian States (q.v.); it is almost the only important Native State in India with frontier responsibilities, and it worthily discharges them through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of infantry and two Mountain Batteries, composed mainly of the Rajput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladak. Then we come to the long narrow strip of Nepal. This Gurkha State stands in special relation with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British resident at Kathmandu exercises no influence on the internal administration. The governing machine in Nepal is also peculiar. The Maharaja Dhiraj, who comes from the Sena Rajput clan, the bluest blood in India, takes no part in the administration. All power vests in the Prime Minister, who occupies a place equivalent to that of the Mayors of the Palace, or the Shoguns of Japan. The present Prime Minister Sir Chandra Shamsheer, has visited England, and has given conspicuous evidence of his attachment to the British Government. Nepal is the main Indian outpost against Tibet or against Chinese aggression through Tibet. The friction between the Chinese and the Nepalese used to be frequent, and in the eighteenth century the Chinese marched an army to the confines of Kathmandu—one of the most remarkable military achievements in the history of Asia. Under the first rule of the present Prime Minister Nepal has been largely free from internal disturbance, and has been raised to a strong bulwark of India. Nepal is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha Infantry, who form such a splendid part of the fighting arm of the Indian Empire. Beyond Nepal are the smaller States of Bhutan and Sikkim, whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhists by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and taking a guarantee that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that Great Britain would protect the rights and interests of these States. At the request of the Nepalese Government a British railway expert was deputed to visit the country and advise on the best means of improving communications with

India. As the result of his report the Nepalese Government have decided to construct a high railway from Bhaichakhori to Raxaul. Great success has attended the efforts of the Nepalese Government to abolish slavery.

Assam and Burma.

Whether come to the Assam border tribes—the Dadas, the Miris, the Abors and the Mishmis. Excepting the Abors none of these tribes has recently given trouble. The murder of Mr. Williamson and Dr. Gregson by the Munyons Abors in 1911 made necessary an expedition to the Dihang valley of the Abor country on the N. E. frontier. A force of 2,500 and about 400 military police was employed from October 1911 to April 1912 in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murderers were delivered up. The cost of the expedition was Rs. 21,60,000. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmi and Mu countries. Close contact with these forest-dwelling and leech-infested hills has not encouraged an desire to establish more intimate relations with them. The area occupied by the Nagas runs northwards from Manipur. The Nagas are a Tibeto-Burman people, devoted to the practice of head hunting, which is still vigorously prosecuted by the independent tribes. The Chin Hills is a tract of mountainous country to the south of Manipur. The corner of India from the Assam boundary to the northern boundary of the Shan States is for the most part included in the Myitkina and Shan districts of Burma. Over the greater part of this area, a labyrinth of hills in the north, no direct administrative control is at present exercised. It is peopled by the Shans and the Kachins. Civilisation is said to be progressing and steps have been taken to prevent encroachments from the Chinese side. There is a considerable trade with China through Bhamo. On the Eastern frontier of Burma are the Shan States, with an area of fifty thousand square miles and a population of 1,500,000. These States are still administered by the Sawbwas or hereditary chiefs, subject to the guidance of the Superintendent. A way to Lashio, to be a stage in the link with China, but this idea has been put aside, for it is seen that there can never be a trade which would justify the heavy expenditure. The Southern Shan States are being developed by railway connection. The five Karen States lie on the frontier south of the Shan States. South of Karen the frontier runs between Siam and the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The relations between the Indian Government and the progressive kingdom of Siam are excellent. A notable humanitarian development of recent years is the success of the measures to abolish slavery in the Hukawng Valley. In this remote tract in the north-east of Burma a mild system of slavery existed, but in response to the initiative and pressure of British officers they were all freed by April 1925.

Railways to India.

The prospect of linking Europe and Asia by a railway running eastwards through Asia Minor has fascinated men's minds for generations. The plans suggested have, owing to the British connection with India, always lain in the direction of lines approaching India. More than 40 years ago a Select Committee of the House of Commons sat for two years to consider the question of a Euphrates Valley railway. The Shah of Persia applied to the British Foreign Office for the investment of British capital in Persian railway construction many years before the end of the nineteenth century. A proposal was put forward in 1895 for a line of 1,000 miles from Cairo and Port Said to Koweit, at the head of the Persian Gulf. While these projects were in the air, German enterprise stepped in and made a small beginning by constructing the Anatolian railway system. Its lines start from Scutari, on the southern shore of the Bosphorus, opposite Constantinople, and serve the extreme western end of Asia Minor. And upon this foundation was based the Turkish concession to Germans to build the Baghdad Railway.

Meanwhile, Russia was pushing her railways from various directions into the Central Asian territory running along the northern frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan to the borders of Chinese Turkestan. The construction of a Trans-Persian railway, connecting India, across Persia, with the Russian lines between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea came to the forefront after the conclusion of the historic Anglo-Russian agreement regarding Persia.

The Germans pushed forward their Baghdad railway project with a calculating shrewdness arising from their estimate of the value it would possess in their grand aim to overthrow the British Empire. The outbreak of the great war and the success of the Germans in involving Turkey into it saw the final stages of the construction of the railway pressed forward with passionate energy. Thus, before the overthrow of the Turks and Germans in Asia Minor and of the Germans in France the railway was completed and in use from Scutari across Anatolia, over the Taurus Mountains to Aleppo and thence eastward across the Euphrates to a point between Nisibin and Mosul. The Germans had also by that time constructed a line to Baghdad at the eastern end of the route, northwards from Baghdad to a point a considerable distance beyond Samara.

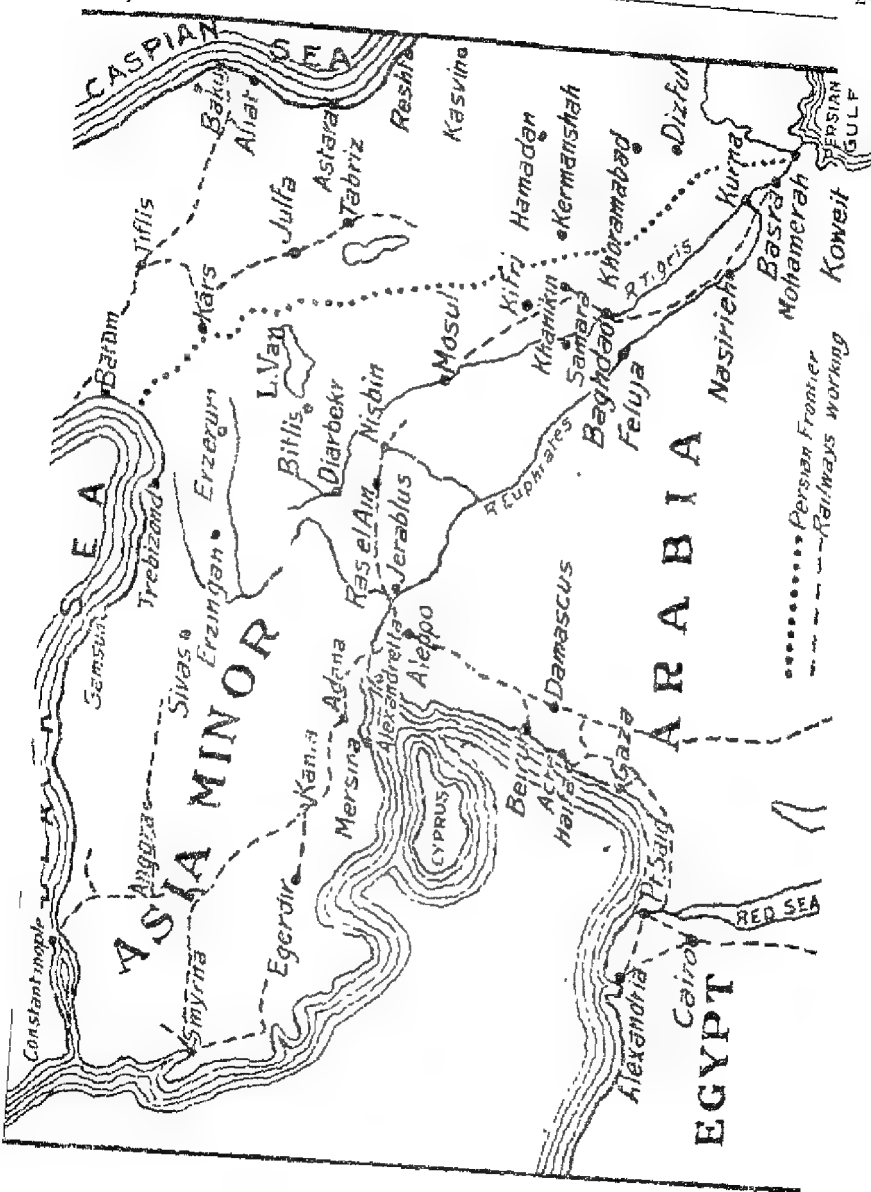
The war compelled the British to undertake considerable railway development northward from Basra, the port at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab, the broad stream in which the Tigris and Euphrates, after their junction, flow into the head of the Persian Gulf. The system consists of a metre-gauge line from Basra *via* Nasirich, on the Euphrates, thence northwards to Baghdad, the line passing a considerable distance westward to Kut-I-Amara, of historic fame. From Baghdad the line

the frontier of that country. A line branches off in the neighbourhood of Kifrin in the direction of Mosul. A line also runs westward from Baghdad to Fehja, on the Euphrates. With the Turkish Nationalists in control of Anstolia any question of the completion of the through Baghdad Line is indefinitely delayed.

The Trans-Persian line to join the Russian Caucasian system and the Indian railways first assumed proportions of practical importance in the winter of 1911. Both the Russian and the Indian railway systems were by then well developed up to the point likely to be the termini of a Trans-Persian line. The Russian system reached Julfa, on the Russo-Persian frontier in the Caucasus. During the war this line has been carried thence southward into the region east and south-east of Lake Urumia. The Indian railway system, on the borderland of India and Persia, was similarly much extended and improved during the war. A new agreement which was negotiated between England and Persia specially provided for British assistance in the development of Persian natural resources and particularly for the extension and improvement of Persian roads suitable for motor traffic but the agreement came to naught.

There remains the possibility of linking the Russian and Indian railway system by way of Afghanistan. The suggestion has often been made in recent years that the Russian line from Merv to Herat, on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, should be linked to the Indian line which proceeds from Quetta to the Afghan border on Chaman. The distance between the railway heads is about 250 miles. But there have always for strategic reasons been strong military objections to the railway across Afghanistan and after the death of the late Amir Habibullah the Afghan Government flatly opposed any suggestion for carrying the Indian or Russian railway system within their borders. What the present Afghan Government think about the matter was not shown up to the time this article was written, but the strange situation in Central Asia and beyond the Indian North-West Frontier does not suggest the early removal of the strategic difficulties. The completion of a broad-gauge line extending the Indian railway system through the Khyber Pass to Landi Khana, at its western extremity, opens a prospect of further possible rail connections with Afghanistan.

Britain's special interests in regard to Persian communications have hitherto primarily been associated with lines running inland from the Persian Gulf, to supersede the old mule routes. Special importance has for many years been attached to schemes for a railway from Mohammedab, at the opening of the Karun Valley, where the Karun River runs into the Shat-el-Arab, just below Basra, northwards into the rich highland country of Western Persia where the valuable West Persian oil wells also lie. Britain has long established special relations with the Valley and has a large trade there.



Foreign Consular Officers in

Name.	Appointment.
Afghanistan.	
Sayed Qasim Khan	Consul-General .. .
Muhammad Usman Khan	Consul
Mr. Bashir Ahmad Khan	Do.
Argentine Republic	
*Mr. J. F. Barton	Vice-Consul .. .
Austria.	
*Signor E. Stella	Consul
Belgium.	
Monsieur Léon Genis	Consul-General .. .
Monsieur Fernand Moulin	Consul
*Mr. J. J. Flockhart	Do.
*Mr. F. E. L. Worke	Do.
*Mr. C. G. Wodehouse	Do.
*Mr. J. Lowry	Do.
Bolivia.	
*Mr. Abani Mohan Tagore	Consul-General .. .
*Mr. J. Johnston (on leave)	Consul
*Mr. E. R. Binning (Ag.)	Do.
Brazil.	
Dr. Mansel Agostinho de Herédia	Consul
Senhor J. P. Dias	Do.
*Mr. H. V. Simmons	Vice-Consul .. .
*Mr. V. E. Nazareth	Do.
Vacant	Do.
*Mr. C. H. Straker	Do.
*Mr. A. E. Donaldson	Do.
*Mr. C. F. Pyett	Commercial Agent .. .
Chile.	
Senor Don P. A. Pacheco	Consul-General .. .
Vacant	Consul
Mr. H. W. Child (Ag.) (on leave)	Do.
Mr. A. Semple (Ag.)	Do.
*Mr. J. G. Bendien (Ag.)	Vice-Consul .. .
*Mr. A. B. Leishman	Do.
China.	
Mr. Hoong Hsing Tcheng (on leave)	Consul
Mr. Li Sen Ming (Ag.)	Do.
Costa Rica.	
Vacant	Consul
Cuba.	
Senor W. F. Pais	Consul
Senor Don Enrique Molina Y. Enríquez	Do.
Czechoslovak Republic.	
Dr. Otakar Benes	Consul-General .. .
Dr. A. Lafar	Consul
Vacant	Vice-Consul .. .
Mr. G. S. Mahomed	Consular Agent .. .

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Denmark.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. H. B. Whithy (on leave)	Consul	Do.
*Mr. E. H. Danchell (on leave)	Do.	Bombay.
*Captain A. G. Robertson (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. W. M. Browning	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. C. J. F. Britton	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. A. Hansen	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr. A. T. B. Tucker (Acting)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. L. E. C. Everard	Do.	Moulmein.
Sweden.		
*Mr. F. G. Dixon, O.B.E. (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta.
*Mr. T. E. Cunningham (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Finland.		
*Mr. C. H. A. B. Hardcastle	Consul	Bombay.
*Mr. M. Joakim	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. J. W. Macfarlane	Vice-Consul	Madras.
France.		
Monsieur L. E. R. Larence	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Monsieur P. L. U. Sudreau	Consul	Bombay.
*Monsieur M. Gorgeau	Commercial Agent	Calcutta.
M. F. L. Price (on leave)	Consular Agent	Karachi.
M. T. G. Beaumont (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. F. E. L. Works	Do.	Madras.
Vacant	Do.	Chittagong.
M. W. T. Milne	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Akyab.
Vacant	Do.	Tellicherry.
Germany.		
Baron Ruedt Von Collenberg-Beckingheim	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Herr Karl Kapp	Consul	Bombay.
*Herr K. A. W. Buchting (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
Herr D. Meyerkont (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Dr. Hans Koster	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Greece.		
M. D. Caardias (Ag.)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. J. Rumphrey, O.B.E.	Consul	Karachi.
Guatemala.		
*Mr. H. Birkmyre	Consul	Calcutta.
Hungary.		
*Mr. Eugene Ludwig (on leave)	Consul	Madras.
*Mr. F. B. Hooper (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Italy.		
Cav. Uff. Nob. Ugo Tommasi	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Cav. Nobile Don Giuseppe Serpi	Do.	Bombay.
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
*Cav. E. Benasiglio	Vice-Consul	Do.
Signor Cav. A. Manzato (on leave)	Do.	Bombay.
*Mons. Mario Crenonino	Do.	Do.
Vacant	Consular Agent	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Madras.
*Signor R. Stapanich	Do.	Karachi.
Vacant	Do.	Akyab.

* Honorary.

Name.	Appointment.
Japan.	
Mr. Ken Asaoka, C.B.E.	Consul-General ..
Mr. Kanzu Ito	Vice-Consul ..
Mr. K. Tamaki	Consul ..
Mr. K. Naite	Do. ..
Liberia.	
*Dr. N. Boynes	Consul ..
Vacant	Do. ..
Mexico.	
Vacant	Consul ..
Netherlands.	
Monsieur J. I. Noest (Ag.)	Consul-General ..
Monsieur B. Kleyen Molekamp	Consul ..
Monsieur J. G. Bendien (on leave)	Do. ..
Mr. J. A. Ammann (Ag.)	Do. ..
*Monsieur D. Van Wijngaarden (on leave)	Do. ..
*Mr. G. Van Amerongen (in charge) (on leave)	Do. ..
Mr. H. A. Eltaft (Ag.)	Do. ..
*Mr. W. J. U. Turnbull	Do. ..
*Mr. W. Massink (on leave)	Do. ..
Mr. A. Verhoge (Ag.)	Do. ..
*Mr. J. J. Oyevaar	Vice-Consul ..
Nicaragua.	
*Mr. C. H. A. R. Hardcastle	Consul ..
Norway	
Monsieur G. Löchen	Consul-General ..
*Mr. F. E. Hardcastle (on leave)	Consul ..
*Sir J. F. Simpson, Kt.	Do. ..
*Mr. J. B. Glass	Do. ..
*Mr. C. H. A. R. Hardcastle	Vice-Consul ..
Mr. J. C. Clark (on leave)	Do. ..
*Mr. D. A. R. Rawlings (Ag.)	Do. ..
*Mr. O. M. Penny	Do. ..
*Mr. W. S. Chapman	Do. ..
*Mr. J. J. Floekhart	Do. ..
Panama.	
*Cav. E. Benasaglio (Ag.)	Consul ..
Persia.	
Mirza Taghi Khan Nabavi	Consul-General ..
Mirza Asadullah Khan, Behnam, C.B.E.	Consul ..
Vacant	Do. ..
Vacant	Do. ..
*Khan Bahadur Mirza Ali Akbar Shirazi	Do. ..
Vacant	Vice-Consul ..
Vacant	Do. ..
Peru.	
Vacant	Consul-General ..
Mons. Mario Bedoya	Consul ..
Vacant	Do. ..

7	Name	Appointment	Port
Portugal			
	Amadeu da Silva	Consul-General	Bombay.
	G. C. Moses	Consul	Calcutta.
	enhor A. M. DeSouza (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
	enhor T. M. V. da Silveira (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
	scant	Vice-Consul	Do.
	enhor A. P. J. Fernandes	Do.	Bombay.
	enhor A. B. da Fonseca	Do.	Karachi.
	enhor A. M. Teixeira	Do.	Madras.
Salvador.			
	E. K. Martin	Consul	Calcutta.
Siam			
	Mr. B. E. G. Mads	Consul-General	Calcutta.
	Mr. G. L. Winterbotham	Consul	Bombay.
	Mr. F. H. Wroughton (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
	Mr. H. B. Prior (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
	Mr. W. R. H. Taylor	Do.	Moulmein.
Spain.			
	enhor Don Jose Garcia Acaña	Consul	Bombay.
	Mr. D. S. Fraser	Vice-Consul	Do.
	Mr. M. Crezoux	Do.	Calcutta.
	Mr. J. Walker (on leave)	Do.	Madras.
	Mr. W. B. Ireland (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
	Mr. W. Young	Do.	Karachi.
	Mr. W. H. Child (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
	Mr. J. Semple (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Sweden.			
	Monsieur C. A. E. Stenwerjelm	Consul-General	Calcutta.
	Mr. K. P. Warrington	Consul	Madras.
	Macona Ligo Moll	Do.	Bombay.
	Mr. E. A. Pearson	Do.	Karachi.
	Mr. A. M. Rogers	Do.	Rangoon.
	Mr. T. H. Wheeler (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
	scant	Do.	Moulmein.
Switzerland.			
	Mr. H. W. Hirs (Ag.)	Consul-General	Bombay.
	Monsieur M. M. Staub (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta.
	Mr. J. Bleack (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
	Mr. E. Halter (Acting)	Do.	Madras.
United States of America.			
	Mr. J. G. Lay (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
	Mr. W. L. Jenkins (on leave)	Consul	Do.
	Mr. W. B. Koblinger	Do.	Bombay.
	Mr. E. V. Richardson	Do.	Karachi.
	Mr. A. R. Thomson	Do.	Madras.
	Mr. E. B. Montgomery	Do.	Do.
	Mr. C. J. Pizar	Do.	Rangoon.
	Mr. T. E. Burke	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
	Mr. C. T. Everett	Do.	Do.
	Mr. W. H. Pasch	Do.	Do.
	Mr. W. H. Minor	Do.	Calcutta.
	Mr. Dale W. Maher	Do.	Do.
	Mr. R. R. Willey	Do.	Do.
	Mr. J. R. Ives	Do.	Do.
	Mr. L. S. Parker	Do.	Madras.
	Mr. Roy V. Gram	Do.	Rangoon.
	Mr. E. B. Ostom	Do.	Do.
	scant	Consular Agent	Bassett.
	scant	Do.	Moulmein.
	scant	Do.	Akyab.
Uruguay.			
	Mr. J. F. Barton	Consul	Calcutta.
Venezuela.			
	scant	Consul	Calcutta.

* Honorary.

The Army.

The great sepoy army of India originated in the small establishments of guards, known as peons, enrolled for the protection of the factories of the East India Company; but 'sepoys' were first enlisted and disciplined by the French, who appeared in India in 1665. Before this detachments of soldiers were sent from England to Bombay, and as early as 1685 the first fortified position was occupied by the East India Company at Armagon, near Masulipatam. Madras was acquired in 1640, but in 1654 the garrison of Fort St. George consisted of only ten men. In 1661 Bombay was occupied by 400 soldiers, and in 1688 the number was only 280 of whom 93 were English and the rest French, Portuguese, and natives.

After the declaration of war with France in 1744 the forces were considerably increased, but this did not prevent the French capturing Madras in 1746. Following the French example, the English raised considerable sepoy forces and largely increased the military establishments. In 1748 Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St. David to command the forces of the Company. The English foothold in India was then precarious and the French under Dupleix were contemplating fresh attacks. It became necessary for the English Company to form a larger military establishment. The new commandant at once set about the organisation and discipline of his small force, and the garrison was given a company formation. This was the beginning of the regular Indian Army of which Lawrence subsequently became Commander-in-Chief. In Madras the European companies were developed into the Madras Fusiliers; similar companies in Bengal and Bombay became the 1st Bengal and 1st Bombay Fusiliers. The native infantry were similarly organised by Lawrence and Olive. By degrees Royal Regiments were sent to India, the first being the 39th Foot, which arrived in 1754.

Struggle with the French.—From this time for a century or more the army in India was engaged in constant war. After a prolonged war with the French, whom Dupleix had by 1750 raised to the position of the leading power in India, the efforts of Stringer Lawrence, Clive, and Eyre Coote completed the downfall of their rivals, and the power of England was established by the battle of Plassey in Bengal; and at Wandewash in Southern India, where the French were finally defeated in 1761. A number of independent States, owing nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Delhi, had risen on the decline of the Mughal Empire, some ruled by Mahratta Princes and others by Musalman adventurers such as Hyder Ali of Mysore. A prolonged struggle ensued with the latter and his son and successor Tipu Sultan, which ended only with the defeat and death of Tipu and the capture of Seringapatam in 1799.

Reorganisation of 1796.—In 1796 the native armies, which had been organised on the system of recruiting troops were 13,000 strong and

the natives numbered some 67,000, the infantry being generally formed into 75 regiments of two battalions each. In Bengal, regiments were formed by linking existing battalions of ten companies each with large establishments of English officers. The Madras and Bombay armies were at the same time reorganised on similar lines, and cavalry and artillery companies were raised.

In 1793, the Marquis Wellesley arrived as Governor-General, firmly imbued with the necessity of destroying the last vestiges of French influence. In pursuance of this policy he reduced Mysore, where Tipu was intriguing with the French, and then turned his attention to the Mahratta States, in which Sindhia had established power over the Mughal Emperor at Delhi by means of a large regular army officered by Europeans under the French adventurer Perron. In campaigns against Sindhia in Hindustan by a British Army under General Lake, and in the Deccan against that prince and the Raja of Berar by an army under General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, the power of these Chiefs was broken in the battles of Laswari and Assaye. French influence was finally destroyed, and the Mughal Emperor was released from the domination of the Mahrattas. Subsequently Holkar also was reduced, and British power established on a firm footing.

Mutiny at Vellore.—The Indian Army had been from time to time subject to incidents of mutiny which were the precursors of the great cataclysm of 1857. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred at the fort of Vellore in 1806 when the native troops suddenly broke out and killed the majority of the European officers and soldiers quartered in the fort, while the striped flag of the Sultan of Mysore, whose sons were confined there, was raised upon the ramparts. The mutiny was suppressed by Colonel Gillespie, who galloped over from Arcot at the head of the 19th Light Dragoons, blew in the gate of the fort, and destroyed the mutineers. This retribution put a stop to any further outbreaks in the army.

Overseas Expeditions.—Several important overseas expeditions were undertaken in the early part of the nineteenth century. Bourbon was taken from the French; Ceylon and the Spice Islands were wrested from the Dutch, and Java was conquered in 1811 by a force largely composed of Bengal troops which had volunteered for this service.

In 1814, the Nepal War took place in which the brave Gillespie, who had distinguished himself in Java, was killed when leading the assault on the fort of Kalunga. The Gurkhas were overcome in this war after offering a stout resistance.

In 1817, hostilities again broke out with the Mahrattas, who rose against the British during the progress of operations against the Pindars. The whole army took the field and all India was turned into a vast camp. The

lab tta C'hef o o a Nagpu and do
ose n succ as on and we beaten e p t v y
at Krk S abad and dpu Tha was
the last war in Southern India. The tide of
war rolled to the north never to return. In
the Punjab, to which our frontier now extended,
our army came into touch with the great mili-
tary community of the Sikhs.

In 1824, the armies were reorganised, the
double-battalion regiments being separated,
and the battalions numbered according to the
dates they were raised. The Bengal Army was
organised in three brigades of horse artillery,
five battalions of foot artillery, two regiments of
European and 48 of native infantry, 5 regiments
of regular and 8 of irregular cavalry. The
Madras and Bombay armies were constituted
on similar lines, though of lesser strength.

First Afghan War and Sikh Wars.—
In 1839, a British Army advanced into Afgha-
nistan and occupied Cabul. There followed
the murder of the British Envoys and the dis-
astrous retreat in which the army perished.
This disaster was in some measures relieved
by subsequent operations, but it had far-
reaching effects on British prestige. The people
of the Punjab had witnessed these unfortunate
operations, they had seen the lost leaders which
never returned, and although they saw also
the avenging armies they no longer regarded
them with their former eyes. Sikh aggression
led to hostilities in 1845-46, when a large por-
tion of the Bengal Army took the field under
Sir Hugh Gough. The Sikhs were defeated
after stubborn fights at Mudki and Ferozeshahr,
the opening battles, but did not surrender
until they had been overthrown at the battles
of Alwal and Chillianwala. Two years later an
outbreak at Multan caused the Second Sikh War
when, after an indecisive action at Chillianwala,
our brave enemies were finally overcome at
Gujerat, and the Punjab was annexed. Other
campaigns of this period were the conquest
of Sind by Sir Charles Napier, and the Second
Burmese War, the first having taken place in
1824.

The conquest of the Punjab extended over
frontier to the country inhabited by those
turbulent tribes which have given so much
trouble during the past sixty years while they
have furnished many soldiers to our army.
To keep order on this border the Punjab Fron-
tier Force was established, and was constantly
engaged in small expeditions which, while they
involved little bloodshed, kept the force em-
ployed and involved much arduous work.

The Indian Mutiny.—On the eve of the
mutiny in 1857 there were in the Bengal
Army 21,000 British and 187,000 native troops,
in the Madras Army 8,000 British and 49,000
native troops; and in Bombay 9,000 British
and 45,000 native troops. The proportion
of native to British was therefore too large for
safety. The causes of the mutiny were many
and various. Among these were the annexa-
tion policy of Lord Dalhousie, especially that
of Oudh from which the greater part of the
Bengal Army was drawn; interference with the
privileges of the sepoy with respect to certain
allowances; and lack of power on the part of
commanding officers either to punish or reward.
The final spark which fired the revolt was the

du on of a new cartridge. The m sk s
h se da m w upped w h a art dge
n w h p d wa ene s d n a pap r
cover, which had to be bitten off to expose the
powder to ignition. In 1857 a new cartridge
was introduced with paper of a glazed texture
which it was currently reported was greased
with the fat of swine and oxen, and therefore
unclean alike for Muhammadans and Hindus.
This was interpreted as an attempt to destroy
the caste and the religion of the sepoys. Skil-
ful agitators exploited this grievance, which
was not without foundation, and added reports
that flour was mixed with bone-dust and sugar
refined with the blood of oxen.

Disaffection culminated in mutiny at Bar-
hampur and in an outbreak at Barrackpore
where sepoy Mangal Pande attacked a European
officer. The next most serious manifestation
was the refusal of men of the 3rd Bengal Cavalry
at Meerut to take the obnoxious cartridge.
These men were tried and sentenced to long
terms of imprisonment, their fetters being rivet-
ted on parade on the 9th May. Next day the
troops in Meerut rose, and, aided by the mob,
burned the house of the Europeans and murdered
many. The troops then went off to Delhi.
Unfortunately there was in Meerut no senior
officer capable of dealing with the situation.
The European troops in the place remained
inactive, and the mutineers were allowed to
depart unmolested to spread the flames of rebel-
lion.

Delhi is the historic capital of India. On its
time worn walls brood the prestige of a thou-
sand years of Empire. It contained a great
magazine of ammunition. Yet Delhi was
held only by a few native battalions, who joined
the mutineers. The Europeans who did
not succeed in escaping were massacred and
the Delhi Emperor was proclaimed supreme
in India. The capital constituted a nucleus
to which the troops who mutinied in many
places flocked to the standard of the Mughal.
An army was assembled for the recovery of
Delhi but the city was not captured until the
middle of September. In the meantime muti-
ny had spread. The massacres of Cawnpore
and Jhansi took place, and Lucknow was be-
sieged until its relief on the 27th September.
The rebellion spread throughout Central India
and the territory that now forms the Central
Provinces, which were not recovered until Sir
Hugh Rose's operations in 1858 ended in the
defeat of the Rani of Jhansi.

Minor Campaigns.—During the period
until 1879, when the Second Afghan War began,
there were many minor campaigns including
the China War of 1860, the Amoyla Campaign
and the Abyssinian War. Then followed the
Afghan War in which the leading figure was
Lord Roberts. There were expeditions to
Egypt and China, and Frontier Campaigns of
which the most important was the Tirah Cam-
paign of 1897. There were also the prolonged
operations which led up to or ensued upon the
annexation of Burma. Several campaigns in
Africa, and the expeditions to Lhasa. But
until 1914, since the Afghan War, the army of
India, except that portion of the British gar-
rison which was sent to South Africa in 1899, had
little severe fighting, although engaged in many
arduous and

Reorganisation after the Mutiny.—In 1857 the East India Company ceased to exist and their army was taken over by the Crown. At this time the army was organized into three armies, viz: Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 65,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

Several minor re-organizations took place during the following years, such as the linking of three Regiments together and the raising of Class Regiments and Companies. In 1895 the next large reorganization took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed, viz: Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

Lord Kitchener's Scheme.—This system lasted until 1904 when under Lord Kitchener's reorganization the Madras Command was abolished and the Army divided into three Commands—the Northern, Eastern and Western, corresponding to the Punjab, Bombay and Bengal Commands.

In 1907, Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders retention of such powers by Lieutenant-Generals of Commands led to delay in the despatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1916 and 1917 when both had practically the same functions as this was now realised that . . . was now centralised . . . and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. E. F., therefore, a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1918. With the alteration of the designation "Army" to "Command" at this time, a . . . in the administrative . . . Commands and the General . . . were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy, new principles or war.

The commands were increased to four in 1920, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief.

Present System of Administration

The essential features of the Army, as constructed on its present basis, will be found in "The Army in India and its Evolution," a publication issued with the authority of the Government of India in 1924.

The Secretary of State, as one of His Majesty's Ministers, has a special responsibility and authority in regard to the military administration in India.

The Secretary of State's principal adviser on Indian military affairs is the Secretary in the Military Department of the India Office. The post is filled by an officer of the Indian Army of high rank with recent Indian experience. The appointment is a present held

by Field Marshal Sir Cland Jacob, G.C.B., K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G., who was formerly General Officer Commanding-in-Chief of the Northern Command and officiated as Commander in Chief from April 1925 to August 1925. The Military Secretary is assisted by one first grade staff officer, selected from the Indian Army in order that he may keep in touch with the current Indian affairs, the Military Secretary is expected to visit India during the tenure of his office. In addition, by a practice which has obtained for many years, a retired Indian Army officer of high rank has a seat upon the Secretary of State's Council.

The superintendence, direction and control of the civil and military government of India are vested in the Governor-General in Council who is required to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State. The Viceroy's Executive Council exercise in respect of Army administration the same authority and functions as they exercise in respect of other departments of the Government in the first phase of the representative institutions conferred upon India by the Montagu Chelmsford Reforms Scheme, Army expenditure and the direction of military policy have been excluded from the control of the Legislature.

The Commander-in-Chief, the next authority, . . . arrangements is . . . and in Chief, who by custom is also the Army Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. The appointment is held by His Excellency Field Marshal Sir William R. Birdwood, Bart., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., K.C.S.I., G.I.F., D.S.O. He is also a member of the Council of State. All the work connected with the administration of the Army, the formulation and execution of the military policy of the Government of India, the responsibility for maintaining every branch of the Army, combatant and non-combatant in a state of efficiency, and the supreme direction of any military operations based upon India are centred in one authority,—the Commander-in-Chief and Army Member. In addition, he administers the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India. The Commander-in-Chief is assisted in the executive side of his administration by 4 Principal Staff Officers viz., the Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant General, the Quartermaster-General and the Master-General of Supply.

The Army Department.—The Staff of the Army Department Secretariat consists of a Secretary who, like the Secretaries in the civil departments, is a Secretary to the Government of India as a whole, possessing the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy, a Deputy Secretary, an Establishment Officer, a Director of Military Lands and Cantonments, three Assistant Secretaries, one of whom is also Secretary of the Indian Soldiers' Board, and the Officer-in-charge, Medal Distribution.

The Army Department deals with all army services proper, and also the administration of the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India, in so far as questions requiring the orders of the Government of India are concerned. The Army Department Secretariat has no direct relations with commanders or troops or the staffs of the . . . subordinate to Army Head . . .

and intimate relations with Army Headquarters in all administration matters and is responsible for the administration of Cantonments, the estates of deceased officers and the compilation of the India Army List. The Army administration is represented in the Legislature by the Army Member in the Council of State, and by the Army Secretary in the Legislative Assembly.

The Military Council—Is composed of the Commander-in-Chief as President, and the following members, namely: The Chief of the General Staff, as Vice President, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General, the Master-General of Supply, the Secretary to the Government of India in the Army Department and the Financial Adviser, Military Finance, representing the Finance Department of the Government of India. It is mainly an advisory body, constituted for the purpose of assisting the Commander-in-Chief in the performance of his administrative duties. It has no collective responsibility. It meets when convened by the Commander-in-Chief for the consideration of cases of sufficient importance and difficulty to require examination in conference. The heads of the minor independent branches of Army Headquarters and the directors of technical services attend when required.

Military Territorial Areas.

Indian Territory is divided into four Commands, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief. The details of the table on the next page and it will be seen that Commands comprise 14 districts 4 Independent Brigades, and 33 Brigades of which four are temporary. The Northern Command, with its headquarters at Murree, coincides roughly with the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province; the Southern Command, with headquarters at Poona, coincides roughly with the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and part of the Central Provinces, the Eastern Command, with headquarters at Calcutta, coincides roughly with the United Provinces, Bihar, Orissa, and Assam, whose headquarters are at Quetta, covers Sind, Rajputana and Baluchistan.

The General Officer Commanding-in-Chief of each Command is responsible for the command administration, training and general efficiency of the troops stationed within his area, and also for all internal security arrangements.

Apart from the four Commands, the only formation directly controlled by Army Headquarters is the Burma district which, mainly because of its geographical situation, cannot conveniently be included in any of the four Command areas. The Aden Independent Brigade which was under the administrative control of the Government of India was transferred to the administrative control of His Majesty's Government in October 1927.

The distribution of the troops allotted to the Commands and districts has been determined by the principle that the striking force must be ready to function in war, commanded and constituted as it is in peace. With this end in view, the Army in India is now regarded as comprising three categories of troops:

- (1) Covering Troops,
- (2) The Field Army
- (3) In

Troops.

The role of the Covering Force is to deal with minor frontier outbreaks and, in the event of major operations, to form a screen behind which mobilisation can proceed undisturbed. The force normally consists of 12½ infantry brigades with a due proportion of other arms.

The Field Army consists of 4 Divisions and 5 Cavalry Brigades. The Field Army is India's striking force in a major war.

Army Headquarters.

The organization of the Army Headquarters with the Commander-in-Chief as the head, is founded upon four Principal Staff Officers charged with the administration of—

- (a) The General Staff Branch;
- (b) The Adjutant-General's Branch;
- (c) The Quartermaster-General's Branch
- (d) The Master-General of Supply's Branch

The General Staff Branch deals with military policy, with plans of operations for the defence of India, and the education of Warrant and Non-commissioned Officers and men of the Army in India and Inter-Communication Services.

The Adjutant-General's Branch deals with all matters appertaining to the raising, organising and maintenance of the military forces, the peace distribution of the army, discipline, pay and pensions, etc. Martial, Military and International Law, Medical and Sanitary matters affecting the Army in India. Personal and ceremonial questions. The Judge Advocate General forms part of the Branch. The Director of Medical Services in India, who was independent before the war, is now included in the Adjutant-General's Branch.

The Quartermaster-General's Branch is concerned with the provision, inspection, foodstuffs, storage, fuel, clothing, armaments, ammunition, equipment, etc., and is responsible for the following Services—Transportation, Movements, Quartering, Supply and Transport Equipment and Ordnance Stores, Remounts and Veterinary, Garrison and Regimental Institutes.

The Master-General of Supply's Branch controls the ordnance and clothing factories, the Military farms and conducts all matters relating to contracts in respect of food-stuffs etc., and supply in bulk of clothing and necessaries, general stores and materials. The Master-General is also responsible for the design, inspection, and supply of guns, carriages, tanks, small arms, machine guns, chemical warfare appliances, etc. He also deals with questions regarding patents, royalties and inventions.

There are other branches of Army Headquarters administered by officers who are not classified as Principal Staff Officers, but are not directly subordinate to any of the four Principal Staff Officers.

These are:

- (1) The Military Secretary, usually a Major-General, who deals with the appointment and

Chain of Command.

General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Burma Ind. District. (2nd class.)	—	General Officer Commanding Aden Independent Brigade.	—
General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Southern Command.	—	General Officer Commanding Madras District. (2nd class.) General Officer Commanding Bombay District (2nd class.)	— Commander Rangoon Brigade Area — Commander Southern Brigade Area — Commander Poona Brigade Area — Brigade Commander 11th (Ahmednagar) Infantry Brigade. — Brigade Commander 4th (Secunderabad) Cavalry Brigade — Brigade Commander 12th (Secunderabad) Infantry Brigade
General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Eastern Command.	—	General Officer Commanding Deccan District. (1st class.) General Officer Commanding Central Provinces District. (1st class.) General Officer Commanding Presidency and Assam District. (2nd class)	— Brigade Commander 10th (Jabalpur) Infantry Brigade — Brigade Commander 6th (Lucknow) Infantry Brigade. — Commander Allahabad Brigade Area — Commander Delhi Independent Brigade Area. — Brigade Commander 9th (Meerut) Cavalry Brigade.
General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Western Command.	—	General Officer Commanding Lucknow District. (1st Class) General Officer Commanding Meerut District. (1st class.) General Officer Commanding Baluchistan District. (1st class.) Zhob (Independent) Brigade Area.	— Brigade Commander 7th (Delhi) Infantry Brigade. — Brigade Commander 8th (Barilly) Infantry Brigade. — Brigade Commander 9th (Jhansi) Infantry Brigade — Commander Jhansi Brigade Area — Brigade Commander 4th (Quetta) Infantry Brigade. — Brigade Commander 5th (Quetta) Infantry Brigade. — Commander Zhob Independent Brigade Area. — Commander Sind Brigade Area
General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Northern Command.	—	General Officer Commanding Waziristan District (2nd class.) General Officer Commanding Lahore District. (1st class.) General Officer Commanding Rawalpindi District (1st class.) Kohat District. (2nd class.) General Officer Commanding Peshawar (1st class.)	— Commander Razmak Brigade — Commander Bannu Brigade — Commander Muzaffargarh Brigade — Brigade Commander 2nd (Skalkot) Cavalry Brigade. — Commander Ferozepur Brigade Area — Commander Multan Brigade — Commander Jullundur Brigade Area — Commander Lahore Brigade Area — Commander Ambala Brigade Area — Brigade Commander 1st (Ambala) Infantry Brigade. — 2nd (Rawalpindi) Infantry Brigade — 3rd (Jhelum) Infantry Brigade — Commander Kohat Brigade — Commander Landikotal Brigade — Commander Peshawar Brigade — Commander Nowshera Brigade — Brigade at Risalpur

the King's Commission, the selection of officers for staff appointments, and the appointment of officers to the Army in India Reserve of Officers.

(2) The Engineer-in-Chief, also a Major-General and Head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India. It is responsible for Engineer operations and Engineer Services during War and Peace and preparedness for War of the Engineering services. The supply of Engineer Stores during War and Peace. The construction of military works and the accuracy and economy of all projects and designs.

In addition to the above, the Army Headquarters staff includes certain technical advisers, of whom the most important are the Major-General Royal Artillery, and the Colonel, Royal Tank Corps, the Signal Officer-in-Chief, and the Adviser and Secretary, Board of Examiners.

Regular British Forces in India.

The British cavalry and British infantry units of the army in India are units of the British service. No individual British service unit is posted permanently in India. Units of the British Army are detached for a tour of foreign service, of which the major part is as a rule spent in India. In the case of British infantry battalions the system is that one battalion of a regiment is normally on home service while the other is overseas. The tour of overseas service of a British battalion is usually 16 years. In the case of British cavalry the same arrangement cannot be applied, as one unit only comprises the regiment. The normal tour of overseas duty for a regiment of British cavalry is 14 years. In Great Britain, in peace-time, units are maintained at an establishment smaller than that required for war. In India, the peace establishments exceed the war establishments in view of the fact that reserves of British personnel do not exist, and reinforcements must be obtained from Great Britain.

British Cavalry.—There are 5 British cavalry regiments in India. The establishment of a British cavalry regiment is 27 officers and 571 other ranks.

British Infantry.—The present number of British infantry battalions in India and Aden is 46, each with an establishment of 28 officers and 882 other ranks.

In 1921, an important change was made in the composition of a British infantry battalion in India by the inclusion of a proportion of Indian combatant ranks. Battalions had always maintained a quota of Indian followers, but up to 1921 the combatant personnel was entirely British. In 1921, on the abolition of the Machine Gun Corps, eight machine guns were included in the equipment of a British infantry battalion. The peace establishment of Indian combatant personnel is fixed at one Indian officer and forty-one Indian other ranks. The Indian platoon, as it is called, is transferred *en bloc* to another British battalion when the battalion to which it was originally attached proceeds on relief out of India.

Royal Artillery.—Indians are employed as drivers and artificers in the Royal Artillery and in field and medium batteries as drivers, gunners and artificers in pack batteries, and as gunners in heavy batteries.

The peace organisation of the artillery at the present day is as follows:

Royal Horse Artillery.—One brigade, consisting of headquarters, three batteries and two ammunition columns, and one unbrigaded battery and ammunition column. Each battery is armed with six 13-pounder guns.

Field (Higher and Lower Establishment) Brigades.—Seven brigades on the higher establishment

with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries each with six 4.5" howitzers. Three brigades consist of three batteries, each armed with 18-pounder guns, and one battery with six howitzers. Of the three brigades on the lower establishment two consist of three batteries each armed with six 18-pounder guns and one battery with six 4.5" howitzers, and one brigade of two batteries armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries armed with 4.5" howitzers. Two guns in each battery are immobile.

Field (Reinforcement) Brigade.—The reinforcement brigade consists of two double batteries each armed with six 18-pounder guns and 4.5" howitzers.

Ammunition Columns.—Two Divisional ammunition columns are maintained for the artillery of the first and second divisions and one field ammunition column for the reinforcing force brigade on the frontier.

Indian Pack Brigades.—Six brigades consisting of headquarters, one British and one Indian batteries, also one unbrigaded battery and one section. The British battery and Indian batteries per brigade are armed, four 3.7" howitzers, the remaining batteries are armed with four 2.75" guns. The headquarters of the Frontier posts at Kohat, Lockhart, Saidgi, Idak, Razani, Dandil, Chaman, Peshawar; Hindubagh; Malakha Shagai; Chakdara and Fort Sandeman are manned by personnel of Indian Pack Brigades R. A.

Medium Brigades.—Two brigades, each consisting of one horsedrawn and two tractor drawn batteries. In addition, there are tractor-drawn batteries, two armed with 26 cwt. howitzers and one with 60 pound guns on a lower establishment, each only one section mobile. For administrative purposes one of these lower establishment batteries is brigaded with each of the Medium Brigades: the third battery (armed with 60-pounder guns) is unbrigaded. Each brigade, therefore, there are three tractor drawn and one horse drawn batteries in a brigade, the horse-drawn battery is armed with 60-pounder guns, in the other, with howitzers.

Heavy Brigade.—Headquarters and two batteries at Bombay, and one battery at Kara

Artillery Training Centres.—One centre for Indian ranks of R. H. A. and of field and medium batteries and another centre for Indian ranks of pack batteries. These centres were created for the recruitment and training of Indian personnel.

Engineer Services.

The Engineer-in-Chief.—The head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India is directly responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. The Engineer-in-Chief is not a Staff Officer, but the technical adviser of the Commander-in-Chief on all military engineering matters and is responsible for:

(1) Engineer operations and engineer services during war and peace.

(2) The preparedness for war of the engineering services.

(3) The supply of engineer stores during war and peace.

(4) The execution and maintenance of all military works.

(5) The constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs submitted by him.

The Organisation.—The Engineer organisation of the Army consists of two main branches viz. the "Sappers and Miners" and "Pioneers", and the Military Engineer Services.

The composition of the Corps of Sappers and Miners is as follows:

King George's Own Bengal Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Roorkee; Queen Victoria's Own Madras Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Bangalore; Royal Bombay Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Kirkee; Burma Sappers and Miners, with Headquarters at Mandalay.

The personnel of the Corps consists of Royal Engineer officers, Indian officers holding the Viceroy's commission, a certain number of British warrant and non-commissioned officers, Indian non-commissioned officers and Indian other ranks. The first three Corps are commanded by a Lieut.-Colonel, who is assisted by two Majors, as Superintendents of Park and Instruction, an Adjutant, a Quartermaster, two Subadar-Majors, a Jemadar Adjutant and a Jemadar Quartermaster. The staff of the Burma Sappers and Miners is proportionately less.

Field Troops are mounted units, trained to accompany cavalry, and are equipped to carry out hasty bridging, demolition and water supply work. Field Companies are trained to accompany infantry. Divisional Headquarters' Companies are small units containing highly qualified tradesmen and are trained to carry out technical work in connection with field workshops. Army Troops Companies are somewhat smaller units than field companies; they are required to carry out work behind divisions, under the orders of Chief Engineers, e.g., heavy bridging work, large water-supplies, electrical and mechanical installation.

The Military Engineer Services control all military works in India, and Burma except in the case of a few small outlying which are in charge

of Public Works Department. They control all works for the Royal Air Force and for the Royal Indian Marine; and they are charged with all civil works in the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan under the orders, in each of these two areas, of the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General. They also control civil works in Bangalore, under the Mysore Government.

The Engineer-in-Chief is assisted by a Deputy Engineer-in-Chief (Works) and a Deputy Engineer-in-Chief (Electrical and Mechanical) in each Command and there is a Chief Engineer while in the Northern Command a Deputy Chief Engineer administers Military and Civil works in the N. W. F. P. and is Secretary P. W. D., to the Chief Commissioner. The Chief Engineer, Western Command, is the Secretary P. W. D., to the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan. Both at Army Headquarters and in Commands there are Staff Officers, R. E. and Technical Officers. At the headquarters of each district there is a Commanding Royal Engineer, assisted in the ten 1st class districts by A. C. R. Es. Officers of the Barrack Department are also employed as District Stores Officers. Garrison Engineers are in charge of brigade areas and military stations, their charges being divided into subdivisions under Sub-divisional Officers. The sub-divisions are Buildings and Roads, Electrical and Mechanical, and Furniture and Stores. There are sub-oversers for Buildings and Roads and the Barrack Department subordinates in charge of Furniture and Stores are assisted by store keepers.

Royal Air Force in India.

The Royal Air Force in India is controlled by the Commander-in-Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Air Force budget is incorporated in the Military estimates. The Commander of the Air Force, the Air Officer Commanding in India is an Air Vice-Marshal, whose rank corresponds to that of a Major-General in the Army.

The headquarters of the Air Force is closely associated with Army Headquarters and is located with the latter at the seat of the Government of India. The Air Officer Commanding has a headquarters staff constituted in five branches, namely, air staff, personnel, technical, stores and medical. The system of staff duties

are those which are performed by the General Staff Branch, the Adjutant-General's and Military Secretary's branches, the Quartermaster-General's branch, and Medical Directorate, respectively, of Army Headquarters. The formations subordinate to Royal Air Force Headquarters are: (1) The Wings which, in their turn, comprise the squadrons of aeroplanes (2) The Aircraft Depot. (3) The Aircraft Park

The Wings.—There are three Wings in India, namely, at Peshawar, Risalpur and Quetta. The Wing Commander is an officer with Air Force rank corresponding to the rank of a Colonel in the Army. He is equipped with a staff on the system

the headquarters staff of the Air Force Wing Headquarters establishment consists approximately of 22 offices and four engine houses.

The Squadrons.—Of the six squadrons, five are extended along the North-West Frontier from Quetta to Risalpur and one is stationed at Ambala. The squadron is the primary air force unit and it consists, normally, of a headquarters and three flights of aeroplanes. A flight can be detached temporarily but not permanently from its squadron, as repair facilities, workshops, and stores cannot economically be organised on anything lower than a squadron basis. The squadron headquarters comprises the officers and other ranks required for the command and administration of the squadron as a whole: it includes the workshop and repair units, the armours and equipment stores of the squadron. The number of aeroplanes in a squadron varies with the type of aeroplane of which the squadron is composed; but, speaking generally, all squadrons on a peace basis have twelve aeroplanes, i.e., four in each of the three flights.

Of the six squadrons, two are equipped with De Havilland 9A aeroplanes and are allotted to distant reconnaissance and bombardment duties; the other four, which are allotted to army co-operation duties, have Bristol fighter aeroplanes. The establishment of officers in a squadron consists of six officers in the headquarters and fifteen officers allotted to flying duties. This allows a reserve of one officer for each of the operative flights.

The Aircraft Depot.—May conveniently be described as the wholesale store and provision department of the Royal Air Force. Technical stores from the United Kingdom are received and, in the first instance, held in the Aircraft Depot. It is also the main workshop and repair shop of the Force, where all engine repairs, mechanical transport repairs, and aircraft repairs of any magnitude are carried out. The Depot is located at Karachi.

The Aircraft Park.—Relatively to the Aircraft Depot, the Aircraft Park may be described as a central retail establishment, intermediate between the squadrons and the Aircraft Depot. It receives stores from the depot and distributes them to the squadron. The stocks held in the park are, however, usually limited to items necessary at short notice for operations, and the quantities held are kept as low as distance from the depot and local conditions will admit. In war, the Aircraft Park is intended to be a mobile formation. In peace, the Aircraft Park is located at Lahore. New aeroplanes, received from the United Kingdom, are erected there, but no major repairs are undertaken.

Composition of Establishments.—The personnel of the Royal Air Force in India consists of officers, non-commissioned officers and airmen of the Royal Air Force of the United Kingdom, and Indian artificers and mechanics belonging to the Indian technical section. The officers are employed on administrative, flying and technical duties; but all are required to be capable of flying an aeroplane. A proposal to employ non-commissioned officers as pilots

has been agreed on by the Government of India and has now been accepted by the Indian Government. The only flying personnel who are not officers are those numbering above and a few aerial gunners who are airmen from various trades. The non-commissioned officers and airmen are employed both with squadrons and at the Aircraft Depot and Park. The personnel of the Indian technical section are employed entirely at the Depot and Park on technical trades, and consist of carpenters, fitters, fabric workers, instrument repairers, machinists, etc.

The total establishment consists of 228 officers, 1,780 British non-commissioned officers and airmen and 138 Indians.

In India, as in the United Kingdom, the Air Force has a medical service of its own.

Regular Indian Forces.

Indian Cavalry.—The present number of Indian cavalry regiments is 21. The peace establishment of an Indian cavalry regiment comprises:

- 14 British officers.
- 13 Indian officers.
- 403 Indian non-commissioned officers and men.

Indian Infantry and Pioneers.—The establishment of the Indian Infantry is constituted as follows:

	Battalions
20 Infantry regiments consisting of	.. 104
3 Pioneer regiments consisting of	.. 11
1 Independent Pioneer battalion (4th Hazara Pioneers)	.. 1
10 Gurkha regiments consisting of	.. 20
34	126

The normal strength of an active battalion is—

	British Officers.	Indian Officers.	Indian other ranks
Infantry ..	12	20	742
Pioneers ..	12	18	720
Gurkhas ..	13	28	920

The strength of a training battalion depends upon the number of battalions forming the regiment. The average is as follows:—

Infantry.—British Officers 9, Indian Officers 14, and Indian other ranks 636.

Pioneers.—British Officers 8, Indian Officers 11, and Indian other ranks 469.

The strength of the Independent Pioneer Battalion is British Officers 18, Indian Officers 18, and Indian other ranks 923.

Reserves for these units have to be sufficient to provide for an actual shortage on mobilisation as well as for the maintenance of the mobilised unit at full strength for the first 8 months after mobilisation.

Reserve.—The conditions of the reserve are as follows:—

(a) There are two classes in the reserve Class A and Class B. A reservist is eligible to

serve in Class A up to 8 years' combined army and reserve service, and in Class B up to 15 years' combined service.

(b) Service in the reserve is compulsory. On enrolment a man engages to serve at least 5 years in army service, and to serve up to 15 years in combined army and reserve service, if required to do so.

(c) Reservists will be trained for not more than 1 month annually in the cases of Class A, and biennially in the case of Class B. During training the reservist will receive the full pay of a serving soldier.

(d) While not under training, the reservist will receive pay as follows:—

Class A, Rs. 7 per mensem.

Class B, Rs. 4 per mensem.

(e) A reservist will be discharged from the service after 15 years' combined army and reserve service, when he will receive a pension of Rs. 3 per mensem, or, if he desires it, a gratuity of Rs. 300 in lieu. A reservist who is invalided from the reserve is granted a gratuity varying between 3 and 6 months pay and good conduct pay according to service.

The establishment of reservists is fixed at present as follows:—

Cavalry	2,943
Artillery	2,520
Sappers & Miners	1,710
Indian Signal Corps	901
Infantry	34,320
Gurkhas	2,000
Pioneers	1,240
Independent Pioneers	81
Total	27,441

The Indian Signal Corps—The Corps is organised on the same lines as a Sapper and Miner Corps, with a headquarters for recruiting and training personnel, and detached field units for the various army formations. The head of the corps is the Signal Officer-in-Chief, who belongs to the Royal Corps of Signals and is attached to the General Staff Branch at Army Headquarters as a technical adviser on questions connected with signals, and is also responsible for the technical inspection of all signal units. A chief signal officer with similar functions is attached to the headquarters of each Army Command. The British portion of the Corps has now been amalgamated with the Royal Corps of Signals.

The Signal Training School is situated at Jubbulpore, and is commanded by a Colonel, assisted by a Major. The Corps is organised on very much the same lines as the headquarters of a Corps of Sappers and Miners.

The various types of field units and the number maintained are:—

Corps Signals Headquarters including Line and Wireless Company	2
Cavalry Brigade Signal Troop	4
Divisional Signals	4
Corps Signals	2
Signal Parks	2
District Signals	3
Medium Brigade Royal Artillery Signal Section	1
Field Brigade Royal Artillery Signal Section	1

In addition, there is an Army Signal School which carries out the training of regimental signalling instructors.

The formation of the District signals units was effected in 1926 with the transfer of Communications on the North-West Frontier to the Posts and Telegraphs Department. This transfer of communications also made feasible the raising of the 'A' and 'C' troops of Cavalry Brigade Signals to include a Wireless Section each, the formation of two Corps Signal Headquarters and the formation of one Medium and one Field Brigade Royal Artillery Signal Sections. The District Signals are located at Peshawar, Waziristan and Kohat.

Royal Tank Corps.—Six Armoured Car Companies arrived in India in 1921. Two more Companies arrived in 1925. Two Group Headquarters were sanctioned in 1925. They are located as follows:—the Northern Group at Murree, this Group Headquarters commands Companies in the Northern and Eastern Commands, the Southern Group at Poona. This Group Headquarters commands Companies in the Southern and Western Commands. There is a school at Ahmednagar for the training of R. T. C. personnel and the conduct of experiments. The Colonel, Royal Tank Corps at Army Headquarters, acts as Technical Adviser on Tanks and Armoured Cars.

The smallest Tactical Unit is the sub-section (Two Armoured Cars). There are two sub-sections in a section, and 3 sections in a Company. Each section is commanded by a Captain or a subaltern, and the Company by a Major. In addition to 12 Armoured Cars (4 in each section), there is a mechanical reserve of 4 cars on the Headquarters of each Company.

5 Companies are equipped with Crossley Armoured Cars.

1 Company is equipped with Rolls-Royce 1921 Pattern.

1 Company is equipped with Rolls-Royce 1914.

1 Company is equipped with Austin Armoured Cars.

With the exception of the Company with Rolls-Royce 1914 pattern, which have only one Vickers Gun, all the remaining Armoured Cars are armed with two Vickers Guns.

The establishments of the R. & A. Tank Corps formations are shown below.—

	British Officers.	British other ranks.	Followers.	Motor cars.	Motor cycles.	Armoured cars.	Lorries
Group Headquarters	2	12	0
Tank Corps School	6	48	15	1	2	9	0
Armoured Car Company	12	145	39	2	6	16	16

Medical Services.—The military medical services in India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organisations:—

(a) Officers and other ranks of the Royal Army Medical Corps serving in India;

(b) Officers of the Indian Medical Service in military employment;

(c) The Indian Medical Department, consisting of two branches, viz., (i) assistant surgeons and (ii) sub-assistant surgeons.

(d) The Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India.

(e) The Army Dental Corps.

(f) The Indian Troops Nursing Service.

(g) The Indian Hospital Corps.

Of these categories, the officers and men of the Royal Army Medical Corps and the Army Dental Corps, the assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India are primarily concerned with the medical care of British troops; while the officers of the Indian Medical Service, the sub-assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Indian Troops Nursing Service are concerned, primarily, with the medical care of Indian troops. The Indian Hospital Corps serves both organisations.

Civilians of miscellaneous classes employed by the Army in Waziristan are given medical treatment in military hospitals, and arrangements have been made with the Headquarters of the Indian Red Cross Society for the medical treatment and care of cases amongst Indian soldiers and followers of the Indian Army for chronic diseases, such as Tuberculosis, Leprosy and Diabetes.

Indian Army Service Corps and the Mechanical Transport Service.—The Indian Army Service Corps is the counterpart of the Royal Army Service Corps of the British Army. It has developed from the Commissariat Department of an earlier period, and its immediate predecessor was the Supply and Transport Corps, by which name the service was known up to a short time ago. The Indian Army Service Corps is administered by the Quartermaster-General, and is one of the principal services included in the Quartermaster-General's Department.

The Indian Army Service Corps is constituted in two main branches, namely: (a) Supply, (b) Animal transport, and is supplied

by the Mechanical Transport Service, which, in India, is constituted upon a special basis, but which is, generically, a sub-division of the Royal Army Service Corps organisation.

The strength of the establishment is shown by categories in the following table.—

SUPPLY.

Officers with King's commission ..	168
Indian officers	88
British other ranks	300
Civilians	778
Followers	2,849

Total .. 4,218

ANIMAL TRANSPORT

Officers with King's commissions ..	91
Indian officers	184
British other ranks	88
Civilians	1-8
Sijadard Lancer Naiks and Sarwans ..	10-3
Indian non-commissioned officers and drivers	14,139
Artificers and followers	2,184

Total .. 17,887

There are also 1,094 driver reservists.

The total numbers of mules and camels maintained under the present organisation, including the depots and the detachments in Aden, and Kashmir are 19,747 and 5,808 respectively. There are also 747 pack and draught horses and 612 ponies. Wheeled and pack transport are combined. The company on the lower establishment represents the pre-war "cadre," other companies being maintained in peace-time at full war establishment.

The mechanical transport establishment consists of the following:—

Light Lorries: 8 companies with 9 sections (higher establishment), 2 sections (lower establishment) and 15 sections in cadres.

Apart from units and vehicles employed in the conveyance of military stores, the mechanical transport service also provides motor ambulance convoys for hospitals and field medical units, and vehicles for other miscellaneous purposes. The organisation as a whole is completed by a mechanical transport depot, a central stores depot, mobile repair units and workshops, of which the most important is the large heavy repair workshop constructed after the war at Chakala. Like the Indian

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sadm ed by he Dir to of Supply
and Transp und he con o o the Qua e
Master-General. Exclusive of motor bicycles
the total establishment now consists of 2,206
vehicles, with 932 vehicles spare and in reserve.

The mechanical transport is at present not actually a part of the Indian Army Service Corps. A scheme is, however, in operation by which the mechanical transport will be taken over by the Indian Army Service Corps. At present the officers of the service are mainly drawn from the Royal Army Service Corps, since at present there are no facilities in India for training officers in every branch of mechanical transport duties. The establishment of officers includes, however, a certain number of King's commissioned officers belonging to the Indian Army. The British subordinates of the service are drawn entirely from the Royal Army Service Corps. The establishment is completed by Indian officers with the Viceroy's commission, and Indian other ranks of the I.A.S.C. employed as drivers. A large number of Indians with non-combatant status are employed as artificers and followers. The strength and categories of the present establishments are shown in the following table:—

Officers with King's commissions.	182
Indian officers	36
British other ranks.	399
Indian other ranks	1,427
Civilians	267
Indian artificers	1,098
Followers	656
Total	4,014

There are also 1,162 reservists.

The post-war establishment of the Mechanical transport in India will be as follows:—

(a) Field units—

- 8 Light M. T. Companies, consisting of 8 headquarters, 9 service sections (higher establishment), 2 service sections (lower establishment) and 15 sections in cadre.

- 10 M. T. Companies for motor ambulance convoys.

- 4 Mobile repair units,

(b) Maintenance units—

- 1 Heavy Repair shop.
- 3 Medium Repair Shops.
- 1 Central M. T. Stores Depot.

(c) Miscellaneous—

- 3 M. T. group, headquarters, M. T. technical inspectorate, 1. M. T. depot for training Indian drivers and Aden M. T. Section.

The Ordnance Services which are partly under the Q.M.G. and partly under the M.G.S. may be broadly described as the agency whose duty it is to supply the army with munitions of war, such as small arms, guns, ammunition and other equipment of a technical military and also under an

ang men nt d ed n cent yea s w h
el hng and gen a s es he than e g
n ng st 4 nt posa o gan sa
tion is in operation under the central of the
Master General of Supply to dispense with the
Surplus Stores, and waste materials of the
different services of the Army and the Royal
Air Force in India to the best advantage of the
State.

Army Remount Department.—The following are among the most important duties imposed on the remount service:—(1) The mounting of the whole of the mounted services in India. (2) The provision of camels and draught bullocks for all units and services. (3) The maintenance of some 66,000 animals. (4) The enumeration throughout India of all animals available for transport in war. (5) The animal mobilization of all units, services and departments of the army. (6) A general responsibility for the efficiency of all the animals of the army both in peace and war. (7) The administration of the remount squadron formed in 1922 as a nucleus for expansion into three squadrons on mobilization. (8) Breeding operations of a direct character and a new horse-breeding area, which comprises the three civil districts of Multan, Montgomery and Dera Ghazi Khan, and will include the breeding grants in the lower Bari Doab Canal Colony.

The department is organised on lines corresponding to the remount service in the United Kingdom. Its composition is as follows: The Remount Directorate at Army Headquarters consisting of one Director, a Deputy Director, and a Staff Captain, 4 Remount officers, one attached to each Command Headquarters, 3 Superintendents of Remount Depots, 6 District Remount officers of horse-breeding areas and the Ahmednagar Stud, 15 Assistant Remount officers and 8 Veterinary officers.

Veterinary Services in India.—The Veterinary Services are responsible for the veterinary care, in peace and war, of mounted British troops, Indian cavalry and artillery. I. A. S. C. units, the remount department (excluding horse-breeding operations), etc. The Veterinary Services include: The establishment of Royal Army Veterinary Corps officers, serving on a tour of duty in India. The establishment of warrant and non-commissioned officers, India Unattached List, and Veterinary Assistant Surgeons of the Indian Army Veterinary Corps.

The Indian Army Veterinary Corps is organised in 12 sections, attached in peace-time to Class I veterinary hospitals at certain important stations.

Military Farms Department.—This department, which is under the control of the Master General of Supply, consists of two branches:—

(i) The military grass farms, which provide fodder for the army.

(ii) The military dairy farms, for the provision of dairy produce for hospitals, troops and families.

Educational Services.—The education of the army is under the control of the Army Educational Corps and of Indian officers borne

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British officers.	Indian officers.	B. O. Rs.	I. O. Rs.	Civilians.
67	38	167	11	247

Terms of service in the Indian army are as follows:—

Cavalry, 7 years' service in army.
Artillery, 6 years' service in army for gunners, 5 for drivers and 4 for the Heavy Battery personnel.

S & M. Corps, 7 years' service in army (5 for the Burma S & M).

Indian Signal Corps, 5 years' service in army.
Infantry and Pioneers (except Gurkhas, the 4th Hazara Pioneers and trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry), 5 years in army service and 10 years in the reserve. (Note: This is the minimum period of service with the colours. 15 years in Colour and Reserve service must be done).

Gurkhas, 4th Hazara Pioneers, trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry, and Indian combatant personnel of British Infantry Battalions, 4 years' service in army.

Indian Military establishments of the Indian Army Ordnance Corps, 4 years' service in the army.

Animal transport personnel of the Indian Army Service Corps, drivers of mechanical transport and all combatants of the Army Veterinary Corps, 6 years' service in army and 4 in the reserve.

All combatants in the Works Corps, 2 years' service in army.

Bandsmen, musicians, trumpeters, drummers, buglers, fiers and pipers, 10 years' service in army.

Except in the case of those enrolled in the Works and of those who are non-combatants, all School-masters, clerks, artificers, armourers, engine drivers, farriers, carpenters, tailors and bootmakers, 10 years' service in army.

The period laid down for service in the army may be extended. Combatants may be enrolled direct into the Reserve, in which case there is no minimum period of service, but no one is allowed to serve in the reserve or in any class of the reserve for a longer period than is permitted by the regulations in force.

Frontier Militia and Levy Corps.—These forces are "Civil" troops, i.e., they are administered and paid by the Civil authorities and not by the Army. They are, however, officered by Officers of the Regular Indian Army. These forces were raised for duty on the North-West Frontier and at present consist of the following:—Kurram Militia, Tochi Scouts, South Waziristan Scouts, Chitral Scouts, Gilgit Scouts, Zhob Levy Corps and the Mekran Levy Corps. The various names show the localities in which each force is situated.

The Auxiliary Force.

After the war, the question of universal training for European British subjects came up for consideration, and it was decided that in India, as in the Empire the adop-

on o campus y mil ays e would be und srabe I was e gms d howe e hat India needed some adequate auxiliary force if only on a voluntary basis, that could be trained to a fairly definite standard of efficiency: and in the result, an Act to constitute an Auxiliary Force for service in India was passed in 1920. Under this Act membership is limited to European British subjects, and the liability of members for training and service is clearly defined. Military training is graduated according to age, the more extended training being carried out by the younger members the older members being obliged to fire a musketry course only. It was laid down that military service should be purely local. As the form of service that would be most suitable varies largely according to localities, the local military authorities, acting in consultation with the advisory committee of the Auxiliary Force area, were given the power of adjusting the form of training to suit local conditions.

The Auxiliary Force comprises all branches of the service, cavalry, artillery, engineers infantry—in which are included railway battalions,—machine gun companies, R.A.F.C. sections, and the Medical and Veterinary Corps. Units of the Auxiliary Force are under the command of the local military authority, and the latter has the power of calling them out for service locally in a case of emergency. Their role is to assist in home defence. Training is carried on throughout the year. Pay at a fixed rate is given for each day's training and, on completion of the scheduled period of annual training, every enrolled member of the force is entitled to a certain bonus. Men enrol in the Auxiliary Force for an indefinite period. An enrolled person is entitled to claim his discharge on the completion of four years' service or on attaining the age of 45 years. Till then he can only be discharged on the recommendation of the advisory committee of the area.

The duties connected with the Defence Light Sections at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi and Rangoon are performed by the Field Companies R.E. (A. F. I.) at those stations, assisted by Indian ranks of Sapper and Miner Units.

Indian Territorial Force.

The Territorial Force is one of the several aspects of the Indianisation of the military services. The force is intended to cater, amongst other things, for the military aspirations of those classes of the population to whom military service has not hitherto been a hereditary profession. It is intended, at the same time to be a second line to and a source of reinforcement for the regular Indian army. Membership of the force for this latter reason carries with it a liability for something more than purely local service or home defence. It may, in certain circumstances, involve service overseas. The force is the direct successor of the Indian section of the Indian Defence Force created during the war. It has been modelled on the old militia in England. The essence of its scheme of organisation consists in training men by means of annual embodiment for a short period in successive years. By this means Indian Territorial Force units can be given

g in peace to enable

them, after a comparatively short period of intensive training, to take their place by the side of regular units in war.

The Indian Territorial Force consists at present of two main categories, provincial battalions, and the *university training corps battalions*. The latter are recruited from the staff and students of Indian universities. They are trained all the year round, and are equipped with a permanent staff of British instructors. On ceasing to belong to a university, a member of the corps is discharged. In the case of the university training corps battalions, it is not intended to enforce the liability to render actual military service. Their purpose is mainly educative, to inculcate discipline and form character. But, incidentally, they are expected to be a source of supply of both officers and men for the provincial battalions.

The members of the *provincial battalions* accept the full liability for service which has been mentioned. Seven such battalions were constituted in the first instance. The number has since been raised to twenty and, though the unit establishment has not been completely filled in all cases, the movement has already achieved a greater degree of success than might have been anticipated at so early a stage. It is in contemplation to diversify and extend the scope of the force by constituting some ancillary units. Although for the present the infantry arm only has been created with the addition of the I.T.F. Medical Corps, the force by law may include every other army service.

Men enrol in the provincial battalions for a period of six years, the period being reduced to four years in certain cases. On the completion of the first period they can re-enrol voluntarily for further specified periods. During his first year, every man does twenty-eight days' preliminary training, and during every year he receives twenty-eight days' periodical training.

The Indian State Forces.

The Indian State Forces, formerly designated 'Imperial Service Troops,' consist of the military forces raised and maintained by the Rulers of Indian States at their own expense and for State service. It has been the custom in emergency for State troops to be lent to the Government of India, and the Government of India have on many occasions received military assistance of great value from this source. But the rendering of such aid is entirely at the discretion of the Ruling Princes and Chiefs. Government, on the other hand, provide permanently a staff of British officers, termed 'Military Advisers and Assistant Military Advisers,' to assist and advise the Ruling Princes in organising and training the troops of their States.

After the war had ended, the Indian States, like the Government of India, undertook a military reorganisation, which in a number of cases, has already been carried out. The principal feature of the new arrangements, as adopted more or less generally, is that in future the Indian State Forces should be composed of three categories of troops, namely:

Class A.—Troops in this class are on the present-day Indian Army establishments, and, with some exceptions, are armed with the same weapons as corresponding units of the regular Indian Army.

Class B.—These troops consist of units which are, in most cases, little inferior in training and discipline to troops of Class A but are not organised on present-day Indian Army establishments. They have, as a rule, adopted the system of the pre-war formations. The standard of armament is pitched lower than that of Class A troops.

Class C.—These troops consist of militia formations, which are not presently embodied. The standard of discipline, and armament, prescribed for this class, is generally lower than that prescribed for Class B troops.

The authorized and actual strength of Indian State Forces on the 1st October 1920 amounted to—

	Authorized strength	
Artillery	1,481	
Cavalry	9,714	
Infantry	30,046	
Camel Corps	460	
Motor Machine Gun Sections	70	
Sappers	1,178	
Transport Corps	1,611	
Grand total	44,570	

Officers.

There are two main categories of officers in the Indian Army; those holding the Commission and those holding the King's Commission. The latter are all Indians from the Gurkha officers of Gurkha regiments, and have a limited status and powers of command, both of which are regulated by the Indian Army Act and the rules made thereunder. Until recent years Indians were not eligible for King's Commissions.

King's Commissioned Officers for the Indian Army are obtained from two sources among the cadets who pass through the Military College, Sandhurst, and by their direct entry into the Indian Army of Officers belonging to British units. The former is the normal channel of recruitment; the latter being resorted to when, owing to abnormal conditions or for some other special reason, recruitment cannot be complete by means of the normal channel. When a cadet has graduated from Sandhurst and has received his commission, in the first instance, an officer is posted to the Unattached List, and is posted for a period of one year to a British battalion or regiment in India, where he receives a preliminary training in his military duties. At the end of this year he is posted as a squadron or company commander to a regiment or battalion of the Indian Army, or to administrative services and departments.

army draw their officers from combatant units, as it has hitherto been regarded as essential that every officer should, in the first instance, receive a thorough grounding in combatant duties, and acquire at first hand an intimate knowledge of the requirements of the combatant arms.

The promotion in rank of King's commissioned officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, but is subject also to certain professional examinations and tests being successfully passed. The rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in normal course, attained at about 25 years' service. Promotion beyond this rank is determined by selection.

Indian Officers.—One of the most momentous decisions of the Great War, so far as the Indian Army is concerned, was that which rendered Indians eligible to hold the King's commission in the army. It was proposed that King's commissions should be obtainable by Indian gentlemen in the following three ways: (1) By qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst; (2) by the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian regiments who had either been promoted from the ranks or joined their regiments on direct appointment as jemadar; (3) by the bestowal of honorary King's commissions on Indian officers who had rendered distinguished service, but whose age and lack of education precluded their being granted the full King's commission. A number of honorary King's commissions are still granted annually to a limited number of Viceroy's commissioned officers of the class described in the third category mentioned above. The second of the sources of selection mentioned has since been almost entirely abandoned for the reason that a Viceroy's commissioned officer of this class cannot, as a practical matter, hope to have a normal career as a King's commissioned officer. It is the first of the three avenues of selection mentioned which gives the fullest opportunity to the Indian of satisfying a military ambition and of enjoying a military career on terms of absolute equality with the British officer, who, as a general rule, also enters the army by qualifying at Sandhurst. It was decided that, in the first instance, ten vacancies at Sandhurst should be reserved annually for Indian cadets.

A further measure adopted by the Government was the establishment of the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun, a Government institution for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's commission in the army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

The arrangements so far made enable a maximum of 70 boys to be in residence at the college at any one time and the normal course of education is planned to occupy six years. These dispositions will render it possible to provide from Dehra Dun sufficient candidates to fill the ten vacancies at Sandhurst which are at present allotted annually to Indians. In February 1923 it was decided that eight units of the Indian Army should be completely Indianized. The units selected for Indianization were: 7th Light Cavalry; 18th Light Cavalry;

2/1st Madras Pioneers; 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment; 5th Royal Battalion, 5th Mahratta Light Infantry; 1/7th Rajput Regiment (Q. V. O. L. I.); 1/14th Punjab Regiment; 2/1st Punjab Regiment.

Training Institutions

The following institutions exist in India for the higher training of military personnel and for the education of instructors for units—

Staff College, Quetta.

Senior Officers School, Belgaum.

School of Artillery, Kakul.

Equitation School, Sangor.

Small Arms School, Pachmarhi (a).

Army School of Physical Training, Ambala.

Machine Gun School, Ahmednagar (a).

Army Signal School, Poona.

Royal Tank Corps School, Ahmednagar.

Army School of Education, Belgaum.

Army School of Cookery, Poona.

Army Veterinary Schools, Ambala and Poona.

Indian Army Service Corps Training Establishment, Rawalpindi.

(a) Following the procedure adopted at Home, the Small Arms and Machine Gun Schools were amalgamated in February 1927, the two schools are not yet located in one place. Hence they are shown as two schools above, the one for Small Arms at Pachmarhi and that for Machine Guns at Ahmednagar.

The object of these Schools is to ensure to all the units throughout the army a constant formations supply of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men, provided with a thorough up-to-date knowledge of various technical subjects, and with the ability to pass on this knowledge.

The King George Royal Indian Military Schools at Jhelum and Jullundur also exist for the education of the sons of Indian soldiers with a view to their finding a career in the Indian Army, and the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun exists for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's Commission in the Army through Sandhurst.

Army in India Reserve of Officers.—Previous to the Great War there had been what was called the Indian Army Reserve of Officers, a body of trained officers available to replace casualties in the Indian Army. The war proved that for many reasons this reserve did not meet the requirements and in 1923 the Army in India Reserve of Officers was constituted.

The revised Regulations for the A. I. R. O., published in 1926, had the effect of stimulating recruitment. They provide that the following gentlemen may be granted commission in the Reserve:—

(1) Officers who having held King's commissions and retired from H. M.'s forces, are not liable for further service.

Officers of the Indian Army
under the Government of India
Government.

(3) Private gentlemen residing in India, possessing the requisite qualifications and previous training.

The Reserve comprises each arm and branch of the Army and the officers are posted to finite branches and units.

All officers are required to undergo periodical training up to a maximum of 30 days a year and receive pay and allowances admissible to junior officers of the same rank and arm of the service during training.

Members of the Auxiliary Force, India, may come "officers designate" for the grant of commissions in the A. I. R. O., upon the calling of army service of that reserve.

Officers and officers designate receive Rs 200 monthly as a retaining fee, and an outfit allowance of Rs. 400, on joining.

The strength of the Reserve towards the end of 1927 was 857.

Recruitment for the Reserve has been extended to 35 years, the number to be commissioned in the Reserve being limited to 50.

The Fighting Races.—The fighting classes contribute to the composition of the Indian Army have hitherto been drawn mainly from the north of India, but the experience of the great war have caused some modifications in the opinions previously held as to the relative value of these and other fighting men. The numbers of the various castes and tribes enlisted in the Army have since the war undergone fluctuations, and it is not possible at present to give exact information as to their proportions. Previous to the war the Sikhs contributed very large numbers both to the cavalry and infantry, and the contribution of the Gurkhas was also large; it is probable that these classes preserve their preponderance. The Sikhs, who inhabit the Punjab originated in a sect founded near Lahore by a peasant in the early part of the sixteenth century and in the course of a hundred years grew to a formidable militant power. Muhammadans of various races contribute a still larger proportion to both the cavalry and infantry. These are drawn both from the north and the south of India, as well as from beyond the Frontier. They are all excellent fighting men, hardy and warlike, who have furnished soldiers to all the great powers of India for many hundreds of years. As cavalry the Muhammadans are perhaps unequalled by any other race in the East, being good horsemen and expert men-at-arms.

Next in point of numbers are the Gurkhas of Nepal, of whom there are twenty complete battalions, which during the war were considerably increased. As fighters in the hills they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans in the North-West Frontier, but the Garhwalis and Kumaonis are equally good mountaineers. The professional military caste of India from time immemorial has been the Rajput, inhabiting not only Rajputana but the United Provinces and Oudh. Of fine physique and martial

blood the warriors of Hinduism form the backbone of the old Bengal Army and have maintained the English flag in every campaign in the East. Their high caste and consequent prejudices in no respect interfere with their martial instincts and efficiency in war. They furnish many battalions. The Garhwalis are Hill Rajputs, good and gallant soldiers, who have proved themselves equal to any other troops on the field of battle and have established an imperishable record in the war both in Europe and in the East. The two battalions which were all we had in 1914 have since been added to. The Jats are a fine and warlike race of Hindus found in the Delhi and Rohtak districts and adjoining territory. It was these people who held out so bravely at Bharatpur and repelled Lord Lake's army in 1805. They have proved themselves good soldiers on the battlefields of Europe. Dogras are good and steady soldiers found in the hilly districts of the Punjab. They fought well in Flanders and in Mesopotamia.

Among those who have rendered signal and gallant service in the war are the Mahrattas of the Deccan and the Konkan, who have revived the reputation held by their race in the days of Shivaji, the founder of the Mahratta Empire. It is probable that their proved efficiency in war will lead to their recruitment in larger numbers in future.

In addition to the castes that have been mentioned, other caste men from the south and other parts of India have filled the ranks of the Pioneer regiments and Sappers and Miners, and done their duty well in every campaign in which they have been engaged.

During the war the Victoria Cross was awarded for conspicuous gallantry to 2 Indian officers, 4 non-commissioned officers and 6 other ranks of the Indian Army.

The Military Cross was awarded to 98 Indian Officers for distinguished service rendered during the Great War and to 3 Indian Officers for service in Waziristan.

A large number of Indian Officers and men were also granted Foreign decorations.

Summary of India's Effort in the War.—In a despatch by the Commander-in-Chief published in July, 1919, the whole operations of the Indian Army during the war are reviewed. His Excellency gives in it the following figures showing the extent of India's contribution in terms of men. On the outbreak of war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks; enlistments during the war for all branches of the service amounted to 791,000, making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number, 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants, the pre-war strength was 45,000; an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war and 291,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000, of whom 943,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 103,594, which include 36,698 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 176,000.*

* For a record of the services of the Indian Army in the War see "The Indian Year Book of 1920" p. 152 et seq.

Budget Expenditure on National Defence.

Effectives, 1927.

	Officers with King's Commissions.	British other ranks.	Indian Officers with Viceroy's Commissions.	Indian other ranks.	Clerks and other civilians.	Followers.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I. Combatant Services (Includes Cavalry, Artillery Engineers, Pioneers, Infantry, Signal Service and Tank Corps.) ..	1,187	56,115	2,505	1,34,022	(a)	21,256
II. Staff (inclusive of personnel of Administrative Services) ..	349	479	11	130	1,251	456
III. Training Establishments (inclusive of personnel of Departmental Corps.) ..	120	140	10	113	54	243
IV. Educational Establishments ..	89	156	36	14	243	203
V. Indian Army Service Corps (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in items I, II, and III)	290	830	285	16,464	1,158	5,698
VI. Indian Army Ordnance Corps (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II.)	38	546	6	1,748	558	177
VII. Medical Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II.) ..	886	842	714	1,323	473	4,800
VIII. Veterinary Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II.) ..	40	4	53	815	43	81
IX. Remount Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II.) ..	36	24	26	107	46	257
X. Miscellaneous Establishments (inclusive of Military Accounts Department) ..	236	177	38	513	5,110	3,16
XI. Auxiliary and Territorial Force Forces (Permanent Establishments) ..	175	426	.	..	12	..
Total ..	8,741	59,768	4,763	1,58,139	8,653	39,94

(a) Included in column 7.

Budget Expenditure on National Defence.

A part of the Defence expenditure on the Indian Budget is incurred in England, the nature of such expenditure being indicated in the detailed Tables of Army, Marine and Military Engineer Services expenditure. This expenditure is met by transfer of funds from India. Since April 1st, 1920, the accounts have been prepared on the basis of the rate of 2/- per rupee for the conversion of English sterling transactions into rupees. The sterling value of the rupee has, however, stood at a lower level in recent years—the rate adopted for Budget 1927-28 is 1s 6d. per rupee. In consequence of this variation from the 2/- rate, large sums have to be brought to as credits or debits on account of, in respect of transactions involving gains or losses are recorded in instance under a suspense heading; tion attributable to the various head respect of outlay incurred in England dated every month on the basis of rate of the daily telegraphic transfer from Calcutta to London, and transferred accounts; and it is considered, with to the circumstances of each year, when balance remaining under the suspense

after these transfers are made should be written off to revenue or kept in suspense against the possibility of opposite results in succeeding years.

As a rule, the receipts collected by the various departments are not set off against expenditure as appropriations in aid, but are

shown separately on the revenue budget. This is especially the case with the receipts of the Military Department to considerable sum.

The Provincial Government expenditure for Military purposes

SUMMARY OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE (Gross.)

Table 1.

	1925-26.	1926-27
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates
Army	55,43,82	55,00,64
Marine	67,30	67,48
Military Works	4,28,25	4,48,72
Total	60,39,37	60,20,22

NOTES.—(1) This summary includes the cost of the Royal Air Force, which is included in the Army Estimates, and also the expenditure on non-effective services, but does not include debt services.

(2) All Expenditure for Military purposes incurred in the United Kingdom by the Government, as also all out of the Imperial Government for the same, is included in the above figures.

ANALYSIS OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE.

1. The following table gives the main items of Army Expenditure, (gross) in India and England separately:—

Table 2

	1925-26.	1926-27
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates
INDIA.		
A. Standing Army:	Rupees (000's omitted)	
(1) Effective Services:		
Maintenance of the Standing Army		
Administrative services		
Manufacturing establishments		
Army Headquarters, Staff or Commands, etc.		
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals		
Special Services		
Transportation, Conveyance, anti-malarial measures, hot weather establishments and miscellaneous		
Unadjusted expenditure		
Lump sum for probable underspending		
Total Effective Services		
(2) Non-effective Services:		
Non-effective charges		
B. Auxiliary and Territorial Forces:		
Effective		
C. Royal Air Force:		
Effective		
Non-effective		
Total: India:		
Effective	41,17,75	40,61,90
Non-effective	4,55,64	4,68,84
Total	45,73,39	45,28,79

Table 2—contd.

	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates.	Budget Estimates
ENGLAND.	(Rupees 000's omitted)		
1 Standing Army :			
(1) Effective Services :			
Maintenance of the Standing Army ..			2,79,23
Administrative Services			40,47
Manufacturing establishments			74,39
Army Headquarters, Staff of Com- mands, etc.			7,00
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			77,90
Special Services			1,80
Transportation, Conservancy, anti-mala- rial measures, hot weather establish- ments and miscellaneous			66,90
Total Effective Services			5,47,49
(2) Non-effective Services			3,57,89
B Royal Air Force :			
Effective			47,95
Non-effective			1,80
Total: England	9,70,43	9,74,84	9,54,38
Total Army Expenditure—			
Effective	47,75,88	46,82,32	43,33,73
Non-effective	7,67,94	8,21,31	8,31,38
Grand Total	55,43,82	55,03,63	51,65,11

The amounts expended in England on effective services consist of such charges as payments to the War Office and Air Ministry in London in respect of British Forces serving in India, the transport to India of these forces, and payments on account of stores taken to India by British Forces, educational establishments in England for Indian Services, leave pay of Indian and British service officers on the Indian Establishments, purchase of imported stores, etc. The expenditure on non-effective services consists of payments to the War Office in London for retired pay to British forces for services in India and to non-effective and retired officers of the Indian Service, and of various gratuities.

Of the sum of Rs 549.2 millions allotted in the Budget for 1927-28 to meet the net expenditure on Military Services (i.e. after deducting Receipts), Rs. 504.4 millions will be

available for expenditure under the heading "Army," made up of Rs. 412.0 millions for expenditure in India and Rs. 92.4 millions in England. The Indian Expenditure includes Rs. 30.8 millions for exchange on net expenditure in England.

The English expenditure includes £16,000 for payments in England of gratuities and allowances to surplus officers of the Indian Army.

The gross working expenses of military establishments, such as bakeries, pasture and dairy farms, army clothing factories, and storage depots, army ordnance factories and base mechanical transport workshops are included in the Budget.

The division of expenditure on *Military Engineer Services* between India and England is shown below :

	1925-26	1926-27.	1927-28
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates.	Budget Estimates
India (including exchange)	(Rupees 000's omitted)		
India (including exchange)	4,24,84	4,44,72	4,33,73
England	8,41	4,00	3,25
Total	4,28,25	4,48,72	4,36,98

The Strength of the Army.

BRITISH TROOPS.

Following table gives the average strength of British troops, and the health in 1925 with comparative figures for the quinquennial period 1915 to 1926 :—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home.
1915-1926	69,410	39,389	303	
1915-1919	44,891	36,952	267	
1920-1924	60,737	46,892	397	1
1925	80,825	62,372	390	1
1926	87,982	90,637	1,424	2
1927	56,561	54,082	438	4
1928	67,332	61,429	385	2
1929	58,681	60,515	402	
1930	60,166	37,836	284	
1931	63,139	37,595	237	
1932	58,614	38,569	246	
1933	57,878	36,069	166	
1934	56,798	36,893	171	

INDIAN TROOPS.

Average strength of Indian troops, including those on duty in China and outside India in 1926 was 135,146.

Following table gives below the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths and invalids for the quinquennial period 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1926 :

Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.	Ratio per 100	
					Admissions.	Deaths.
130,201	71,213	573	699	2,632	544.6	4.39
204,298	161,028	3,435	4,829	7,792	788.2	16.91
216,445	164,937	2,124	4,564	9,265	762.3	9.81
170,384	119,215	1,732	3,638	6,031	679.7	10.16
147,840	77,468	1,014	2,639	3,839	524.0	6.86
143,234	66,847	856	2,328	2,955	466.7	5.98
134,742	57,014	772	1,731	2,432	423.1	5.73
136,473	48,691	547	1,712	2,053	356.9	4.01
135,146	52,517	507	1,569	2,032	388.6	3.75

THE EAST INDIES SQUADRON.

1903 a squadron of the Royal Navy, the East Indies Squadron, has been maintained in Indian waters. It has naturally varied in strength from time to time, and in particular there have been changes in its composition, the most important in the direction of strengthening being the disappearance of strength in the form of gunboats. In 1903 the squadron consisted of two second class cruisers, and three gunboats. In 1910: when the second class cruiser was withdrawn and substituted, and three cruisers were added, the Mediterranean to assist in the position of the East Indies Squadron. The improved The

sure had taken the place of the second class cruiser which had been flagship, and a modern second class cruiser replaced the *Perseus*.

The Squadron in 1927.—The composition of the Squadron (Fourth Cruiser Squadron) is as follows:—

"*Birmingham*" (Flag), Cruiser: 9,770 tons
"Emerald," Cruiser, 7,350 tons; "*Enterprise*
Cruiser: 7,550. Sloops "*Crocus*," "*Cyclamen*"
and "*Lupin*." Special Service vessel "*Tread*"
(Senior Naval Officer, Persian Gulf.) Survey
ship "*Ormonde*."

The proportion of contributions from the overseas Dominions towards naval expenditure is shown in the following table issued with the last Navy Estimates that gave details.—

Received from	Nature of Service.	Total
	Maintenance of His Majesty's Ships in Indian Waters..	£ 100,000
India	Indian Troop Service (on account of work performed by the Admiralty)	3,400
	Repayment on account of services rendered by His Majesty's Ships engaged in the suppression of the Arms Traffic in the Persian Gulf ..	64,000
Australian Commonwealth Dominion of Canada..	Contributions on account of liability for Retired Pay of Officers and Pensions of Men lent from the Royal Navy.	10,800
Australian Commonwealth Do	Survey of the N. W. Coast of Australia ..	7,500
	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of a branch of the Royal Navy Reserve..	41,800
Dominion of New Zealand	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of the Imperial Navy generally, also of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve ..	100,000
Union of South Africa	General maintenance of the Navy ..	85,000
Newfoundland	Maintenance of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve ..	3,000
	Total ..	415,500

India's Marine Expenditure.

Since 1868 India has paid a contribution of varying amounts to the Imperial Government in consideration of services performed by the Royal Navy. Under existing arrangements which date from 1896-7, the subsidy of £100,000 a year is paid for the upkeep of certain ships of the East India Squadron, which may not be employed beyond prescribed limits, except with the consent of the Government of India. The expenditure amounts to nearly £400,000 annually.

The question of a new distribution of the burden of the cost of Imperial Naval defence was discussed at the Imperial Conference in London in October—November 1926. The matter appeared to be one on which the delegates could form no new decision without further consultations in their respective capitals and no resolution was passed.

The Royal Indian Marine is being reorganised so as to form the nucleus of an Indian Navy. The R. I. M. Ship "*Dalhousie*" has been reconditioned for use as a Depot Ship. Three of the R. I. M. Ships have been or are being reconditioned for use as loops of war in the R. I. M. Negotiations are in progress with the Admiralty for the provision of a fourth sloop for the new service. The necessary legislation in Parliament has been undertaken and completed and the consequential Indian Legislation in regard to the discipline of the new force will be introduced in the Indian Legislature as soon as possible.

ROYAL INDIAN MARINE.

The Royal Indian Marine (The Sea Service) under the Government of India) traces its origin so far back as 1612 when the East India Company stationed at Surat found that it was necessary to provide themselves with armed vessels to protect their commerce and settlements from the Dutch or Portuguese and from the pirates which infested the Indian coasts. The first two ships, the *Dragon* and *Hoseander* (or *Oxander*), were despatched from England in 1612 under a Captain Best, and since those days under slightly varying titles and of various names the Government in India have always maintained a sea force.

The periods and titles have been as follows—

Hon. E. I. Co.'s Marine	..	1612—1866
Bombay	..	1686—1830
Indian Navy	..	1880—1863
Bombay Marine	..	1863—1877
H. M. Indian Marine	..	1877—1892
Royal Indian Marine	..	1892. Present day

The Marine has always been most closely connected with Bombay, and in 1868 when the E. India Co. took over Bombay, Captain Young of the Marine was appointed Deputy

Governor. From then until 1877 the Marine was under the Government of Bombay, and although from that date all the Marine Establishments were amalgamated into an Imperial Marine under the Government of India, Bombay has continued to be the headquarters and the official residence of the Director.

War Service of the Marine.

1612-1717 Continuous wars against Dutch, Portuguese and Pirates for supremacy of West Coast of India. 1744 War with France, capture of Chandernagore, and French ship *Indienne*. In 1756 Capture of Castle of Gheria. 1774 Marhatta War, capture of Tannah. Latter part of the eighteenth century, war with French and Dutch, Capture of Pondicherry, Tricomalee, Jajnapatam, Colombo, etc. 1801 Egyptian campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie. 1808 War with France. 1810 Taking of Mauritius and capture of French ship in Port Louis. Early part of the nineteenth century suppression of Jowasmi Pirates in the Persian Gulf. 1811 Conquest of Tara. 1818 Expedition against Sultan of Sambar. 1817-18 Marhatta War, capture of Forts at Severndroog. 1819 Expedition to exterminate piracy in the Persian Gulf. 1820 Capture of Mochoa. 1821 Expedition against the Bedi-koo-Ali Arabs. 1824-26 First Burma War. 1827 Blockade of Berbera and Somali Coast. 1835 Defeat of Beni Yas Pirate. 1838 Expedition to Afghanistan and capture of Karachi. 1838 Capture of Aden. 1840-42 War in China. 1843 Scinde War Battle of Meeanee, capture of Hyderabad. 1845-46 Maori war in New Zealand. 1848-49 War in Punjab, siege of Multan. 1852 Second Burma War, Capture of Rangoon, Martaban, Bassein, Prome and Pegu. 1855 Persian War, capture of Bushire, Muhammerah and Ahwaz. 1856-57 War in China. 1857-59 The Indian Mutiny. 1859 Capture of the Island of Beyt. 1860 China War, Canton, Taku Forts, Fatsan and Peking. 1871 Abyssinian War. 1882 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Third Burma War. 1889 Chin-Lhai Expedition. 1896 Suakin Expedition. 1897 Expedition to Intirbe, Mombasa E. Africa. 1899-1902 S. African War. 1900-01 Boxer Rebellion in China relief of Peking. 1902-04 Somaliland Expedition, Suppression of Arms Traffic operations, Persian Gulf 1912-14.

During the War 1914-1918 Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on many and various duties. Royal Indian Marine Ships *DUFFERIN*, "*HARDINGE*," "*NOFFEBROOK*," "*LAWRENCE*," "*DALHOUSIE*" and "*MINTO*" had their guns mounted and served as Auxiliary Cruisers. Officers also served in the Royal Navy in the Grand Fleet, Mediterranean North Sea North Red Sea and Caspian Sea Fleets.

In addition to transport duties in Indian Ports, Officers were sent to Marseilles, East Africa and Egypt for such duties, and on the entry of Turkey into the War were employed on duties towing and manning River Craft and Barges to and in Mesopotamia, and it was necessary to enlist a number of Temporary Officers, Warrant Officers and men to the numbers of approximately 240, 60 and 2,000 respectively for these and other duties.

When the War Office assumed full control of Operations in Mesopotamia a large number of Regular and Temporary Officers and men were seconded to the Royal Engineers and General Service respectively for duties in the Inland Water Transport which controlled all River Transport work in that country, and these officers held many important executive appointments in that unit.

The movements of all sea transports between India and the various theatres of War were controlled by Marine Officers.

Trawlers were built in the Bombay and Calcutta Dockyards and mine sweeping operations were carried out with these and launches off Bombay and elsewhere, the trawlers were also used for towing duties.

Retired Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on naval transport duties in England and France, and also in very responsible positions with the Inland Water Transport in France.

Service in the War 1914-18—The Royal Indian Marine, though a small Service compared with the Army and Navy, played a very active and conspicuous part in the European War. These are set out in detail in the Indian Year Book for 1922 and earlier editions (q. v. pp. 202 *et seq.*).

Personnel, 1927

DIRECTOR.

Captain E. J. Headlam, O.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O., R.I.M.

(The Director, R.I.M., advises the Government of India on all maritime matters. Is also Principal Naval Transport Officer, East Indies.)

DEPUTY DIRECTOR.

Capt. H. Morland, R.I.M.

FINANCIAL ADVISER.

R. E. Odling, Esq.

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT TO THE DIRECTOR, R. I. M.

E. O. Carey, Esq.

OFFICERS.

Captains	9
Commanders	19
Lieutenant-Commanders, Lieutenants, Sub-Lieutenants and Midshipmen ..	51
Engineer-Captain	1
Engineer-Commanders	7
Engineer-Lieutenant-Commanders, Engineer-Lieutenants and Engineer-Sub Lieutenants	42

WARRANT OFFICERS.

Boatswains, European	11
Clerks	12
Boatswains, Indian	10
Engine Driver	1

PRITY OFFICERS AND MEN

Who are mostly recruited from the Ratnagiri District of the Bombay Presidency.

SHIPS.

Sloop Minesweeping ..	R. I. M. S. Olive	..	2,100 tons	..	2,422	Horse Power
Sloop	Cornwallis	..	1,740	..
Sloop Minesweeping	Lawrence	..	1,413	..
Surveying Ship	Investigator	..	1,355	..
Depot Ship	Palinurus	..	638	..
Patrol Ship	Dalhousie	..	1,650	..
..	Pathan	..	832	..
..	Baluchi	..	755	..
					3,500	S. H. P.
					3,500	..

In addition to the above there are 37 vessels composed of steam trawlers, service launches, target towing tugs, military service launches, distributed at Bombay, Calcutta, Aden, Rangoon and Karachi.

Dockyards.

There were two Royal Indian Marine Dockyards at Bombay and at Calcutta, the former being the more important. The one at Calcutta has been closed. There are 5 graving docks and a wet basin at Bombay, together with factories.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS, BOMBAY DOCK YARD.

R. I. M. Officers.

Commander of the Yard, Comdr. R. H. Garstin, O B.E., R.I.M.

Engineer Manager, Engineer-Captain W. A. Williams, R.I.M.

Marine Store Officer, Engineer-Commander W. W. Collins, R.I.M.

1st Assistant to the Engineer Manager, Engineer Lieutenant-Commander T. Kerr, D.S.O.

2nd Assistant to the Engineer Manager, Engineer Lieutenant J. H. Mackay, R.I.M.

Maintenance Officer, Lieutenant-Commander G. T. D Wells, R.I.M.

Civilian Officers.

Constructor, Mr. W. J. Kershett.

Assistant Constructor, Mr. W. G. J. Francis.

Medical Staff.

Marine Surgeon, Lieutenant-Colonel A. N. Thomas, D.S.O., I.M.S.

Warrant Officer in Medical Charge, Dockyard Dispensary, Assistant Surgeon J. B. D'Souza, I.M.D.

R. I. M. Warrant Officers.

Boatswain of the Yard, Mr. A. H. Lovett, M.B.E., Boatswain, R.I.M.

Boatswain-in-Charge, Arsenal Stores, Mr. P. O'Hara, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Master-at-Arms, Dockyard Police, Mr. H. J. Downing, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Master-at-Arms, Dockyard Police, Mr. G. Mattison, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Police Boatswain, Mr. Sk. Kadir Sk. Jainoo Boatswain, R.I.M.

Police Boatswain, Mr. Sk. Mahamad Sk. Bhicoo, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Marine Transport Appointments,

Bombay.

Divisional Marine Transport Officer, Com-

M P Coops R.I.M.

Assistant Marine Transport Officer, 1st Grade Lieutenant-Commander A. R. Rattray, R.I.M.

Assistant Marine Transport Officer, 2nd Grade, Lieutenant H. R. Luigs-Jones, R.I.M.

Appointments.

In addition to the regular appointments in the ships of the Royal Indian Marine, and in the R. I. M. Dockyards, the following appointments under local Governments are held by the officers of the Royal Indian Marine:—

BOMBAY.

Port Officer, Assistant Port Officer, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and 2nd, 3rd and 4th Engineers and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bombay.

CALCUTTA.

Port Officer, Deputy Port Officer and Deputy Shipping Master, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd, 3rd and 4th Engineers and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bengal

NARAYANGINJ (Bengal).

Engineer Superintendent, Government Dock yard.

BURMA

Principal Port Officer, Burma, 1st and 2nd Assistant Port Officers, Rangoon. Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and Superintending Engineer to the Government of Burma. Assistant to the Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and Superintending Engineer to the Government of Burma and Engineer Superintendent of Government Vessels in Lower Burma.

MANDALAY.

Superintending Engineer.

AKYAB.

Port Officer.

BASSEIN.

Port Officer.

MOULMEIN.

Port Officer.

CHITTAGONG.

Port Officer and Engineer and Ship Surveyor

MADRAS.

Presidency Port Officer and Deputy Conservator of the Port.

ADEN.

Port Officer.

KARACHI.

Port Officer, Assistant Marine Transport Officer and Engineer and Ship Surveyor.

PORT BLAIR.

Engineer and Harbour Master.

THE ROYAL INDIAN NAVY.

The official announcement of the proposal to reconstruct the Royal Indian Marine as a Government department, to be called the Royal Indian Navy, was made by the Viceroy in the Council of State in February, 1926. He said that the creation of an Indian Navy had been under the consideration of the Government of India for some time past, and the intention of Government to take measures was strengthened by the recommendations of the Mercantile Marine Committee to reorganise the Royal Indian Marine on the lines of a component naval service. After consulting several naval experts the Government of India appointed a committee to formulate definite proposals.

The following were the members of the Committee: President.—General Lord Rawlinson, is
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is

Sir E. N. Mitra, member of the Council of the Governor-General of India; Mr. E. Burdon, Secretary to the Government of India, Marine Department; Capt. E. J. Headlam, Director of the Royal Indian Marine.

The Committee met at Delhi during February 1926 and prepared their report which was approved in draft form by the late Lord Rawlinson before his death in March 1925. It stated generally: "The scope of the task entrusted to us is to draw up a scheme for the purpose of putting into effect a policy defined in the following formula: 'The reconstruction of the Royal Indian Marine as a component force to enable India to enter upon the first stage of her own naval development, and ultimately to undertake her own naval defence.'

Our terms of reference arranged for convenience in the order in which we shall deal with them are as follows:—

To prepare a scheme for the reorganization of the Royal Indian Marine so as to form the nucleus of an Indian Navy with special reference to (1) the functions to be ultimately performed by the Indian Navy and the methods of employment with a view to its undertaking those functions. (2) The number and class of vessels that can be maintained with available budget allotment. (3) Recruitment, strength, training and conditions of service of personnel. (4) Relations between the higher command of the Indian Navy, the Government of India and the Commander-in-Chief, East Indies, including the proposed employment of a Chief Naval Staff, India. (5) Provision for and maintenance of vessels including the continuance or abolition of the Royal Indian Marine Dockyard."

A Sea-going Force.—The Committee observes that by far the most important aspect of the new force in its early stages will be its duty as a training squadron. The new personnel will need to be thoroughly trained in gunnery, mine sweeping, harbour defence and seamanship. In this connection we cannot insist too strongly on ships of the Indian Navy becoming from the first a sea-going force.

Efficiency and enthusiasm alike will melt away if the new navy remains in port and practices nothing but harbour defence. A valuable service which we think that the Indian navy should be able to undertake in the near future will be the responsibility for policing the Persian Gulf in peace time, by which means the three vessels maintained in those waters by the Imperial Government will be set free of other duties at present performed by the Royal Indian Marine. We consider that the Marine survey should be retained, as its work in peace and war is essential for fighting sea service. Control of station ship, at Aden, Port Blair, Bangkok and the Persian Gulf, to attend to the conveyance of corps and officials and to supervise the work of lighting and buoying in adjacent waters should not be a function of the new navy. Retention of these responsibilities would not be, in our opinion, compatible with development of a fighting force. The work of carrying troops can be contracted for commercially at rates which could hardly fail to be cheaper than existing arrangements. The new service should also be responsible for marine transport at present carried out by the Royal Indian Marine. The cost of storage and maintenance in this connection will be a charge against the Indian Navy.

Peace Time Functions.—The functions of the new Indian Navy in peace time will therefore be as follows: (a) Training of personnel for service in war; (b) Services required by the Indian Government in the Indian Ocean and Persian Gulf; (c) organization of the naval defences at the ports which are under the control of the Indian Government; (d) survey work in the Indian Ocean; (e) Marine transport work for the Government of India.

We recommend that in accordance with its new functions the service should be known as the Royal Indian Navy and should fly the White Ensign, which is the recognised flag of the naval fighting forces of the Empire.

As regards the number and class of vessels the Committee says: "On the assumption that these will be the functions of the Indian Navy we consider that a squadron of four sloops, two patrol craft vessels, four trawlers and two survey ships, together with one depot ship, as already suggested, would suffice to begin with."

The Committee estimate that the net annual cost of maintaining such a force would amount at first approximately to Rs. 63 lakhs. This figure is exclusive of the following items: (1) Rs. 12,50,000 cost of lighting and station ships which should be met from lighting fees and debited to other departments. At present two lakhs of this expenditure is debited to political estimates and the remaining ten and a half lakhs to marine estimates. (2) Rs. 4,00,000 for military launches which will be included in military estimates. (3) Rs. 1,14,000 on account of transport establishment, hitherto debited to His Majesty's Government. (4) Pension charges for ratings which will be a negligible figure for the first few years.

The Committee then refer to the estimates of the last two under marine department and observe that, taking the present cost of the Royal Indian Marine to be an average of the years 1924-25 and 1925-26 the annual cost of the proposed forces would compare as follows:

Royal Indian Marine total net cost,
Rs. 51,62,000.

Net annual cost of Indian Navy, Rs. 62,60,000.

The cost on lighting and station ships and military launches would remain the same, namely, Rs. 16,50,000. Thus the excess of the annual cost in respect of the Indian Navy over that of the Royal Indian Marine would be Rs. 10,98,000. This excess, however, is likely to be reduced to a considerable extent by the leasing of dockyards and still further it, as is contemplated, the Government of India institute a system for the levy of fees for lighting on shipping companies.

Apart from recurring expenditure the Committee estimate that there will be initial expenses, assuming that new sloops will be provided by the Home Government on loan to the Indian Navy costing nine lakhs.

The Establishment.—The following establishment of officers and warrant officers will be required:—Flag-Officer Commanding, 1; Captains, 9; Commanders, 18; Lieut.-Commanders, 18; Lieuts. and Sub-Lieuts., 48; Midshipmen, 8; Boatswains, 22; Engineer Capt., 1; Engineer Commanders, 7; Engineer Lieut.-Commanders, Engineer Lieut., and Engineer Sub-Lieuts., 42; Assistant Surgeons, 10; Clerks 12.

The figures for the executive and engineer officers include provision for the following port appointments as Calcutta, Rangoon, Madras, Bombay, Karachi and Aden:—Captains, 5; Commanders, 6; Lieut.-Commander, 1; Engineer Commanders, 8; Engineer Lieut.-Commanders, 10; Boatswain, 1.

Commissions for Indians.—The nature of the Commissions to be granted to officers in the Indian Navy is of importance. We recommend that King's Commissions similar to those now held by officers in the Royal Indian Marine be granted to British and Indian officers alike. Commissions should confer an authority limited to the force in which they are granted, namely the Royal Indian Navy. We strongly deprecate the use of any form of commission which might convey the impression that the officers of the Indian Navy held a purely subordinate status, such as is held by the Viceroy's commissioned officers in the Indian Army. With the proposed initial strength of the force the recruitment of executive officers will be required at a rate of about three a year. We agree generally with Admiral Richmond's recommendation that British and Indian boys should enter by competition at the age of 18 exactly in the same way as public school cadets are now taken into the Royal Navy.

Recruitment of Cadets.—We also agree with the proposal that Indian cadets should be mainly recruited through the Prince of Wales College, Dehra Dun. The examination for the cadetship would be held simultaneously in England and in India. One appointment

every year should be reserved for an Indian boy either from Dehra Dun or an English public school, subject to reaching a minimum qualifying standard in examination. For some time at any rate standard of education at Dehra Dun will be appreciably lower than at an English public school. It will, therefore, probably be necessary to raise the age limit for Indians recruited from Dehra Dun to the Indian Navy from 18 to 19 years on the analogy of a similar rule which already obtains in the case of Indian cadets for the Army. As the age of study at Dehra Dun is 12 to 18 it is likely that several years will elapse before any Indian cadets enter the navy from that institution. We do not see how this can be avoided. Cadetship should, however, be open to Indian boys at English public schools from the beginning. We understand that there is a considerable number of these, some of whom might be attracted towards the service in the Indian Navy. On passing the examination British and Indian cadets should undergo a course of two years training in royal technical schools in the United Kingdom. On the completion of their training cadets would be given their commissions in the Indian Navy and would proceed to join a squadron in Indian waters.

Technical Training.—We have considered the possibility of conducting initial technical training in India but this would entail very great expenditure on establishment, and would reduce to the vanishing point the funds available for ships. It occurs to us that Indian entrants into the navy via Dehra Dun will normally have no sea experience whatever before passing their entrance examination into the Navy and that if they are then sent straight to the United Kingdom and made to undergo sea training in small vessels in home waters there is a possibility of undue discouragement. We therefore propose that candidates for the Indian Navy in the last two years of their education at Dehra Dun would be given opportunities for short cruises and some sea training in ships of the training squadron for officers and warrant officers of the new service.

We do not propose any departure from the rates of pay and pension now drawn by officers of the Royal Indian Marine. These rates were revised in 1920 and are in our view likely to prove suitable. We need not, therefore, complicate our scheme for reorganization by introducing any proposals under this head. Ratings will be drawn from the same class and in the same manner as lascars are at present recruited for the Royal Indian Marine. The rates of pay will also be the same, but provision will have to be made for pensions and for furlough. We are confident that this class will provide suitable material for manning a combatant force and that if the terms of service are made attractive they will be forthcoming.

It might be found advisable to open up new fields of recruitment on the Malabar coast, Coromandel coast, at Chittagong and elsewhere. The training of recruits which will also include educational training will be carried out at Bombay in depot ship and the training squadron. It will be necessary in the initial stages to obtain the services of two specialist officers, (gunnery and minesweeping) to supervise the training of recruits. We have considered the

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would be o. any value.

We recommend that engineer officers should be recruited for the Royal Indian Navy in precisely the same manner as they now are for the Royal Indian Marine, that is to say, appointments are made by the Secretary of State for India. A candidate must have served at least five years as an apprentice in a recognized engineering firm or a Government dockyard. A candidate must not be less than 21 or more than 28 years of age. In order to facilitate the entry of Indians into this branch of the service we recommend that the Government of India should give financial assistance to suitable Indian candidates who are anxious to undergo the necessary training and qualify for selection. This assistance might take the form, after the of passage concessions and payment of premia to engineering firms and Government might also exert their influence to induce such firms to take Indians as apprentices. One vacancy in three should also be definitely reserved for an Indian if a suitable candidate is forthcoming. The terms of service should remain as at present. The port engineering appointments mentioned will continue to be available for promotion of these officers."

The report then discusses the important question of the command: "We propose that the command of the force should be vested in a flag-officer with the title of 'Flag Officer Commanding.' This officer should be appointed from the Royal Navy at first, but later on the appointment should normally be held by an officer of the Indian Navy. We prefer the title of Flag Officer Commanding to that of Chief of the Naval Staff as more descriptive of his status and duties. 'Chief-of-Staff' implies an advisory position without executive powers. The tenure of office in our opinion should be for a minimum period of three years. In the early stages an Indian Navy could be administered by a single commander with a small staff. The simpler the organisation the more economically will it be controlled."

In his relation to the Government of India the officer commanding should be in a position

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Offi Command g the Royal Air Force, that is to say he should be subordinate to the Commander-in-Chief in India in the latter's capacity of minister of defence and responsible to him for the administration and efficiency of the Navy. Like the Air Officer Commanding, he should also have the right of personal access to the Viceroy for the purpose of consultation on important questions relating to the Navy.

His headquarters should be in Bombay but we propose that he should be at liberty to pay periodical visits to the headquarters of the Government of India in order to confer with the marine department.

In war time unity of command is essential, and we therefore recommend in war the ships and the personnel of the Indian Navy should automatically come under the direct control of the Commander-in-Chief, East India for this reason as well as others we think it desirable that the post of Flag Officer Commanding should never be held by an officer senior on the navy list to the Naval Commander-in-Chief."

Leasing of Dockyard.—As regards the maintenance of vessels, etc., the Committee state: "We have considered very carefully the question of the dockyard. There are three possibilities open to the Government of India. First to sell the yard outright; second to retain it under their own management, third to lease it for a term of years to a private firm. We have no hesitation in rejecting the idea of a sale."

After examining all suggestions the Committee state: "We recommend that the dockyard be offered for lease, and we consider that the lease should be for a period of fifteen years in the first instance. An essential condition should be that work for the Indian Navy should be given priority whenever required. The rent, however, of ships of the Indian Navy should not be a perquisite of this yard, but should be open to competitive tenders. The existence of other yards in Calcutta and Colombo and of Mazagaon Dockyard in Bombay itself should act as a safeguard against monopoly and consequent inflation of charges."

Finance.

Indian finance has undergone such remarkable changes during the last few years that some general introduction of the present position is required. Originally there was one budget for the whole of India, the provinces receiving ex- and
in power, it was obvious that these conditions could not continue, and there developed a long struggle between the Provinces and the Government of India, the former claiming a larger share of the revenues raised within their borders and greater freedom in the spending of them, and

the Government of India, perhaps not unnaturally, striving to retain its control. But by degrees the situation was improved into a working arrangement made between the Government and the provinces, an important element in these contracts being the division of certain heads of revenue between the Province and the Government of India, so as to give the Provinces as the tax collecting agency an incentive to develop revenues to a reasonable extent. Later, the provinces were given the product of certain fixed heads of revenue instead of the

on the Government of India. But when the scheme on these lines was drawn it was found that the Government of India was insufficiently provided with money to carry out its responsibilities. The deficiency was 988 lakhs of rupees. It was very difficult to adjust this contribution equitably amongst the provinces concerned, because under the various settlements effected there was a wide disparity between the conditions of the various provinces. Ultimately the following decision was arrived at, with machinery for the gradual extinction of the provincial contributions. If ever the Government of India was in the happy position to be able to do without the funds,

In the financial year 1921-22 contributions shall be paid to the Governor General in Council by the local governments mentioned below according to the following scale :—

Name of Province.	Contributions (In lakhs of rupees).
Madras	348
Bombay	56
Bengal	53
United Provinces	240
Punjab	178
Burma	64
Central Provinces and Berar	22
Assam	15

From the financial year 1922-23 onwards a total contribution of 988 lakhs, or such smaller sum as may be determined by the Governor General in Council, shall be paid to the Governor General in Council by the local Governments mentioned in the preceding rule. When for any year the Governor General in Council determines as the amount of the contribution a smaller sum than that payable for the preceding year, a reduction shall be made in the contribution of those local Governments only whose last previous annual contribution exceeds the proportion specified below of the smaller sum so determined as the total contribution; and any reduction so made shall be proportionate to such excess:—

Madras	17—90ths
Bombay	13—90ths
Bengal	12—90ths
United Provinces	12—90ths
Punjab	9—90ths
Burma	64—90ths
Central Provinces and Berar	5—90ths
Assam	15—90ths

It was from the first recognised by those who took a long view of Indian finance that this arrangement could only be temporary. The allocation of revenues as between the Federal Government and the Provinces created an open sore the Provinces never ceased to protest against

contributions to the central revenues which the attributed were inequitable and impracticable in several cases without reducing the whole standard of the administration. Moreover a superficial examination of these contributions and their distribution as between Province and Province seemed to indicate a scandalous inequality. In practice these were not so marked as they seemed, for instance although Bombay only contributed Rs. 56 lakhs a year, and Madras Rs. 348, the customs of the Provincial finances argued that Madras was much better off than Bombay. The point put before the Statutory Commission in 1919, and thereafter pressed on the Government of India was, that there could be no peace until these contributions were abolished altogether. This view was accepted, and as soon as funds became available the Government of India set about the work. First Bengal was excused its contribution altogether. Then in the financial year 1923-24 substantial remissions were made to all the Provinces in accordance with the principle outlined above. As they did not greatly benefit Bombay, and to a lesser extent Burma special contributions were made to the lands of those Provinces. Then in the year 1926-27 no demands were made on the Provinces under this head. The Government of India at first whilst regarded as its permanent surplus revenue largely to reduce the contributions. Then it used its actual budget surplus in order to wipe out the balance. True, no assurance was given that this would be a permanent arrangement yet for all practical purposes it meant that the Provincial contributions as fixed under the settlements of 1919 were wiped off the slate.

But this did not end the discussion; indeed it was only the first phase. A large issue remains, and despite the extinction of the Provincial contributions the finances of some of the Provinces are in an unsatisfactory state. Broadly the issue may be put in this way. The Government of India has taken the growing heads of revenue those which issue from taxes on income and customs. The Provinces are left with resources which are either almost static, like land revenue, or which are actually declining, as with excise where steps are being taken to reduce the consumption of alcoholic liquor in response to the strong Indian sentiment towards prohibition. At the same time the Provinces are confronted with the great growing sources of expenditure, like those on education and sanitation which bulk largely in Provincial budgets. The burden is heaviest in the industrial provinces, such as Bombay and Bengal. The standard of living is high, wages and costs are a good deal above those of the agricultural provinces. This means an expensive administration. On the other hand the industrial progress which induces this costlier administration pours all its taxable product into the coffers of the Government of India. Rules made to give Bombay and Bengal some share in the Income Tax receipts have been inoperative in practice. While therefore relief is felt at the abolition of the Provincial contributions under the 1919 settlement, it is felt that this does not solve the problem. It is all this pressure from the taxes on income can put the industrial Provinces on a satisfactory basis.

Railway Finance. The Finance Department has marked by another step the importance of the railway as a national asset. Under the section Railways (v.e.) the Government of India is a great railway owner. It owns and operates itself a very large proportion of the railway system through what are called State Railways; it is the principal shareholder in other lines which are leased to Companies which operate them. Prior to the year in question, the railway finances were incorporated in the general finances of the country. The effects of this were unfortunate. As the finances of a State are not managed on a separate basis, they were not conducted on a separate basis. Then the annual railway expenditure were not determined by the needs of the railways themselves but by the amount at the disposal of the Government of India. The evil effects of this policy were forcibly exposed in the report of a strong committee of investigation, usually called after the name of its chairman, the Acworth Committee, which recommended the entire separation of the Railway Budget from the general finances. Some delay incurred in giving effect to this recommendation, but it was carried out in the year 1924-25. The bases of the settlement were complete separation of finance: a definite annual contribution from the railway revenues to the general revenues; and the creation of a Standing Finance Committee of the Legislative Assembly to review estimates of railway expenditure before they are placed before the Assembly. The railway contribution was settled on the basis of one per cent. on the capital at charge, plus one-fifth of the surplus profits further, after the payment of the contributions so fixed the amount available for transfers to Railway Reserves exceed the sum of Rs. 3 crores, one-third of the excess should be paid to the General Revenues. The effects of this change are expected to yield to the General Revenues a fixed contribution from the railway property instead of a varying figure destructive of accurate budgeting, and to give to the railways the usufruct of their operation and secure management and development on commercial principles.

I. Recent Indian Finance.

The year 1924 marked a distinct and very important stage in the finances of India. Those who have studied the history of Indian finance will remember the general trend of the country's balance sheet. Up to the outbreak of the war it was a record of very careful finance, with a general surplus of revenue over expenditure, all such surpluses, save when they were in the nature of "windfalls" going to the avoidance of debt. Throughout the war the finances were carefully handled and with certain moderate increases in taxation the mending in 1919 a lamentable change came over the situation. The wanton invasion of India by Afghanistan meant a war which cost the exchequer directly some 24 crores of rupees. Nor was this all. Whilst the military resistance of Afghanistan to the Indian forces was contemptible, and Kabul lay open to easy seizure if it had been thought worth while to occupy it, the effect of this attack was to set a large part of the North-West Frontier ablaze and to thrust on the Government of India a

so costly expenditure. When he was asked the question, "What has been the place of that which collapsed in 1919?" This especially in the notoriously troublesome country of Waziristan, (p. 2. Frontier) involved the occupation of certain dominating posts and of connecting them with each other and with the advanced military stations of India by a series of very expensive roads. This abnormal expenditure dislocated the financial equilibrium of the whole country. Nor is it possible to acquit the Finance Department of the Government of India in the difficult post-war period of a relaxation of that close control of expenditure which in previous years had balanced the accounts, even in the years of famine and plague. The result was that the accumulated deficits of the Government of India reached the very high figure of Rs. 100 crores. This led to two results.

Retrenchment and Taxation.—Bowing to the insistent demand for retrenchment the Government of India appointed in 1922 a retrenchment committee, on the model of the Geddes Committee which overhauled the extravagant post-war expenditure of the British Government. This committee is generally called after its chairman, the Inchcape Committee. It sat in 1922, and presented a report which recommended reductions in expenditure which amounted in the aggregate to Rs. 18 crores. Then in the Budget of 1923 it sought for further sources of revenue which would, according to the then estimates, produce funds which would permanently balance the accounts. The source of these additional funds was the Salt Tax, which it was proposed should be doubled from one rupee four annas to two rupees eight annas a maund of 82 pounds. The circumstances were unusual. The Salt Tax is always unpopular in India. The public was so alarmed at the growth of expenditure and the increase in taxation that its representatives in the Legislatures were not disposed to place further funds at the disposal of the Government until the possibilities of economy had been fully explored. Then the first Assembly elected under the Constitution of 1919 was approached at the end of its term of office. That Assembly had voted increased taxes, direct and indirect, amounting to approximately Rs. 69 crores per annum. The members felt that they had done their utmost and that they could not face their constituents after agreeing to a further increase in taxation and that in a most unpopular form. The rise in the Salt Tax was rejected by the Legislative Assembly. It was however accepted by the upper chamber, the Council of State, and acting on the advice of his Financial Ministers, the Viceroy "certified" the higher Salt Duty under the Government of India Act of 1919. The effect of this measure was seen when the next elections were held. It is not open to doubt that this "certification" of the higher Salt Tax had a powerful influence in returning to the Legislative Assembly towards the end of the year a majority of Swarajists and Independents who were on the whole hostile to the form of Government established in the Act of 1919.

Equilibrium Established Fortunate Imperial Revenue and Expenditure for the
 financial equilibrium was established and a surplus was left with the Reserve and Contingency Funds at the end of the year 1914-15.

(In thousands of Rupees)

		Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus(+) Deficit(-)
1914-15	..	76,15,35	78,82,14	-2,67,79
1915-16	..	80,00,98	81,79,26	-1,78,30
1916-17	..	98,53,10	87,31,37	+11,21,73
1917-18	..	1,18,70,58	1,08,57,52	+12,13,06
1918-19	..	1,30,40,86	1,33,13,72	-5,73,08
1919-20	..	1,37,13,98	1,60,79,27	-23,65,29
1920-21	..	1,35,33,32	1,61,64,17	-26,00,85
1921-22	..	1,15,21,50	1,42,80,52	-27,65,02
1922-23	..	1,21,41,39	1,36,48,05	-15,01,76
1923-24	..	1,33,16,33	1,30,77,83	+2,39,00
1924-25	..	1,38,03,02	1,32,35,86	+5,68,26
1925-26	..	1,33,32,98	1,30,01,80	+3,31,18

Statement comparing the actual Revenue and Expenditure of the Central Government

II. THE PRESENT FINANCIAL POSITION.

The financial position disclosed at the end of the year 1925-26 was a strong one. Trade was on the whole good, although cotton suffered from variations in prices and the expenditure was kept down. The actual result was at the close of the year the Government was left with a surplus of Rs. 3,10 lakhs.

This clears the way for an examination of the Budget for 1927-28. This too was based on the assumption that it would be a normal year. The revenue was estimated at Rs. 128-96 crores; the expenditure was placed at Rs. 125-26 crores; leaving a surplus on the existing basis of taxation of Rs. 3-70 crores.

Changes in Taxation.—Certain changes in the incidence of taxation were however proposed. The first of these was the abolition of the export duty on hides, which had been condemned by competent authority. The second was the abolition of the export duty on tea, but as this was accompanied by an increase in the income tax assessment on profits, the actual yield was expected to be about the same. Next it was proposed to reduce the duty on motor cars from 30 to 20 per cent, and on tyres from 30

to 15 per cent. This dealt with a real grievance. No motor car, no motor tyre, is produced in India, and the duty was not therefore protective. Admitting these are commodities which might legitimately pay a contribution to the general revenues, there was a strong feeling that the rate of duty was much too high. A minor change was the placing on the free list of rubber seeds and stumps which was done to meet the case of the rubber industry, especially in Burma. And finally the abolition of the stamp duty on cheques and on other Bills of Exchange payable on demand. The purpose lying behind this proposal was to develop the banking habit in India. It has long been recognised that the currency difficulties of the Government of India will be reduced as the banking habit is developed, and that this growth will not be as rapid as it should be so long as the cheque duty is retained. Then in connection with the general policy of the Government, especially in the direction of the currency, it is desirable to make Bills as cheap as possible. It was anticipated that the surplus would be reduced to Rs. 3-64 crores.

Provincial Contributions

su p u s of R 364
 Fin n al A u h o r i a s a g d d b h
 wa the f de d d to d o t e t to the p e r m a n e n t r e d u c t i o n of the P r o v i n c i a l c o n t r i b u t i o n s o n the f i x e d s c a l e s e t o u t a b o v e . The s u m w a s n o t h o w e v e r l a r g e e n o u g h t o e n a b l e the G o v e r n m e n t t o m a k e a c l e a n s w e e p of t h e s e c o n t r i b u t i o n s , s o t h e y d e c i d e d t o d r a w o n the s u r p l u s of the p r e v i o u s y e a r t o r e m i t the b a l a n c e . The e f f e c t of t h i s p o l i c y i s s h o w n i n the f o l l o w i n g t a b l e :—

	(Lakhs.)	Non-recurring remission.	Recurring remission.
Madras	1.16	49	
Bombay	19	27	
Bengal	9	54	
U. P.	99	52	
Punjab	60	23	
Burma	31	19	
C. P.	8	14	
Assam	8	7	
TOTAL	250	258	

But even this did not finally meet the case of Bombay, so a further special allocation was made to that Province of Rs. 28 lakhs. When all these allocations were made, there was left a balance of Rs. 1.01 crores, which was kept in reserve to meet any special expenses connected with the establishment of a Reserve Bank and the inauguration of the Gold Bullion Standard.

Ways and Means.—Before proceeding to consider the reception of the Budget there is an important element to be examined, what is called the Ways and Means section of the Budget. As this reflects the very large capital commitments of the Government of India it is in some respects more important than the revenue account. Here again a position of great strength is disclosed in the following figures—

	Revised, Budget, 1926-27.	1927-28.
Liabilities.		
Railway Capital Outlay	27.0	25.0
Other capital outlay (including Delhi, Posts and Telegraph, Vizagapatam Harbour). .. .	2.0	2.2
Provincial Governments' transactions	8.9	6.4
Discharge of debt (net)	57.0	20.5
	74.9	54.1

	Rs.	Budget 1926-27	Budget 1927-28
Postal Cash Certificates	28.0	27.0	
Other unfunded debt (including Postal Savings Bank) .. .	6.1	5.1	
Debt redemption	6.8	6.2	
Depreciation and Reserve Funds	5.1	5.2	
Exchange (net)	6.1	2.7	
Miscellaneous	10.4	5	
Reduction of cash balance	1.4	—2.2	
	10.2	10.5	
	74.9	54.1	

Reception of the Budget.—A Budget of this character offered few targets of criticism in itself; consequently the rather acid controversy which arose sprang from extraneous influences. It is explained in some detail in the section on Indian currency and exchange that the Royal Commission on this question recommended the stabilisation of the rupee at one shilling and sixpence. There was in some parts of the country strong opposition to this movement, and a desire for a reversion to the older ratio of one shilling and fourpence, or fifteen rupees to the pound. The Budget was based on the assumption that the rupee would be stabilised at one and six hence the financial authorities were charged with prejudging the issue—with working on this supposition before the Legislature had had an opportunity of expressing its views.

The duty on hides was given, many on the ground that the duty gave some protection to the indigenous tanning industry. The Legislature also voted the following reductions in the grants provided for in the Budget—Railway Board Rs. 9,42,902, Executive Council Rs. 59,999, Army Department Rs. 6,89,000. This action needs a little explanation.

The cut in the provision for the Railway Board was the expression of dissatisfaction with the body in the rank of that the failure to against the cut in the vote for the Executive Council was a protest against the failure of the Government to expedite the progress of the Indian constitution. The reduction in the Army vote was made to register a protest against the suggestion of the Commander-in-Chief, and to a lesser extent of the Finance Member, that military expenditure had been reduced to the lowest possible point. The Governor-General therefore, in the exercise of his powers under the Government of India Act, decided, as essential to the discharge of his responsibility, to restore the following amounts—

	Demand	Rs.
1. Railway Board		Rs.
28. Executive Council		9,42,900
38. Army Department		59,999
In the Budget, as finally passed, the Net Revenue and Expenditure were estimated as follows:—		

	Rs.
Net Revenue	86,67,68,000
Net Expenditure	86,67,68,000

As compared with the Revised Estimate for 1926-27, these figures show a decrease of Rs. 93,45,000 in net revenue and expenditure, respectively.

Finance

In India.—									
(In crores of rupees)									
Loans	389.83	358.81	370.38	363.29
Treasury Bills in the hands of the public	21.59	2.12
Treasury Bills in the Paper Currency Reserve	49.65	49.65	49.65	49.65
Other Obligations—	23.20	24.79	25.64	27.23
Post Office Savings Banks	3.13	8.12	13.12	20.96
Cash Certificates	36.17	39.00	42.30	46.36
Provident Funds, etc.
Total Loans, etc.	111.07	430.58	420.03	417.94
Total Other Obligations	62.50	72.21	81.15	91.55
Total in India	473.57	482.79	501.18	512.49
(In millions of £)									
Loans	222.92	244.53	263.39	266.85
War Contribution	19.71	18.27	18.81	18.32
Capital value of liabilities undergoing redemption by way of terminable railway annuities	61.81	60.10	58.84	57.53
Provident Funds, etc.04	.13	.16	.21
Total in England	303.98	324.03	341.20	342.41
* Equivalent at 1s. 6d. to the Rupee	405.81	432.04	454.93	456.65
Total Debt	878.88	914.83	956.11	999.04
Productive { for Central Government	536.65	557.09	600.03	623.38
{ for Provinces	87.49	97.56	106.43	114.60
Total Productive	624.14	654.65	706.48	737.98
Unproductive	254.74	260.18	249.63	231.06
				201.7

The following demand by the Government of India for the year 1926-27 is estimated to be increased owing to the remittances to England have anticipated. The amount of India in the current year to be was estimated at £50 million on account of the Reserve. The present estimate is millions lower. One of the that, in order to enable the to have an adequate closing, b it will be necessary to incur a larger amount than provided. The total remittances required now estimated at £20,500,000 from Cash Certificates in the been unusually high and the is now expected to be about 1 latest information available possibility of further reductions of Provincial Government of these and other changes. The of the year is now estimated as in India and £14.49 millions.

Demand. Amount. Rs.

1925-26. 1926-27.

40.—Archaeology 50,00,000

1.—Railway Board 9,68,000

4.—Working Expenses—Administration 20,61,200

Of the demands for the year 1926-27, the Governor-General in Council has, under Section 67-A(7) of the Government of India Act, decided that the whole amount reduced under Demand No 1 and Rs 20 lakhs out of the amount reduced under Demand No. 4 are apportioned to the discharge of his responsibilities.

3. The estimates of revenue and expenditure now stand as follows:—

	Revised, 1925-26. Rs.	Budget, 1926-27. Rs.
Revenue ..	1,31,35,25,900	1,30,42,97,200
Expenditure charged to Revenue ..	1,30,04,87,000	1,30,37,66,200
Surplus ..	1,30,38,000	3,81,000

4. As regards the Ways and Means position, apart from the increased surplus in 1925-26 due to the abandonment of the proposed

5. Taking the two years 1925-26 and 1926-27 together, the present estimate of improvement of about Rs. 2 crores is earlier estimates presented to the Government. The closing balance on the 31st March 1926 was Rs. 15.62 crores in India and £14.49 millions in England.

6. The total amount of the proposed increase in the revenue of India for the year 1926-27 is estimated at Rs. 1,30,42,97,200.

7. The total amount of the proposed increase in the expenditure of India for the year 1926-27 is estimated at Rs. 1,30,37,66,200.

8. The total amount of the proposed increase in the surplus of India for the year 1926-27 is estimated at Rs. 3,81,000.

General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure.

	Accounts, 1925-26.	Revised Estimate, 1926-27.
REVENUE—		
Principal Heads of Revenue—		
Customs	47,77,95,040	47,69,71,000
Taxes on Income	15,65,93,439	15,65,48,000
Salt	6,32,06,778	6,70,00,000
Opium	4,14,09,681	4,18,91,000
Other Heads	2,12,69,871	2,26,42,000
TOTAL PRINCIPAL HEADS ..	76,24,44,718	76,70,11,000
Railways: Net Receipts (as per Railway Budget)	34,40,12,775	32,31,90,000
Irrigation: Net Receipts	12,08,397	9,75,000
Posts and Telegraphs: Net Receipts	86,35,239	48,92,000
Interest Receipts	4,21,95,320	3,31,48,000
Civil Administration	89,97,693	82,00,000
Currency and Mint	4,63,88,101	4,17,83,000
Civil Works	12,85,165	14,91,000
Public Works	54,15,372	55,97,000
Public Buildings	4,33,61,391	4,65,23,000
and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	6,24,08,848	5,17,61,000
Extraordinary Items	61,57,154	52,08,000
TOTAL REVENUE ..	1,33,32,98,658	1,29,97,48,000
DEFICIT
TOTAL ..	1,33,32,98,658	1,29,97,48,000

General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure—contd.

	Accounts, 1925-26.	Revised Estimate, 1926-27.	Budget Estimate, 1927-28.
EXPENDITURE—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direct Demands on the Revenues	5,57,50,207	4,54,41,000	4,30,30,000
Salt and other Capital outlay charged to Revenue.	7,18,044	8,30,000	18,79,000
Railways Interest and Miscellaneous Charges (as per Railway Budget)	23,51,00,208	26,86,55,000	29,48,05,000
Irrigation	20,15,352	18,52,000	18,70,000
Posts and Telegraph	1,01,88,731	78,90,000	84,61,000
Debt Services	18,54,24,642	18,68,69,000	15,74,34,000
Civil Administration	10,76,43,431	11,27,53,000	11,31,39,000
Currency and Mint	76,11,413	77,91,000	74,85,000
Civil Works	1,67,11,708	1,93,25,000	1,68,08,000
Miscellaneous	4,33,39,909	4,02,26,000	4,97,15,000
Military Services	63,39,37,045	60,20,22,000	58,72,49,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	15,68,108	1,72,000
Extraordinary Items	25,76,854	2,87,04,000	7,00,000
TOTAL EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE	1,30,01,80,471	1,29,97,48,000	1,25,25,65,000
SURPLUS	3,31,18,187
TOTAL	1,33,32,98,658	1,29,97,48,000	1,25,25,65,000

THE LAND REVENUE.

The principle underlying the Land Revenue system in India has operated from time immemorial. It may be roughly formulated thus—the Government is the supreme landlord and the revenue derived from the land is equivalent to rent. On strictly theoretical grounds, exception may be taken to this statement of the case. It serves, however, as a substantially correct description of the relation between the Government and the cultivator. The former gives protection and legal security. The latter pays for it according to the value of his holding. The official term for the method by which the Land Revenue is determined is "Settlement." There are two kinds of settlements in India—Permanent and Temporary. Under the former the amount of revenue has been fixed in perpetuity, and is payable by the landlord as distinguished from the actual cultivator. The Permanent Settlement was introduced into India by Lord Cornwallis at the close of the eighteenth century. It had the effect intended of converting a number of large revenue farmers in Bengal into landlords occupying a similar status to that of landowners in Europe. The actual cultivators became the tenants of the landlords. While the latter became solely responsible for the payment of the revenue, the former lost the advantage of holding from the State. This system has prevailed in Bengal since 1793 and in the greater part of Oudh since 1850. It also obtains in certain districts of Madras.

Temporary Settlements.

Elsewhere the system of Temporary Settlements is in operation. At intervals of thirty years, more or less, the land in a given district is subjected to a thorough economic survey, on

the basis of the trigonometrical and topographic surveys carried out by the Survey Department of the Government of India. Each village area, wherever the Temporary Settlement is in vogue, has been carefully mapped, property-boundaries accurately delineated, and records of rights made and preserved. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal the occupant does not enjoy these advantages. The duty of assessing the revenue of a district is entrusted to Settlement Officers, members of the Indian Civil Service specially delegated for this work. The duties of a Settlement Officer are thus described in Strachey's *India* (revised edition, 1911):—"He has to determine the amount of the Government demand and to make a record of all existing rights and responsibilities in the land. He has a staff of experienced subordinates, almost all of whom are natives of the country, and the settlement of the district assigned to him is a work which formerly required several years of constant work. The establishment of agricultural departments and other reforms have however led to much simplification of the Settlement Officer's proceedings, and to much greater rapidity in the completion of the Settlements. All the work of the settlement officer is liable to the supervision of superior officers; the assessments proposed by him require the sanction of the Government before they become finally binding; and his judicial decisions may be reviewed by the Civil Courts. It is the duty of the settlement officer to make a record of every right which may form the subject of future dispute, whether affecting the interests of the State or of the people. The intention is to alter nothing, but to maintain and place on record that which exists."

The Two Tenures.

Under the Temporary Settlement land tenures fall into two classes—peasant-holdings and landlord-holdings, or *Ryotwari* and *Zamindari* tenures. Broadly speaking, the difference between the two in a fiscal sense is that in *Ryotwari* tracts the ryot or cultivator pays the revenue direct; in *Zamindari* tracts the landlord pays on a rental assessment. In the case of the former, however, there are two kinds of *Ryotwari* holdings—those in which each individual occupant holds directly from Government, and those in which the land is held by village communities, the heads of the village being responsible for the payment of revenue on the whole village area. This latter system prevails in the North. In Madras, Bombay, Burma and Assam, *ryotwari* tenure is on an individual basis, and the Government enters into a separate agreement with every single occupant. The basis of assessment on all classes of holdings is now more favourable to the cultivator than it used to be. Formerly what was believed to be a fair average sum was levied on the anticipated yield of the land during the ensuing period of settlement. Now the actual yield at the time of assessment alone is considered, so that the cultivator gets the whole of the benefit of improvements in his holding subsequently brought about either by his own enterprise or by "unearned increment." The Government, however, may at a new settlement re-classify a holding so as to secure for itself a fair share in an increment that may have resulted from public works in the vicinity, such as canals and railways, or from a general enhancement of values. But the principle that improvements effected by private enterprise shall be exempt from assessment is now accepted by the Government and provided for in definite rules.

Incidence of the Revenue.

The incidence of the revenue charges varies according to the nature of the settlement, the class of tenure, and the character and circumstances of the holding. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal Government derive rather less than £8,000,000 from a total rental estimated at £12,000,000. Under Temporary Settlements, 50 per cent. of the rental in the case of *Zamindari* land may be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost falls as low as 35 and even 25 per cent and only rarely is the proportion of one-half the rental exceeded. In regard to *Ryotwari* tracts it is impossible to give any figure that would be generally representative of the Government's share. But one-fifth of the gross produce is the extreme limit; below which the incidence of the revenue charge varies greatly. About sixteen years ago the Government of India were invited in an influential signed memorial to fix one-fifth of the gross produce as the maximum Government demand. In reply to this memorial and other representations the Government of India (Lord Curzon being Viceroy) issued a Resolution in defence of their Land Revenue Policy. In it was stated that "under the existing practice the Government is already taking much less in revenue than it is now invited to exact" and "the average rate is ev—

on the down grade." This Resolution, together with the statements of Provincial Governments on which it was based, was published as a volume; it is still the authoritative exposition of the principles controlling the Land Revenue Policy of the Government of India. In a series of be established by following points are not tracts progressive moderation is the key-note of the Government's policy, and the standard of 50 per cent. of the assets is more often departed from on the side of deficiency than excess (2) in the same areas the State does not hesitate to interfere by legislation to protect the interests of the tenants against oppression at the hands of the landlords: (3) in *Ryotwari* tracts the policy of long-term settlements is being extended, and the proceedings in connection with new settlements simplified and cheapened; (4) local-taxation (of land) as a whole is neither immoderate nor burdensome; (5) over-assessment is not, as alleged, a general or widespread source of poverty, and it cannot fairly be regarded as a contributory cause of famine. At the same time the Government laid down as principles for future guidance—(a) large enhancements of revenue, when they occur, to be imposed progressively and gradually, and not *per saltum*; (b) greater elasticity in revenue collection, suspensions and remissions being allowed according to seasonal variations and the circumstances of the people (c) a more general resort to reduction of assessments in cases of local deterioration.

Protection of the Tenants.

In regard to the second of the five propositions noted above, various Acts have been passed from time to time to protect the interests of tenants against landlords, and also to give greater security to the latter in possession of their holdings. The Oudh Tenancy Act of 1886 placed important checks on enhancement of rent and eviction, and in 1900 an Act was passed enabling a landowner to entail the whole or a portion of his estate, and to place it beyond the danger of alienation by his heirs. The Punjab Land Alienation Act passed at the instance of Lord Curzon, embodied the principle that it is the duty of a Government which derives such considerable proportions of its revenue from the land to interfere in the interests of the cultivating classes. This Act greatly restricted the credit of the cultivator by prohibiting the alienation of his land in payment of debt. It had the effect of arresting the process by which the Punjab peasantry were becoming the economic serfs of money-lenders. A good deal of legislation affecting land tenure has been passed from time to time in other provinces; and it has been called for more than once in Bengal where under the Permanent Settlement (in the words of the Resolution quoted above), "so far from being generously treated by the *Zamindars*, the Bengal cultivator was rack-rented, impoverished, and oppressed."

Government and Cultivator.

While the Government thus interferes between landlord and tenant in the interests of the latter, its own attitude towards the cultivator is one of generosity. Mention has already been made of the great advantage to

the agricultural case generally of the aboriginal system of Land Survey and Record. The surveys carried out and maintained by Government. In the Administration Report of Bombay for 1911-12, it is stated:—"The Survey Department has cost the State from first to last many lakhs of rupees. But the outlay has been repaid over and over again. The extensions of cultivation which have occurred (by allowing cultivators to abandon unprofitable lands) have thus been profitable to the State no less than to the individual, whereas under a *Zemindari* or kindred system the State would have gained nothing, however much cultivation had extended throughout the whole of 30 years' leases." On the other hand, the system is of advantage to the ryots in reducing settlement operations to a minimum of time and procedure. In the collection of revenue the Government consistently pursues a generous policy. In times of dis-

ruption and mismanagement the grand principle of Land revenue is now a provincial head of revenue and is not shown in the All-India accounts. It may be taken roughly at £28 million, as compared with £84 million said to have been raised annually by Aurangzeb from a much smaller Empire. The literature of the subject is considerable. The following should be consulted by readers who require fuller information—"Land Revenue Policy of the Indian Government," 1902 (Superintendent of Government Printing); Baden Powell's "Land Systems of British India"; Sir John Strachey's "India, its Administration and Progress, 1911," (Macmillan & Co.); M. Joseph Chailley's "Administrative Problems of British India" (Macmillan & Co., 1910), and the Annual Administration Reports of the respective Provincial Governments.

EXCISE.

The Excise revenue in British India is derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp drugs, toddy and opium. It is a common place amongst certain sections of temperance reformers to represent the traffic in intoxicating liquors as one result of British rule. There is, however, abundant evidence to show that in pre-British days the drinking of spirituous liquors was commonly practised and was a source of revenue.

The forms of intoxicating liquor chiefly consumed are country spirit: fermented palm juice, beer made from grain; country brands of rum, brandy, etc., locally manufactured malt beer and imported wine, beer and spirits. Country spirit is the main source of revenue, except in the Madras Presidency, and yields about two-thirds of the total receipts from liquors. It is usually prepared by distillation from the *Mhowra* flower, molasses and other forms of unrefined sugar, fermented palm juice and rice. In Madras a very large revenue is derived from fresh toddy. The British inherited from the Native Administration either an uncontrolled Out-Still System or in some cases a crude Farming System and the first steps to bring these systems under control were the limitation of the number of shops in the area farmed, and the establishment of an improved Out-Still System under which the combined right of manufacture and sale at a special shop was annually granted. This of course was a kind of control, but it only enabled Government to impose haphazard taxation on the liquor traffic as a whole by means of vend fees. It did not enable Government to graduate the taxation accurately on the still-head duty principle nor to insist upon a standard of purity or a fixed strength of liquor. Moreover for political and other reasons the extent of control could not at first be complete. There were tribes of aborigines who regarded the privilege of making their own liquor in their private homes as a long established right and who believed that liquor poured as libations to their god should be such as had been made by their own hands. The introduction of any system amongst those peoples had to be very cautiously. Gradually as

the Administration began to be consolidated the numerous native pot-stills scattered all over the country under the crude arrangements then in force began to be collected into Central Government enclosures called Distilleries, thus enabling Government to perfect its control by narrowing the limits of supervision, and to regularize its taxation by imposing a direct still-head duty on every gallon issued from the Distillery. Under Distillery arrangements it has also been possible to regulate and supervise thoroughly the manufacture of its liquor and its disposal subsequent to leaving the Distillery by means of a system of transport passes, establishment supervision, improved distribution and vend arrangements.

Various Systems.

The Out-Still System may be taken to include all systems prior in order of development to the imposition of Still-head duty. Briefly stated the stages of development have been—First: farms of large tracts; Second: farms of smaller areas; Third: farms of the combined right to manufacture and sell at particular places without any exclusive privilege over a definite area; Fourth: farms of similar right subject to control of means and times for distilling and the like. The Provincial Governments have had to deal with the subject in different ways suited to local conditions, and so the order of development from the lower forms of systems to the higher has not been always everywhere identical in details. Yet in its essence and main features the Excise Administration in most provinces of British India has progressed on uniform lines the key note lying in attempts, where it has not been possible to work with the fixed duty system in its simplest forms, to combine the farming and fixed duty systems with the object of securing that every gallon of spirit should bear a certain amount of taxation. The Out-Still System has in its turn been superseded by either the Free-supply system or the District Monopoly system. The Free-supply system is one of free competition amongst the licensed distillers in respect of manufacture. The right of vend is

monopoly system on the other hand is one in which the combined monopoly of manufacture and sale in a district is leased to a farmer subject to a certain amount of minimum still-head duty revenue in the monopoly area being guaranteed to the State during the term of the lease.

The recommendations of the Indian Excise-Committee of 1905-06 resulted in numerous reforms in British India, one of them being that the various systems have been or are gradually being superseded by the Contract Distillery System under which the manufacture of spirit for supply to a district is disposed of by tender, the rate of still-head duty and the supply price to be charged are fixed in the contract and the right of vend is separately disposed of. This is the system that now prevails over the greater portion of British India. The other significant reforms have been the revision of the Provincial Excise Laws and Regulations, and the conditions of manufacture, vend, storage and transport, an improvement in the quality of the spirit, an improved system of disposal of vend licenses, reductions and re-distributions of shops under the guidance and control of Local Advisory Committees and gradual enhancement of taxation with a view to checking consumption.

Since the issue of the report of the Excise Committee 1905-06, no less than 213,000 square miles of territory were transferred from the out-still to the distilling system. In 1905-06 39 per cent. of the total excise area and 28 per cent. of the population of that area were served by out-stills, the proportions in 1912-13 were only 15 and 8 per cent respectively.

Excise has now been made over entirely to the Provincial Governments, and the duties vary from province to province. The governing principle in fixing these rates is the highest duty compatible with the prevention of illicit distillation. In the Bombay Presidency the issue of spirit to all country spirit shops has been rationed on the basis of consumption for the year 1920-21. From that consumption reduced to proof gallons, 10 per cent. is deducted in the case of shops in Bombay City and 5 per cent. elsewhere and the ration is then fixed for each shop according to the issues in the corresponding month of 1920-21. This is the most important step taken by the new Government to reduce consumption. Two large distilleries in the Presidency have been placed entirely under Government management, thus partially superseding the Contract Distilling system.

Sap of the date, palmyra, and coconut palms called toddy, is used as a drink either fresh or after fermentation. In Madras and Bombay the revenue is obtained from a fixed fee on every tree from which it is intended to draw the liquor and from shop license fees. In Bengal and Burma the sale of shop licenses is the sole form of taxation. Country brands of rum, and so-called brandies and whiskies, are distilled from grape juice, etc. The manufacture is carried out in private distilleries in various parts of India. A number of breweries has been established, mostly in the hills, for the manufacture of a light beer for and ump-

tion. The uniform fee of 8 annas per gallon is levied all over India at the time of issue.

Foreign liquor is subject to an import duty at the tariff rates, which are set out in the Customs Tariff (*q.v.*). It can only be sold under a license.

Since the war Brandy and Whisky have been manufactured in considerable quantities at Baroda.

The base used is the Mhowra flower. It is drunk in big towns as a substitute for German spirit, and is excised at tariff rates.

Drugs.—The narcotic products of the hemp plant consumed in India fall under three main categories, namely, ganja or the dry flowering tops of the cultivated female hemp plant charas, or the resinous matter which forms an active drug when collected separately; and bhang, or the dried leaves of the hemp plant whether male or female cultivated or uncultivated. The main features of the existing system are restricted cultivation under supervision, storage in Bonded Warehouses, payment of a quantitative duty before issue, retail sale under licenses and restriction on private possession. Licenses to retail all forms of hemp drugs are usually sold by auction. The sale of charas has been prohibited in the Bombay Presidency except Sindh from the 1st April 1922.

Opium.—Opium is consumed in all provinces in India. The drug is commonly taken in the form of pills; but in some places, chiefly on social and ceremonial occasions, it is drunk dissolved in water. Opium smoking also prevails in the City of Bombay and other large towns. The general practice is to sell opium from the Government Treasury, or a Central Warehouse, to licensed vendors. The right of retail to the public is sold by annual auction to one or several sanctioned shops. Further legislation against opium smoking in clubs and dens is now under contemplation.

The revenue from opium is derived mainly from exports of what is called provision opium to foreign countries and from the sale to Provincial Governments of excise opium for internal consumption in India. The entire quantity is now exported under the system of direct sales to Foreign and Colonial governments, the system of auction sales in Calcutta to traders for export to foreign countries having been stopped with effect from 7th April, 1926. In no case are exports permitted without an import certificate by the Government of the country of import as prescribed by the League of Nations.

It has been decided to reduce the total of the opium exported since the calendar year 1926 by 10 per cent annually in each subsequent year until exports are totally extinguished at the end of 1935.

Provincial Governments India at a fixed price auction. This opium is retailed to licensed vendors at rates fixed by the Provincial Governments and varying from Province to Province

The estimated opium revenue in 1927-28 is Rs 28,82,00,000

SALT

The salt revenue was inherited by the British Government from Native rule, together with a miscellaneous transit duty. These transit duties were abolished and the salt duty consolidated and raised. There are four great sources of supply; rock salt from the Salt Range and Kohat Mines in the Punjab; brine salt from the Sambhar Lake in Rajputana, salt brine condensed on the borders of the lesser Rann of Cutch; and sea salt factories in Bombay, Madras and at the mouth of the Indus.

The Salt Range mines contains an inexhaustible supply. They are worked in chambers excavated in salt strata, some of which are 250 feet long, 45 feet wide and 200 feet high. The Rajputana supply chiefly comes from the Sambhar Lake where brine is extracted and evaporated by solar heat. In the Rann of Cutch the brine is also evaporated by solar heat and the product is known as Baragan salt. Important works for the manufacture of this salt were opened in Dirangadhra State in 1923. In Bombay and Madras sea water is let into shallow pans on the sea-coast and evaporated by solar heat and the product sold throughout India. In Bengal the damp climate together with the large volume of fresh water from the Ganges and the Brahmaputra into

the Bay of Bengal render the manufacture of sea-salt difficult and the bulk of the supply both for Bengal and Burma, is imported from Liverpool, Germany, Aden, Bombay and Madras.

Broadly, one half of the indigenous salt is manufactured by Government Agency, and the remainder under license and excise systems. In the Punjab and Rajputana the salt manufactures are under the control of the Northern India Salt Department, a branch of the Commerce and Industry Department. In Madras and Bombay the manufactures are under the supervision of Local Governments. Special treaties with Native States permit of the free movement of salt throughout India, except from the Portuguese territories of Goa and Daman, on the frontiers of which patrol lines are established to prevent the smuggling of salt into British India.

From 1888-1903 the duty on salt was Rs. 2 8 per maund of 82 lbs. In 1903, it was reduced to Rs. 2; in 1905 to Rs. 1-8-0; in 1907 to Re. 1 and in 1910 it was raised to Rs. 1-4-0. The successive reductions in duty have led to a largely increased consumption, the figures rising by 25 per cent. between 1903-1908. In 1923 the duty was doubled bringing it again to Rs. 2-8. In 1924 it was reduced to Re. 1-4-0. The estimated salt revenue in 1926-27 is Rs. 7,00,00,000.

CUSTOMS.

The Import duties have varied from time to time according to the financial condition of the country. Before the Mutiny they were five per cent.; in the days of financial stringency which followed they were raised to 10 and in some cases 20 per cent. In 1875 they were reduced to five per cent. but the opinions of Free Traders, and the agitation of Lancashire manufacturers who felt the competition of the Indian Mills, induced a movement which led to the abolition of all customs dues in 1882. The continued fall in exchange compelled the Government of India to look for fresh sources of revenue and in 1894 five per cent. duties were reimposed, yarns and cotton fabrics being excluded. Continued financial stringency brought piece goods within the scope of the tariff, and after various expedients the demands of Lancashire were satisfied by a general duty of 3½ per cent. on all woven goods—an import duty on goods by sea, an excise duty on goods produced in the country. The products of the hand-loom are excluded. These excise duties are intensely unpopular in India, for reasons set out in the special article dealing with the subject. In 1910-11, in order to meet the deficit threatened by the loss of the revenue on opium exported to China, the silver duty was raised from 5 per cent. to 4d. an ounce, and higher duties levied on petroleum, tobacco, wines, spirits, and beer. These were estimated to produce £1 million annually.

The Customs Schedule was completely recast in the Budget of 1916-17 in order to provide additional revenue to meet the financial disturbance set up by the war. The general import tariff, which had been at the rate of 5 per cent. *ad valorem* since 1894 was raised to 7½ per cent.

ad valorem, except in the case of sugar; as India is the largest producer of sugar in the world the import duty on this staple was fixed at 10 per cent. There was also a material curtailment of the free list. The principal article of trade which was not touched was cotton manufactures. For the past twenty years the position has been that cotton twines and yarns of all kinds are free of duty while a duty at the rate of 3½ per cent. is imposed on woven goods of all kinds whether imported or manufactured in Indian mills. The Budget left the position as it stood. The Government of India would have been glad to see the tariff raised to 5 per cent. without any corresponding alteration of the excise, but were over-ruled by the Cabinet on the ground that this controversial matter must come up for discussion after the war. Finally the Budget imposed export duties on tea and jute. In the case of tea the duty was fixed at Re. 1-8-0 per 100 lbs.; in the case of jute the export duty on raw jute was fixed at Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs., approximately equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent.; manufactured jute was charged at the rate of Rs. 10 per ton on sacking and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessians.

The Customs Tariff was further materially modified in the Budget for 1917-18. In the previous year an export duty on jute was imposed at the rate of Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs. in the case of raw jute and Rs. 10 per ton on sackings, and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessians; these rates were doubled, with a view to obtaining an additional revenue of £500,000. The import duty on cotton goods was raised from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent. without any alteration in the Excise, which at 3½ per cent. This change was

expected to produce an additional revenue of Rs. 21,000,000. The operation of the Finance Bill of 1920-21, however, was not successful, and the Government could not possibly forego the revenue of Rs. 230,000, which it was expected to produce. With these changes in operation the revenue from Customs in 1920-21 was Rs. 32,87,24,000.

The Customs Tariff was further raised in the Budget of 1921-22 in order to provide for the big deficit which had then to be faced. The general *ad valorem* duty was raised from 7½ to 11 per cent.; a special duty was levied on matches of 12 annas per gross boxes in place of the existing *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent. the duties on imported liquors was raised to 5 annas per degree of proof per gallon; the *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent. was raised to 20 per cent. in the case of certain articles of luxury; the import duty on foreign sugar was increased from 10 to 15 per cent. and the duty on manufactured tobacco was raised by 50 per cent. The Customs duties were further increased in the Budget of 1922-23. The Government proposals in this direction have been described in an early passage. They were to raise the general Customs duty from 11 to 15 per cent., the cotton excise duty from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent., the duty on sugar from 15 to 25 per cent., a duty of 5 per cent. on imported yarn, a rising duty on machinery, iron, steel and railway material from 2½ per cent. to 10 per cent. together with the general duty on articles of luxury from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. In the course of the passage of the Budget through the Legislatures the cotton excise duty was retained at 8½ per cent., the duty on machinery was retained at 3½ per cent. and the duty on cotton piece-goods at 11 per cent. the other increases being accepted. In 1925 the Cotton Excise duties were finally abolished. Full details with regard to the customs duty are set out in the section on Indian Customs Tariff (q. 2). The estimated revenue from the customs in 1927-28 is Rs. 48,78,27,000.

The Senior Collectors were *Covenanted Civilian*s specially chosen for this duty, before the introduction of the Imperial Customs Service in

1904. Senior Collectors were appointed to the posts at the principal ports (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, and Karachi) three are ordinarily reserved for Members of the I. C. S. (i.e., "Covenanted Civilian"). The other two are reserved for members of the Imperial Customs Service.

Assistant Collectors in the Imperial Customs Service are recruited in two ways: (a) from members of the Indian Civil Service—19 vacancies, and (b) by the Secretary of State—19 vacancies. There are in addition a few *Covenanted Officers* in what is known as the Provincial Customs Service. These posts are in the gift of the Government of India, and are usually filled by promotion from the subordinate (in the Government sense of the word) service. The "subordinate" staff is recruited entirely in India.

Income Tax.

The income tax was first imposed in India in 1860 in order to meet the financial dislocation caused by the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent. or a little more than 9d. in the pound on all incomes of five hundred rupees and upwards. Many changes have from time to time been made in the system, and the present schedule was consolidated in the Act of 1886. This imposed a tax on all incomes derived from sources other than agriculture which were exempted. On incomes of 2,000 rupees and upwards it fell at the rate of five pias in the rupee, or about 5d. in the pound; on incomes between 500 and 2,000 rupees at the rate of four pias in the rupee or about 5d. in the pound. In March 1903 the minimum taxable income was raised from 500 to 1,000 rupees. The income-tax schedule was completely revised, raised, and graduated in the Budget of 1916-17 in the general scale of increased taxation imposed to meet the deficit arising out of war conditions.

Since then the process has been almost continuous and in every financial difficulty the authorities turn to the Income Tax as a means of raising fresh revenue. The last revision was in the Budget of 1922-23, when the scale was fixed as follows:—

RATES OF INCOME-TAX.

	Rate.
A. In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every undivided Hindu family:—	
(1) When the total income is less than Rs. 2,000.. ..	Nil.
(2) When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 5,000.. ..	Five pias in the rupee.
(3) When the total income is Rs. 5,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 10,000.. ..	Six pias in the rupee.
(4) When the total income is Rs. 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 20,000.. ..	Nine pias in the rupee.
(5) When the total income is Rs. 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 30,000.. ..	One anna in the rupee.
(6) When the total income is Rs. 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 40,000.. ..	One anna and three pias in the rupee.
(7) When the total income is Rs. 40,000 or upwards.. ..	One anna and six pias in the rupee.
In the case of every company, and every registered firm whatever its total income.. ..	One anna and six pias in the rupee.

RATES OF SUPER-TAX.

In respect of the excess over fifty thousand rupees of total income;—Rate.

- (1) In the case of every company .. One anna in the rupee.
- (2) (a) In the case of every Hindu undivided family—
 - (i) in respect of the first twenty-five thousand rupees of the excess .. Nil.
 - (ii) for every rupee of the next twenty-five thousand rupees of such excess .. One anna in the rupee;
- (b) In the case of every individual and every unregistered firm, for every rupee of the first fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. One anna in the rupee.
- (c) In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every Hindu undivided family—
 - (i) for every rupee of the second fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. One and a half annas in the rupee.
 - (ii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Two annas in the rupee.
 - (iii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Two and a half annas in the rupee.
 - (iv) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Three annas in the rupee.
 - (v) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Three and a half annas in the rupee.
 - (vi) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Four annas in the rupee.
 - (vii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Four and a half annas in the rupee.
 - (viii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Five annas in the rupee.
 - (ix) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess .. Five and a half annas in the rupee.
 - (x) for every rupee of the remainder of the excess .. Six annas in the rupee.

The head of the Income-Tax Department of a province is the Commissioner of Income-tax who is appointed by the Governor-General in Council. The rest of the income-tax staff in a province are subordinate to him and they are appointed and dismissed by him. His power of appointment and dismissal is, under section 5 (4) "subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council," but the Governor-General in Council exercises this control through the local Government. The estimated yield of income-tax in 1926-27 is Rs. 16,95,05,000.

THE INDIAN MINTS.

The silver coinage executed for the Government of India during 1925-26 consisted of Rs. 20,59,729 of half rupees and Rs. 10,13,750 of quarter rupees coined from silver obtained from melting uncurrent coins.

Nickel and Bronze Coinage.—The coinage during 1925-26 consisted of single piece two-anna pieces and 34,090,544 nickel one-anna pieces. Bronze coinage consisted of 30,059,400 half pice and pice pieces of the aggregate value of Rs. 8,52,970.

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE.

The Indian mints were closed to the unrestricted coinage of silver for the public from the 26th June 1893, and Act VIII of 1893, passed on that date, repealed Sections 19 to 26 of the Indian Coinage Act of 1870, which provided for the coinage at the mints for the public of gold and silver coins of the Government of India. After 1893 no Government rupees were coined until 1897, when, under arrangements made with the Native States of Bhopal and Kashmir, the currency of those States was replaced by Government rupees. The re-coinage of these rupees proceeded through the two years 1897 and 1898. In 1899 there was no coinage of rupees; but in the following year it seemed that coinage was necessary, and it was begun in February 1900. The Government purchasing the silver and paying for it with the gold acc. ed in the Paper

Reserve. In that and the following month a crore of rupees was coined and over 17 crores of rupees in the year ending the 31st March 1910 including the rupees issued in connection with the conversion of the currencies of Native States. From the profit accruing to Government on the coinage it was decided to constitute a separate fund called the Gold Reserve Fund as the most effective guarantee against temporary fluctuations of exchange. The whole profit was invested in sterling securities, the interest from which was added to the fund. In 1906 exchange had been practically stable for eight years, and it was decided that of the coinage profits devoted to this fund, six crores should be kept in rupees in India, instead of being invested in gold securities. The Gold Reserve Fund was then the Gold Reserve Fund. It was ordered in 1907 that only

one half of the coinage profits should be paid into the reserve, the remainder being used for capital expenditure on railways. The Gold Standard Reserve was called into action before the year 1907-08 was out. Exchange turned against India, and in March 1908, the Government of India offered bills on the Secretary of State up to half a million sterling, while the Secretary of State sold £1,000,000 Consols in order to meet such demands. During April to August, further sterling bills were sold for a total amount of £8,058,000. On a representation by the Government of India, the Secretary of State agreed to defer the application of coinage profits to railway construction until the sterling assets of the Gold Standard Reserve amounted to £25,000,000. On the outbreak of the war in August 1914 the Reserve was drawn upon to meet the demands for sterling remittances, and Government offer to sell £1,000,000 of Bills weekly.

Gold.

Since 1870 there had been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs before 1918 in which year coinage was resumed, was in the year 1891-92.

A Royal proclamation was issued in 1913 establishing a branch of the **Royal Mint at Bombay**. It stated—Subject to the provision of this proclamation the Bombay Branch Mint shall for the purpose of the coinage of gold coins be deemed to be part of the Mint, and accordingly, (a) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint shall comply with all directions he may receive from the Master of the Mint whether as regards the expenditure to be incurred or the returns to be made or the transmission of specimen coins to England or otherwise and (b) the said specimen coins shall be subject to the trial of the pyx under section 12 of the Coinage Act, 1870, so that they shall be examined separately from the coins coined in England or at any other branch of the Mint, and (c) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint and other officers and persons employed for the purpose of carrying on the business of the Branch Mint may be suspended and removed and salaries awarded.

the provisions of section 15 of the Coinage Act, 1870. Pending the completion of the arrangements at the Branch, Royal Mint, power was taken by legislation to coin in India gold mohurs of the same weight and fineness as the sovereign. Altogether 2,109,703 pieces of these new coins of the nominal value of Rs. 3,16,45,545, were struck at the Bombay Mint. The actual coinage of sovereigns was begun in August, 1918, and 1,295,372 sovereigns were coined during the year. This branch of the Royal Mint was closed in April, 1919, owing to difficulties in supplying the necessary staff.

The Indian Currency Act of 1927 established a new ratio of the rupee to gold. It established this ratio at one shilling and sixpence by enacting that Government would purchase gold at a price of twenty-one rupees three annas ten pies per tola of fine gold in the form of bars containing not less than forty tolas and would sell gold or, at the option of Government, sterling, for immediate delivery in London at the same price after allowing for the normal cost of transport from Bombay to London. A rate of one shilling and five pence

sixty-fourths was notified as the selling rate for sterling to meet the

With the receipt of large quantities of gold, the Bombay Mint made arrangements for the refining of gold in process and at the end of the year the Refinery Department was capable of refining a daily amount of 6,000 ounces of gold. The Refinery turned out 16,62,466 fine gold in 1920-21.

Silver.

The weight and fineness of the silver are :—

	FINL SILVER grains
Rupee	165
Half-rupee	82½
Quarter-rupee or 4-anna piece	41½
Eighth of a rupee or 2-anna piece	20½

One rupee = 165 grains of silver
One shilling = 80½ grains of silver
One rupee = shillings 2 04

Copper and Bronze

Copper coinage was introduced into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XVII of 1844.

The weight of the copper coinage introduced by Act XXIII of 1870 remained the same as in 1835. It was as follows :—

Double piece or half-anna
Piece or quarter-anna
Half-piece or one-eighth of an anna
Piece being one-third of a piece or one-twelfth of an anna

The weight and dimensions of the copper coins are as follows :—

	Standard weight in grains
Piece	75
Half-piece	37½
Piece	25

Nickel.

The Act of 1906 also provided for the issue of a nickel coin. It was directed that one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined by the Mint and issued. The notice prescribed the design of the coin, which was to be of the shape of a circle with edge with twelve scoops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 21 millimetres and the diameter 19·8 millimetres. The Government of India in 1911 consulted with Local Government and decided not to take action in this matter as the people had become thoroughly accustomed to the present one-anna coin. A nickel coin was introduced in 1911 in the form of a four-anna and eight-anna nickel. The eight-anna nickel is now being issued from the

The Currency System.

The working of the Indian currency system was much importance, and they continue to bulk so largely in all Indian economic questions, that we propose to give here a short summary of the Indian currency system in non-technical language.

I. THE SILVER STANDARD.

Prior to 1893 the Indian currency system was a mono-metallic system, with silver as the standard of value and a circulation of silver rupees and notes based thereon. But with the opening of new and very productive silver mines in the United States of America the supply of silver exceeded the demand and it steadily receded in value. The result was that the gold value of the rupee, which was nominally two shillings, fell

ment of India has to meet every year in London a substantial sum in the form of payment of interest on the debt, the salaries of officials on leave, the pensions of retired officials, as well as large payments for stores required for State enterprises. As the rupee fell in its gold value the number of rupees required to satisfy these payments rose. The total reached a pitch which seriously alarmed the Government, which felt that it might be called upon to raise a sum in rupees which would necessitate a considerable increase in taxation, which should be avoided if possible. It was therefore decided to take measures to raise and fix the gold value of the rupee for the purposes of exchange.

Closing the Mints.—The whole question was examined by a strong committee under the presidency of Lord Herschell, whose report is commonly called the *Herschell Report*. It was decided in 1893 to close the mints to the unrestricted coinage of silver. This step led, as was intended, to a gradual divergence between the exchange value of the rupee and the gold value of the silver content. Government ceased to add rupees to the circulation. Rupees remained unlimited legal tender and formed the standard of value for all internal transactions. Since Government refused, and no one else had the power to coin rupees, as soon as circumstances led to an increased demand for rupees, the exchange value of the rupee began to rise. By 1898 it had approached the figure of one shilling and fourpence. Meantime, in response to the undertaking of Government to give notes of rupees for gold at the rate of fifteen rupees to the pound sterling, gold began to accumulate in the Paper Currency Reserve. These purposes having

II. THE NEW STANDARD.

The Fowler Committee rejected the proposal to re-open the Mints to the free coinage of silver. They proposed that the exchange value of the rupee should be fixed at one shilling and fourpence, or fifteen rupees to the sovereign. They further suggested that the British sovereign should be made a legal tender and a current coin in India: that the Indian mints should be

Gold Standard Reserve. Inasmuch as the cost of coining rupees halfpenny, and one and fourpence; they were to be freely available for support of exchange.

condition which compelled the Government of India to give either rupees or rupee notes for gold tendered in India, at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, it was impossible for the rate of exchange to rise above one shilling and four pence, save by the fraction which covered the cost of shipping gold to India. But if the balance of trade turned against India, it was still possible for the rate of exchange to fall. To meet this the Fowler Committee recommended that the profits on coining rupees should not be absorbed in the general revenues, but should be set aside in a special reserve, to be called the

A 16 pence Rupee.—The Government of India professed to accept all the recommendations of the Fowler Committee; actually only a portion of them was put in practice. The official rate of exchange was fixed at one and four pence. The sovereign and the half sovereign were declared unlimited legal tender in India. But after a first attempt, when sovereigns soon came back to the treasuries, no effort was made to support the gold standard by an active gold currency. The gold mint was not set up. The Gold Standard Reserve was established, but instead of holding the Reserve in gold, it was invested in British securities. These practices which were never contemplated by the Committee. Reference to the Charges of the Government of India, which at the time amounted

about ten per cent. on the year. In 1907-08, a partial failure of the rains in India in 1907, and the general financial stringency all over the world which followed the war, when it proposed the formation of the Gold Standard Reserve. There had been very heavy

Sterling Remittance.—This system worked until 1907-08. A partial failure of the rains in India in 1907, and the general financial stringency all over the world which followed the

when it proposed the formation of the Gold Standard Reserve. There had been very heavy

of a large reserve in India and the amount in the Reserve was small. But the Reserve was not a liquid form, nor was the time an opportune one for the realisation of securities. Moreover the authorities did not realise that a reserve was for use in times of emergency. It had been assumed that in times of weakness it would be sufficient for the Government of India to sell Council Bills, and in the Gold Standard Reserve. It was not enough; there was an insistent demand for the export of gold, or the equivalent of gold. The Government of India had to sell gold to one and three pence twenty-nine and three-quarters seconds. Ultimately it was decided to sell a quantity of sterling bills on London at one and three pence twenty-nine and three-quarters seconds, representing gold export point, and the equivalent of the export of gold. These were met in London from the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. Bills to the extent of between eight and nine millions sterling were sold, which regularised the position and the Indian export trade recovered. Thus were gradually evolved the main principles of the Indian currency system. It consisted of silver rupees and rupee notes in India, with the sovereign and half sovereign unlimited legal tender at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, or one and four pence. The rate of exchange was prevented from rising above gold import point by the unlimited sale of Council Bills at gold point in London; it was prevented from falling below gold point by the sale of Sterling Bills (commonly called Reverse Councils) at gold export point in India. But it was not the system proposed by the Fowler Committee, for there was no gold mint and only a limited gold circulation; some people invented for it the novel term of the gold exchange standard, a term unknown to the law of India. It was described by one of the most active workers in it as a "limping standard."

III. THE CHAMBERLAIN COMMITTEE.

This brings us to the year 1913. There were many crises of the system. Some hankered for a return to the open mints; others objected to the practice of unlimited sales of Council Bills as forcing rupees into circulation in excess of the requirements of the country. But the general advantages of a fixed exchange were so great as to smother the voices of the critics, and the trade and commerce of the country adjusted itself to

chiefly directed at the investment of the Gold Standard Reserve in securities instead of keeping it in gold in India, at a raid on that reserve in order to form a fund for the Government of India. The Chamberlain Committee, however, ignored this criticism, until it was summarised in a series of articles in *The Times*, and public

serve in silver in order to facilitate the coining of rupees; and at the unlimited sales of Council Bills at rates which prevented the free flow of gold to India, thus forcing token rupees into circulation in quantities in excess of the requirements of the country. The cumulative effect of this policy was to transfer from India to London an immense block of India's resources, aggregating over seventy millions, where they were lent out at low rates of interest to the London bankers, whilst India was starved of money until at one point money was not available for loans even against Government securities and the bank rate was artificially high. All these things were done, it was contended, in the interests of a small class of financiers and the Government Office, for the benefit of the Indian people was excluded, and the Indian people were ignored this criticism, until it was summarised in a series of articles in *The Times*, and public

opinion was focussed on the discussion through the action of the India Office in purchasing a big block of silver for coining purposes from Messrs. Montagu & Co., instead of through their recognised and constituted agents, the Bank of England. The Government could no longer afford to stand aloof and yet another Currency Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. Austen Chamberlain. This is known as the Chamberlain Committee.

New Measures.—The conclusions of this Commission were that it was unnecessary to support the Gold Standard by a gold currency; that it was not to the advantage of India to encourage the internal use of gold as currency; that the internal currency should be supported by a thoroughly adequate reserve of gold and sterling; that no limit should be fixed to the amount of the Gold Standard Reserve, one half of which should be held in gold; that the silver

branch of the Gold Standard Reserve should be abolished; that Reverse Councils should be sold on demand; that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic; and that there should be two Indian representatives out of three on the Finance Committee of the India Office. The Committee dealt inconclusively with the accumulation of excessive balances in London, the general tenor of their recommendations being "not guilty, but do not do it again." They gave a passing commendation to the idea of a State Bank. Sir James Begg, the only Indian banker on the Committee, appended a vigorous minute of dissent, in which he urged that the true line of advance was to discourage the extension of the token currency by providing further facilities for the distribution of gold when increases to the currency became necessary, including the issue of an Indian gold coin of a more convenient denomination than the sovereign or the half sovereign.

IV. CURRENCY AND THE WAR.

The report was in the hands of the Government of India shortly before the outbreak of the war. Some immediate steps were taken, like the abolition of the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, but before the Government could deal entirely with the temporising recommendations of the Commission, the war broke out. The early effects of the war were precisely those anticipated. There was a demand for sterling remittance which was met by the sale of Reverse Councils, 23,707,000, being sold up to the end of January 1915. There were withdrawals from the Post Office Savings Banks, and a net sum of Rs. 6 crores was taken away. There was some lack of confidence in the Note issue, and a demand for gold; Notes to the extent of Rs. 10 crores were presented for encashment and the Government were obliged to suspend the issue of gold. But these were transient features and did not demand a moratorium; confidence was soon revived and Exchange and the Note issue continued strong. The difficulties which afterwards arose were from causes completely unanticipated by all students of the Indian currency. They arose from an immense balance of trade in favour of India, caused by the demand for Indian produce for the United Kingdom and the Allies and the decline in the export trade from these countries; a heavy expenditure in India on behalf of the British Government; and a phenomenal rise in the price of silver. If we take the three years 1916-17 to 1918-19 the balance of trade in favour of India was £8 millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennium. The disbursements in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were by December 1919 £240,000,000. This balance of trade and expenditure for Imperial purposes could not be financed either by the import of the precious metals, owing to the universal embargo on the movement of gold and silver nor by credits in India. It could be financed only by the expansion of the Note issue, against sterling securities in the United Kingdom, chiefly Treasury Bills, and the issue of coined

rupees. But simultaneously there was a reduction in the output of the silver mines of the world coinciding with an increased demand for the metal. The price of silver in 1915 was 27½ pence per standard ounce. In May 1919 it was 58 pence, on the 17th December of that year it was 78 pence. The main difficulties in India were not therefore the prevention of the rupee from falling below the ratio of 15 to one, but to keep it within any limits and to provide a sufficiency to meet the demand.

Rise in Exchange.—The measures adopted by the Government of India in these emergencies were to bring exchange under rigid control, confining remittance to the finance of articles of national importance. The next step was to raise the rate for the sale of Council Bills, so that silver might be purchased at a price which would allow rupees to be coined without loss. The following table shows how rates were raised from one shilling fourpence to two shillings fourpence:—

Date of Introduction.	Minimum Rate for Immediate Telegraphic Transfers
3rd January 1917	1 4½
28th August 1917	1 5
12th April 1918	1 6
13th May 1919	1 8
12th August 1919	1 10
15th September 1919	2 0
22nd November 1919	2 2
12th December 1919	2 4

Purchase of Silver Silver for coinage was purchased in large quantities showing the amount acquired by the Government of India in the

								In open Market (Standard Ounces)
1915-16	8,636,000
1916-17	124,585,000
1917-18	70,923,000
1918-19	106,410,000
1919-20 (to 30th November 1919)	14,103,000
Total								324,612,000

The total amount is thus 538,005,000 standard ounces

Gold and silver were taken under control and measures taken to prevent Gold from going to a premium and ceased to function as currency. The Notes and small Notes of one and two and a half rupees were specially prepared to replace silver rupees. The nature of this expansion is shown below:—

Date.		Lakhs of Rupees			
		Gross Note Circulation.	Composition of Reserve.		
			Silver.	Gold.	Securities
31st March 1914	..	66.12	20.53	31.59	14.00
" 1915	..	61.68	32.34	15.29	14.00
" 1916	..	67.73	23.57	24.16	20.00
" 1917	..	86.38	19.22	18.67	48.49
" 1918	..	99.79	10.79	27.52	61.48
" 1919	..	153.46	37.89	17.49	98.58
30th November 1919	..	179.67	47.44	32.70	99.53

The facilities for the encashment of Notes were reduced. In these ways the Government were able to maintain the broad convertibility of the Note issue and finance the essential trades and expenditure for the Imperial War. These measures carried over the year.

V. THE 1913 COMMITTEE.

The effect of these measures however was to jettison the currency policy pursued from 1893 to 1916, the main object of which was to stabilise the rupee at one and fourpence. The war being over, a Committee was appointed to advise in regard to the future of Indian exchange and currency. It sat in 1919 at the end of the year. It is summarised below:—

(i) It is desirable to re-establish the rupee and to re-establish the Indian currency system.

(i) The adoption of a system of exchange which would enable the rupee to be used as a unit of account and as a unit of payment, and which would enable the Government to issue notes of a fixed value, are expedients that cannot be recommended.

(ii) The maintenance of the convertibility of the note issue is essential, and proposals that do not adequately protect the Indian paper currency from the risk of becoming inconvertible cannot be entertained.

(iv) The rise in exchange, in so far as it has checked and mitigated the rise in Indian prices, has been to the advantage of the country as a whole, and it is desirable to secure the continuance of this benefit.

(v) Indian trade is not likely to suffer any permanent injury from the fixing of exchange at a high level.

If, contrary to expectation, a great and rapid fall in world prices were to take place, and if the costs of production in India fail to adjust themselves with equal rapidity to the lower level of prices, then it might be necessary to consider the problem afresh.

(vi) The development of Indian industry would not be seriously hampered by a high rate of exchange.

(vii) The gain to India of a high rate of exchange for meeting the Home charges is an incidental advantage that must be taken into consideration.

(viii) To postpone fixing a stable rate of exchange would be open to serious criticism and entail prolongation of Government control.

(ix) The balance of advantage is decidedly on the side of fixing the exchange value of the rupee in terms of gold rather than in terms of sterling.

(x) The stable relation to be established between the rupee and gold should be at the rate of Rs. 10 to one sovereign, or, in other words at the rate of one rupee for 11.30,018 grains of fine gold, both for foreign exchange and for internal circulation.

(xi) If silver rises for more than a brief period above the parity of 2s. (gold), the situation should be met by all other available means rather than by impairing the convertibility of the note issue. Such measures might be (a) reduction of sale of Council Bills; (b) abstention from purchase of silver; (c) use of gold to meet demands for metallic currency. If it should be absolutely necessary to purchase silver, the Government should be prepared to purchase even at a price such that rupees would be coined at a loss.

(xii) Council Drafts are primarily sold not for the convenience of trade but to provide for the Home charges in the wider sense of the term. There is no obligation to sell drafts to meet all trade demands; but, if without inconvenience or with advantage the Secretary of State is in a position to sell drafts in excess of his immediate needs, when a trade demand for them exists, there is no objection to his doing so, subject to due regard being paid to the principles governing the location of the reserves.

Council Drafts should be sold as now by open tender at competitive rates, a minimum rate being fixed from time to time on the basis of the sterling cost of shipping gold to India. At present this rate will vary; but when sterling is again equivalent to gold, it will remain uniform.

The Government of India should authorize the announcement of a new system of exchange to the Secretary of State on each occasion when the need to set weekly a stated amount of Reserve Councils (including telegraphic transfers) during periods of exchange weakness at a price based on the cost of shipping gold from India to the United Kingdom.

(xiii) The import and export of gold to and from India should be free from Government control.

(xiv) The statutory minimum for the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve should be 40 per cent. of the gross circulation.

As regards the fiduciary portion of the reserve the holding of securities issued by the Government of India should be limited to 20 crores. The balance should be held in securities of other Governments comprised within the British Empire, and of the amount so held not more than 10 crores should have more than one year's maturity and all should be redeemable at a fixed date. The balance of the invested portion above these 30 crores should be held in short-dated securities with not more than one year's maturity, issued by Government within the British Empire.

The sterling investments and gold in the Paper Currency Reserve should be revalued at 2s. to the rupee. The depreciation which will result from this revaluation, cannot be made good at once, but any savings resulting from the rise in exchange will afford a suitable means of discharging this liability in a limited number of years.

(xv) With a view to meeting the seasonal demand for additional currency, provision should be made for the issue of notes up to five crores over and above the normal fiduciary issue as loans to the Presidency Banks on the security of export bills of exchange.

Minority Report.—The main object of the Committee, it will be seen, was to secure a stable rate of exchange, without impairing the convertibility of the Note issue, and without debasing the standard silver rupee in India, or substituting another coin of inferior metallic content, which would be debasement in another form. In order to attain these ends it was imperative to fix a ratio for the rupee in relation to gold which would ensure that the Government was able to purchase silver for coining purposes without more than temporary loss. For reasons given in the report they fixed this point at two shillings gold: all other recommendations are subsidiary thereto. But in this they were not unanimous: an important member of the Committee, Mr. Dadiba Dalal, of Bombay, appended a minority report in which he urged the adoption of the following course:—

(a) The money standard in India should remain unaltered; that is, the standard of the sovereign and gold mohur with rupees related thereto at the ratio of 15 to 1.

(b) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of gold bullion and gold coins.

(c) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of silver bullion and silver coins.

(d) The existing silver rupees of 165 grains of fine silver at present in circulation to continue full legal tender.

(e) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender.

(f) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender.

(g) Government to sell Council Bills by competitive tenders for the amount defined in the Budget as required to be remitted to the Secre-

tary of State. The Budget estimate to show under separate headings the amount of Council Bills drawn for Home Charges, for Capital Outlay and Discharge of Debt. Council Bills to be sold for Government requirements only and not for trade purposes, except for the purpose mentioned in the next succeeding recommendation.

(h) "Reverse" drafts on London to be sold by the State at a rate not below Rs. 4 6-3d. per rupee.

VI. THE TWO SHILLING RUPEE.

The fundamental recommendation of the Committee was that the rupee should be linked to gold and not to sterling, in view of the decline in the value of sterling; that it should be linked at the rate of two shillings instead of the standard value, one and fourpence: all other recommendations were ancillary to this. But it is very important to bear in mind the twofold problem which confronted the Committee. It would be quite easy to fix any low rate provided the paper currency were made inconvertible, or the rupee debased to such a point that the Government in providing rupee currency, were independent of the price of silver. But if the convertibility of the rupee were to be maintained, and if the rupee were not to be debased, it was essential that the new ratio should be one at which the Government could reasonably rely on purchasing without loss the silver necessary to meet the heavy demands for rupees in India. For reasons set out in the Report, the Committee came to the conclusion that the Government could reckon on purchasing silver for coining at a little under two shillings gold, and that powerfully influenced them in fixing the new ratio at two shillings gold.

The Report Adopted.—The Currency Committee's Report was signed in December 1919; but it was not until February 1920 that action was taken thereon. In the first week of that month a Notification was issued in India accepting the Committee's Report and action would be taken. The Committee's Report covered a wide field, but for the sake of clarity in this narrative we shall concentrate on the main issue, the changing of the official monetary standard from fifteen rupees to the sovereign to ten rupees to the sovereign and its effect on Indian currency and trade. That may be summarised in a sentence. A policy which was avowedly adopted to secure fixity of exchange produced the greatest fluctuations in the value of the rupee, solvent country and the rupee, heavy losses to Government, and brought hundreds of big traders to the verge of bankruptcy.

Financial Confusion.—This result was produced by many causes. It has been explained above that the essential features of the Indian currency system are the free sales of Council Bills at gold export point in London to prevent exchange from rising above the official standard and the sale of Reverse Councils in India at gold export point to prevent exchange from falling below the official standard. Now when the

Currency Committee's Report was issued, the official rate of exchange, as measured in dollars, the dollar-sterling rate, inasmuch as America was the only free gold market, was the only factor in the hesitancy. The gold rate was considerably below the two shillings gold rate when the Notification accepted the Committee's Report was issued. The gold rate was about two shillings ninepence. There was an immediate and prodigious demand for Reverse Councils, to take advantage of this high rate of exchange; the market rate jumped up to two shillings eightpence.

Effect of the Rise.—The effect of a rise in exchange has been well described in the words of the Currency Committee's Report; it is that a rising exchange stimulates imports and impedes exports, the effect of a falling exchange is the reverse.

Now when the official notification of the two shilling rupee was made the Indian export trade was weak. The great consuming markets of Great Britain and America were glutted with Indian produce. The continent of Europe, which was starved of Indian produce and in urgent need of it, had not the wherewithal to pay for it nor the means to transport it. The only Indian staples which were foodstuffs, and which were over a wide area, the Government were not able to lift the embargo on the export of foodstuffs, save to a limited extent in the case of wheat. On the other hand, the import trade was strong. Orders had been placed for machinery and other manufactured goods during the war and after the Armistice for delivery at the discretion of manufacturers. These began to come forward.

Difficulties Accentuated.—In accordance with the principles laid down by the Currency Committee these difficulties were accentuated by the action of Government in raising exchange by an administrative act. The weak export trade was almost killed. At the same time the temptation of a high exchange gave powerful stimulus to the import trade and orders were placed for immense quantities of manufactured goods, in which textiles filled an important place. Afterwards other forces intervened which accentuated the difficulties of the situation. There was a severe commercial crisis in Japan and this

checked the export of Indian cotton. Japan is the largest buyer of Indian cotton, and when her merchants not only stopped buying but began to re-sell in the Indian markets, the trade was severely shaken and stocks accumulated at a great rate. Even before the 1929 crop came into the market the stocks in Bombay were double those in the corresponding period of the previous year. The expectations of a revival in the buying power of the Continent which were held in many quarters were disappointed and throughout the year there was a heavy balance of trade against India which made the stabilisation of the exchange at a high ratio attempted &

Confession of Failure.—Government struggled long against these conditions in the desperate hope that a revival of the export trade would come to their assistance, but they were further handicapped by the variations of the sterling-dollar exchange, which at one time took the rate for Reverse Councils to two shillings twopence half penny. They sold two millions of Reverse Councils a week, then five millions, then dropped down to a steady million. But their policy only aggravated the situation. In addition to arresting the export trade and stimulating the import trade at a time when the precise converse was demanded, their action created an artificial movement for the transfer of capital from India to England. Large war profits accumulated in India since 1914 were hurriedly liquidated and transferred to England. Then the difference between the Reverse Council rate and the market rate, which on some occasions

profits. Considerable groups of speculators pooled their resources and followed the same course. In this way the weekly biddings for the million of Reverse Councils varied from a hundred and 20 millions to a hundred and thirty millions and the money market was completely disorganised. The biddings assumed such proportions that it was necessary to put up fifty lakhs of rupees to obtain the smallest allotment made, five thousand pounds, and Reverse Councils and the large profits thereon came under the entire control of the Banks and the wealthy speculators. Various expedients were tried to remedy the situation but without the slightest effect.

Sterling for Gold.—The first definite break from the recommendations of the Currency Committee came at the end of June, when the Government announced that instead of trying to stabilise the rupee at two shillings gold they would aim at stabilising it at two shillings sterling, leaving the gap between sterling and gold to be closed when the dollar-sterling rate became par. The effect of this was to alter the rate at which Reverse Councils were sold from the fluctuating rate involved in the fluctuations of dollar-sterling exchange to a fixed sterling rate, namely, one shilling elevenpence nineteen-thirds seconds. But this had little practical effect. The biddings for Reverse Councils continued on a very big scale, and the market rate for exchange was always twopence or threepence below the Reverse Council rate. This practice continued until the end of September, when it was officially declared

that Reverse Councils would be stopped altogether. Exchange immediately slumped to between one and sixpence and one and seven pence, and it continued to range between these narrow points until the end of the year. The market made its own rate; it made a more stable rate than the efforts of Government to attain an administrative stability.

Other Measures.—Apart from the effort to stabilise exchange, which had such unfortunate results, the policy of Government had certain other effects. During the year all restrictions on the movement of the precious metals were removed, in accordance with the recommendations of the Currency Committee. This included the abandonment of the import duty on silver, always a sore point with Indian bullionists. Legislative action was taken to alter the official ratio of the sovereign from fifteen to one to ten to one; due notice of this intention was given to holders of sovereigns and of the gold mohurs which were coined as an emergency measure in 1918, and the gold value of tendering them at the gold value of these coins was limited number was rendered, although there

ed proportion of the Note issue was fixed by statute and it could be altered only by altering the law or by Ordinance. An Act was passed in 1925 to alter the ratio of the Currency Issue, the 20 crores in British currency was revalued at the new rate of exchange, and an undertaking was given that the profits on the Note issue would be devoted to writing off the depreciation, as also would be the interest on the Gold Standard Reserve when the total had reached 240 millions. Further, in order to give greater elasticity to the Note issue, power was taken to issue Rs. 5 crores of emergency currency in the busy season against commercial bills. These measures, save the alteration of the ratio, were generally approved by the commercial public.

Results.—It remains to sum up the results of these measures. In a pregnant sentence in their report the Currency Committee say that

policy attempted. At the moment when it was sought suddenly and violently to raise the rate of exchange by the introduction of the new ratio of two shillings gold, the export trade was weak and the import trade in obedience to the Currency Committee's recommendation which they recommended. The rising rate of exchange scotched the weak export trade and gave a great stimulus to imports. Unexpected forces, such as the financial crisis in Japan, the lack of buying power on the Continent, and the movement for the transfer of capital from India to England at the

a fall in the exchange rate of the rupee against the pound sterling. The effects on Indian business were severe. Exporters found themselves loaded with produce for which there was no foreign demand; importers found themselves loaded up with imported goods, bought in the expectation of the continuance of a high rate of exchange, delivered when it had fallen one and fourpence from the highest point reached. Immense losses were incurred by all importers. The Government sold £55 millions of Reserve Councils before abandoning

the difference between the cost of putting the funds down in London and in bringing them back to India—was Rs. 35 crores of rupees. Government sold £55 millions of gold, without breaking or seriously affecting the premium on gold. The Secretary of State, in the absence of any demand for Council Bills, was able to finance his expenditure in England only through the lucky chance of heavy expenditure on behalf of the Imperial Government for the forces in Mesopotamia—this expenditure being made in India and set off by payments in London. The only advantages were a considerable contraction of the Note issue and the silver token currency.

VII. COMMISSION OF 1925-26.

These unfortunate experiments induced a period of great caution in dealing with Indian currency. The currency quacks having had their way, and proved their ignorance, went out of the field, and the wholesome policy of leaving Exchange alone, to find its natural level, followed. Left alone Exchange established itself round about the old ratio of fifteen to one, that is one shilling and fourpence to the rupee. Meantime great improvements were made in the organisation of Indian credit. The three Presidency Banks were merged in the Imperial Bank of India, a State Bank in all but name, and the Bank entered into a contract with Government to open a hundred new branches in the first five years of its existence. The Bank mobilised and strengthened and widened Indian credit. The metallic backing of the Paper Currency was strengthened and the fiduciary portion of the Reserve brought within negligible proportions. Greater elasticity was established in the currency by the power to issue emergency currency up to Rs. 12 crores against commercial paper endorsed by the Imperial Bank when there is a tightness of money, and the practice of also issuing emergency currency against sterling in England. The Government of India now purchases sterling in India to meet its Home Charges when the conditions are favourable, instead of relying entirely on the sales of Council Bills in London. A notable feature in Exchange history was the rise of Exchange, of its own strength, above the one and fourpenny figure. Towards the close of 1924 it gradually rose to one shilling and sixpence and stayed there.

At this figure Exchange was maintained by Government, though the state of trade might have led to a higher figure. But as the wholly artificial ratio of the two shilling rupee remained on the statute book, the demand for an authoritative inquiry to fix the ratio of the rupee to gold or sterling was insistent, and a Committee was appointed in the autumn of 1925. Of this Commander Hilton Young was chairman, with Sir Henry Strakosck as the chief gold expert. The personnel of the Committee was strongly criticised in India, on the ground that the Indian membership was inadequate, and that the individuals selected were not authoritative; a resolution was passed in the

Assembly hostile to the whole body. Nevertheless the Committee arrived in India in November 1925 and took evidence in Delhi, Bombay and Calcutta. It sailed for England in February 1926, and resumed its hearings in London, and reported on July 1st, 1926.

The main recommendations of this Commission are summarised in the actual report in the following terms, and they are textually reproduced in order that they may be under question—

(i) The ordinary medium of circulation should remain the currency note and the silver rupee and the stability of the currency in terms of gold should be secured by making the currency directly convertible into gold, but gold should not circulate as money.

(ii) The necessity of unity of policy in the conduct of currency and credit for the achievement of monetary stability involves the establishment of a Central Banking system.

(iii) The Central Banking functions should be entrusted to a new organisation, referred to as the Reserve Bank.

(iv) Detailed recommendations are made as to the constitution and functions and capacities of the Bank.

(v) The outlines of a proposed charter are recommended to give effect to the recommendations which concern the Reserve Bank.

(vi) Subject to the payment of limited dividends and the building up of suitable reserve funds, the balance of the profits of the Reserve Bank should be paid over to the Government.

(vii) The Bank should be given the sole right of note issue for a period of (say) 25 years. Not later than five years from the date of the charter becoming operative, Government notes should cease to be legal tender except at Government Treasuries.

(viii) The notes of the Bank should be full legal tender, and should be guaranteed by Government. The form and material of the note should be subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council. A suggestion is made as to the form of the note.

(1) An obligation should be imposed by statute on the Bank to buy and sell gold without limit at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces, no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required.

(2) The conditions which are to govern the sale of gold by the Bank should be so framed as to free it in normal circumstances from the task of supplying gold for non-monetary purposes. The method by which this may be secured is suggested.

(3) The legal tender quality of the sovereign and the half-sovereign should be removed.

(4) Government should offer "on tap" savings certificates redeemable in 3 or 5 years in legal tender money or gold at the option of the holder.

(5) The paper currency should cease to be convertible by law into silver coin. It should, however, be the duty of the Bank to maintain the free interchangeability of the different forms of legal tender currency, and of the Government to supply coin to the Bank on demand.

(6) One-rupee notes should be re-introduced and should be full legal tender.

(7) Notes other than the one-rupee note should be legally convertible into legal tender money, i.e. into notes of smaller denomination or silver rupees at the option of the currency authority.

(8) No change should be made in the legal tender character of the silver rupee.

(9) The Paper Currency and Gold Standard Reserves should be amalgamated, and the proportions and composition of the combined Reserve should be fixed by statute.

(10) The proportional reserve system should be adopted. Gold and gold securities should form not less than 40 per cent of the Reserve, subject to a possible temporary reduction with the consent of Government, on payment of a tax. The currency authority should strive to work to a reserve ratio of 50 to 60 per cent. The gold holding should be raised to 20 per cent. of the Reserve as soon as possible and to 25 per cent. within ten years. During this period no favourable opportunity of fortifying the gold holding in the Reserve should be allowed to escape. Of the gold holding at least one-half should be held in India.

(11) The silver holding in the Reserve should be very substantially reduced during a transitional period of ten years.

(12) The balance of the Reserve should be held in self-liquidating trade bills and Government of India securities. The "created" securities should be replaced by marketable securities within ten years.

(13) A figure of Rs. 50 crores has been fixed as the liability in respect of the contractibility of the rupee circulation. Recommendations are made to secure that an amount equal to one-fifth of the face value of any increase or decrease in the number of silver

issue shall be added to or subtracted from this liability, and the balance of profit or loss shall accrue to or be borne by the Government revenues.

(14) The Issue Department of the Reserve Bank should be kept wholly distinct from its Banking Department.

(15) The Reserve Bank should be entrusted with all the remittance operations of the Government. The Secretary of State should furnish in advance periodical information as to his requirements. The Bank should be left free, at its discretion, to employ such method or methods of remittance as it may find conducive to smooth working.

(16) During the transition period the Government should publish a weekly return of remittances made. A trial should be made of the system of purchase by public tender in India.

(17) The cash balances of the Government (including any balances of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State outside India), as well as the banking reserves in India or all banks operating in India, should be centralised in the hands of the Reserve Bank. Section 23 of the Government of India Act should be amended accordingly.

(18) The transfer of Reserve assets should take place not later than 1st January 1929 and the Bank's obligation to buy and sell gold should come into operation not later than 1st January 1931.

(19) During the transition period the currency authority (i.e., the Government until the transfer of Reserve assets and the Bank thereafter) should be under an obligation to buy gold and to sell gold or gold exchange at its option at the gold points of the exchange. This obligation should be embodied in statutory form, of which the outline is suggested.

(20) Stabilisation of the rupee should be effected forthwith at a rate corresponding to an exchange rate of 1s. 6d.

(21) The stamp duty on bills of exchange and cheques should be abolished. Bill forms in the English language and the vernacular in parallel, should be on sale at post offices.

(22) Measures should be taken to promote the development of banking in India.

(23) Every effort should be made to remedy the deficiencies in the existing body of statistical data.

A Minute of Dissent.—Whilst all the members of the Commission signed the report, one of their number, Sir Purshotamdas Thakordas did so subject to a minute of dissent. In the first part of this Minute Sir Purshotamdas subjected the long correspondence between the Government of India and the India Office on currency policy to a detailed analysis. The conclusions to which he came were that throughout the Government of India had striven for a system following the Fowler Report—a gold standard based on a gold currency, and that their efforts were emasculated by successive Secretaries of State, who had in view which was often called the Gold

Dr. S. Dadabhai Naoroji, the author of the *Unsettled Standard*, is the one who has brought the movement of gold in India, but subject to this condition accepted the Gold Bullion Standard recommended by his colleagues. As for the proposed Reserve Bank, Sir Purshottamdas, whilst recognising that the scheme proposed might be the ideal to be attained in process of time, thought that the best immediate course was to develop the Imperial Bank into a central bank for India. The chief point of difference with his colleagues was however the ratio.

Dealing with the ratio of the rupee to gold, Sir Purshottamdas said that in September 1924 the rate was approximately one and fourpence gold. At that time the Government was pressed to stabilise at the then ratio, and thus legally to restore the long current legal standard of money payments. This it declined to do, and by limiting the supply of currency, the ratio was raised to one and sixpence gold by April 1925. He declined therefore to attach any importance to a ratio reached by such measures. Proceeding to analyse the course of prices and wages, he compared the conclusion of his colleagues that prices had adjusted themselves in a preponderant degree to one shilling and sixpence. For these reasons he recommended that the rupee should be stabilised at the rate which was current for nearly twenty years, namely one and fourpence. His conclusions were summarised in the following terms—

"I look upon the question of the ratio in this Report as being no less important than the question of the standard to be adopted for the Indian Currency System. I am convinced that if the absolute necessity of the free inflow of gold, which I have emphasised, is recognised, and steps taken to ensure it, the gold bullion standard proposed will be the correct one, and the likelihood of its breaking down under the strain of any convulsions in the future will be as remote as it can reasonably be. But I have very great apprehensions that if the recommendation of my colleagues to stabilise the rupee at 1s. 6d. is accepted and acted upon, India will be faced during the next few years with a disturbance in her economic organisation, the magnitude of which is difficult to estimate, but the consequences of which may not only hamper her economic development but may even prove disastrous. Such a disturbance and its consequences my colleagues do not foresee to-day. But the possibility of their occurring cannot be ignored. Until adjustment is complete, agriculture threatens to become unattractive and less remunerative than it is to-day, and industries will have to undergo a painful process of adjustment, unnatural, unwarranted and avoidable—an adjustment which will be much to their cost and affect not only their stability and their progress, but in certain cases, their very existence. And should Nature have in store for India a couple of lean years after the four good harvests that we have had, during the period of forced adjustment to a rate of 1s. 6d., the steps that the Currency Authority will have to take to maintain exchange at this rate may deplete

the country's gold reserves, and shake the confidence of her people in the currency system recommended.

A Survey.—The official summary of the Report, and the summary of the *Minute* on dissent, given above, do not however convey an idea of the far-reaching proposals embodied therein. These can be appreciated only if they are examined in connection to the currency system of India in its various phases since 1899. This was done in an article contributed to *The Bankers Magazine* by Sir Stanley Reed, which was recognised to be a fair presentation of the position. The main features thereof are reproduced below. There is here some re-tracing of the path laid out in the introductory section, but this is unavoidable, if the full bearing of the measures proposed by the Commission are to be appreciated. After describing the standard in force Sir Stanley Reed asked:

"What was the standard thus established? It is generally described in London as the Gold Exchange Standard. That status was never claimed for it by its principal protagonist, the late Sir Lionel Abraham, who described it as a "floating standard." The Royal Commission declares that "in truth in so far as it amounted to a definite standard at all, it was a standard of sterling exchange." Later, they show that "the automatic working of the exchange standard is thus not adequately provided for in India, and never has been. The fundamental basis of such a standard is provision for the expansion and contraction of the volume of currency. . . . Under the Indian system, contraction is not, and never has been, automatic."

However, the standard limped along until the third year of the war. The exchange value of the rupee was stable; prices adjusted themselves to the ratio; Indian trade and industry developed. From this narrow standpoint of profit and loss, the investment of the reserves, instead of keeping them in gold, resulted in a considerable gain to the finances, estimated in 1925 at £17,962,466. But it had three great drawbacks: (1) it did not inspire public confidence in the Indian currency at all; (2) it was a market which was on occasion deliberately cornered against it; and (3) it left the control of currency by the Government divorced from the control of credit by the Presidency Banks, afterwards amalgamated in the Imperial Bank of India. On this the Commission make a very suggestive comment: "when allowance has been made for all misunderstandings and misapprehensions, the fact remains that a large measure of distrust in the present system is justified by its imperfections."

There is, I think, an inadequate appreciation of the influence on the Indian currency and exchange of the war, and the action taken thereafter. The first break in the permanent ratio of one shilling and fourpence did not occur until 1917, when the full effect of dependence on the silver market was revealed. Faced by the unprecedented rise in the price of silver the Government of India had either to raise the price of Council Drafts or else the

the stability of the rupee was the main object of the Government. It was not until the year 1920 that the Government decided to take steps to stabilize the rupee. At this time the rupee was at a new ratio of two shillings gold when all gold prices were crashing. It is easy to be wise after the event, but if the Government had followed silver down, as it followed silver up there is no room to doubt that the rupee would have returned to its "permanent" ratio with no more disturbance than was inevitable under war conditions. However, this was not done. The vain effort to stabilize the new ratio was abandoned in September, 1920, and the two shilling rupee has since been a legal fiction. Left free from administrative action, the rupee fell below one shilling and three pence sterling and one shilling gold in 1921. Since under the influence of good harvests, it has climbed upwards and has been in the neighbourhood of one shilling and sixpence gold for the past twelve months. But it is not always realised in London that under these vicissitudes the Indian standard has legally perished. In the words of the report, "The stability of the gold value of the rupee is thus based upon nothing more substantial than a policy of the Government, and at present that policy can be found defined in no notification or undertaking by the Government. It has to be implied from the acts of the Government in relation to the currency, and these acts are subject to no statutory regulation or control."

The responsibility remitted to the Commission was not therefore the mere stabilisation of the rupee, but the establishment of a standard which would command reasoned confidence in India, to link the rupee to that standard, and to provide for its statutory control, automatic working and stability, to bring the control of currency and of credit under a single authority and to free the Indian currency and exchange system from the dominance of the silver market. In short, it was to establish the rule of law in place of the practice of administrative discretion.

Scheme for a Gold Currency.—In the course of their inquiries in India the Commission had placed before them a scheme for the immediate establishment of a gold bullion standard, and its early conversion into the gold standard supported by the gold currency which a large body of Indian opinion has insistently demanded. The scheme was presented by the officials of the Finance Department, but it is known to be the work of the Finance Member, Mr Basil Blackett, whose work in India is of the greatest value.

The essential features of this Scheme were the undertaking of a statutory obligation by Government to buy and sell gold bullion in 400oz. bars; as soon as sufficient gold was available to put a gold coin in circulation; after a period tentatively fixed at five years to undertake to give gold coin in exchange for notes and rupees, and after a further period, also tentatively fixed at five years, make the silver rupee legal tender only for sums up to a small fixed amount. The scheme involved the

disposal of 687 million sterling of gold in the form of credits in London or New York. The cost was estimated at one and two-thirds crores of rupees per annum during the first five years and thereafter from two-thirds of a crore to 1½ crores.

This scheme is subjected by the Commission to a detailed examination, and rejected on grounds which are convincing. The main grounds for this decision are that the estimates of the amount and time of the gold demand are uncertain, and the absorption by India of this £108 millions of gold, in addition to the normal absorption for the arts, hoards, etc., would powerfully react on the supplies of credit, the rates of interest, and gold prices, throughout the world. The reaction on the silver market from the dethronement of the rupee and realisation of this large quantity of silver bullion would be even more marked, with severely prejudicial effects on the silver hoards of the people of India and the exchanges with China, where India still does a large business. Moreover, the capacity to raise the required credits is doubtful and the cost is placed by the India Office at Rs. 3 crores a year.

The evidence of the highest financial authorities in London and New York established beyond doubt that it is not in the interests of India to precipitate any currency reform that would violently disturb the gold and silver markets, however desirable that reform might be in itself. Also, that whilst London, working in close harmony with New York, would strain every nerve to supply India with the funds she might require for her own development, it could hardly be expected to provide credits for a scheme which would upset the gold and silver markets. But whilst on these grounds the Commission were not able to endorse Mr Basil Blackett's scheme, there is no doubt that they were profoundly influenced by it in their own recommendations. The ultimate evolution of a policy which promises a cure for India's currency ills is therefore in large measure due to the courage and resolution with which the Finance Authorities in that country faced them.

A Gold Bullion Standard.—The currency system recommended by the Commission is a gold bullion standard. They propose that an obligation shall be imposed by statute on the currency authority to buy and sell gold without limit at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee, but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces, no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required. The essence of this proposal is "that the ordinary medium of circulation in India should remain as at present the currency note and the silver rupee, and that the stability of the currency in terms of gold should be secured by making the currency directly convertible into gold for all purposes, but that gold should not circulate as money. It must not circulate at first, and it need not circulate ever." In breaking adrift from any idea of a sterling exchange, or gold exchange standard, the Commission were powerfully influenced by two factors—the necessity for safeguarding the

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the country not only a real, but conspicuously
visible link between the currency and gold.

This reasoning is eminently sound, and the
scheme in its broad outlines should command
the unhesitating support not only of India,
but of all interested in Indian trade. India
will have nothing to do with any exchange
standard, its experience has been too painful.
Proposals to that end would be rejected by the
legislature and prolong the currency controver-
sies it is desired to close. The gold bullion
standard satisfies all the country's real needs.
Then, it will not give it the gold mint and the
gold currency which have long been demanded;
it involves the demonetisation of the sovereign
to which a sentimental influence attaches.
But whilst it does not do these things, it keeps
the door open. No-one contends that a gold
standard and a gold currency are immediately
practicable. The most rapid progress thereto
is embodied in Sir Basil Blackett's scheme,
which is full of uncertainties and risks. But
when the gold reserves are strengthened to the
 requisite point, the proposals leave India per-
fectly free to decide, through her legislature,
where a gold currency is worth the expense

We must, however, face the obligation
which a gold bullion standard imposes on the
currency authority in India: indeed the Com-
mission do not attempt to burke it. "The
obligation is to convert the currency, not merely
into foreign exchange, but into metallic gold,
and it is an obligation that is not, as formerly,
conditional and circumscribed, but absolute
and unlimited. Nevertheless . . . it has been
undertaken by every other country that has
adopted an effective gold standard: and we
have satisfied ourselves that the present resour-
ces in the form of reserves at the disposal of the
Government of India are adequate to enable
the currency authority safely to undertake
the obligation, with the measures of fortification,
and at the time, which we specify." It is impor-
tant, therefore, to examine the reserves and
the procedure thereant.

The reserves held for the purpose of main-
taining the value of the token currency are two-
fold--the Paper Currency Reserve and the Gold
Standard Reserve. Their constitution on April
30, 1925 (the date taken by the Commission),
was as follows:--

Paper Currency Reserve.		Rs. Crores.
Silver coin		77.0
Silver bullion		7.7
Gold coin and bullion		22.3
Rupee securities		57.1
Sterling securities		21.0
		185.1

(The gold coin and bullion and the sterling
securities are converted at the legal fiction
ratio of two shillings per rupee)

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In theory the two reserves fulfil entirely
different functions. The Paper Currency
Reserve is the backing for the Note Issue. The
Gold Standard Reserve, accumulated from the
profits on coining, is designed to maintain the
external value of the rupee. In practice their
action is closely interlocked, and the first line
of defence in the event of a demand for remit-
tance from India is the gold in the paper currency
reserve. This invisible line of demarcation
will disappear if the Commission's proposals
are adopted. The Commission are justified in
recommending that the two shall be amalga-
mated. Their further proposals are that the
proportions and composition of the combined
Reserve should be fixed by statute; that gold
and gold securities should form not less than
40 per cent. of the whole with 50 to 60 per cent
as the ideal; and that the holding of gold, which
now stands at about 12.8 per cent. should be
raised to 20 per cent. as soon as possible, and
to 25 per cent. in ten years. Generally, they
period no favou
the gold holding
allowed to escape

The proposal to bring the combined Reserve
under statutory control is wise, an arguable
case could be made out for the thesis that the
currency difficulties of India have arisen in
the main from the decision of Lord Curzon's
Government not to invest the official acceptance
of the Fowler Report with legislative authority.
The strengthening of the gold reserves is in
entire accord with Indian needs.

The Ratio.—The majority of the Commis-
sion, Sir Purshotundas Thakordas being the
only dissident, recommend that the rupee
be stabilised in relation to gold at a rate cor-
responding to an exchange rate of one shilling and
sixpence to the rupee. Round this point con-
troversy in India will be concentrated; it is
worth while to refresh our memories of the
history of the ratio. The Fowler Committee
recommended that the rupee should be perma-
nently stabilised at one shilling and fourpence.
The Secretary of State for India accepted their
recommendations without qualification. The
rupee was substantially steady at this point
until August, 1917.

One principle advanced in Sir Dadiba Dain's
prophetic minority report in 1919, that the
legal standard of money payments should be
and usually is, regarded as less open to repeal
or modification than any other legislative Act
will command general acceptance. But when
Sir Dadiba went on to suggest that the Govern-
ment of India might have avoided this mea-
sure by larger borrowings in India and encou-
raging investment abroad he was on ground
where no one in touch with Indian conditions
can follow him. In the circumstances of the
day the Government had no alternative to
raising the rate of exchange save in declaring
the rupee inconvertible, which during the war
would have been disastrous. I must reiterate
the belief that the real mischief was done not
when the rate of exchange was raised to meet
the rise in silver, but when it was not lowered
as silver fell the attempt to the rupee

September, 1920, the rupee fell below one shilling and threepence sterling and one shilling gold. Thereafter, under the influence of a succession of abundant harvests, it recovered. In 1923, it was one shilling and fourpence sterling; in October, 1924, one and sixpence sterling and one and four gold. With the rise in the pound to gold parity, the rupee reached one and sixpence gold in June, 1925, and has remained there.

It is not, I think, open to doubt that if the vain attempt to stabilise the rupee at two shilling had not been made in 1920, or if advantage had been taken of its return to one and four, the permanent standard might have been re-established without undue disturbance. Sir Purnhotamdas Thakordas asserts in his minute of dissent that "the Executive had made up their minds to work up to a one shilling and sixpence ratio long before this Commission was appointed to examine the question. Indeed, they have presented to us the issue in this regard as a *fait accompli*, achieved by them, not having hesitated by manipulation to keep up the rate even while we were in session. I cannot conceive of any parallel to such a procedure in any country."

It is to my mind a great misfortune that the opportunity of restoring the permanent ratio of one and four was not seized when it offered. Not because there is any special sanctity in a ratio as such but because there is a sanctity in the legal standard of money payments. If this had been done the Commission's scheme would have received practically unanimous support in India; as it is a *violin* controversy will rage round this secondary issue, obscuring the great merit of the Commission's basic recommendation—a true gold standard, statutory in its composition and automatic in action, with the coalescence of the currency and credit authorities. However, we have to deal with facts as we find them. The majority of the Commission has their recommendation on the "conviction" which has been formed and cumulatively reinforced during the progress of our inquiry, that at the present exchange rate of about one shilling and sixpence, prices in India have already attained a substantial measure of adjustment with those in the world at large, and, as a corollary, that any change in the rate would mean a difficult period of readjustment, involving widespread economic disturbance, which it is most desirable in the interests of the people to avoid, and which would in the end be followed by no countervailing advantage." Sir Purnhotamdas Thakordas, in a closely-reasoned minute of dissent, supported by a wealth of figures, avers—and to my mind with conclusive force that the adjustments are far from complete, and cannot be completed in regard to wages without disastrous labour disputes. Both sides admit that their conclusions are weakened by the unreliability of the Indian index figures.

The truth, I suggest, lies between these two contentions. There have been very substantial adjustments to one shilling and sixpence; no

of the indebtedness of the agricultural classes of India—seventy per cent. of the whole population there has been no adjustment, not in relation to the land revenue they pay to Government. The ratio therefore cannot be determined as a question of academic principle, but is a matter of expediency.

Here, it seems to me, the decisive factor is the economic consequence of a return to one shilling and fourpence. There is no half-way house; the rate must be either the *de facto* one of one and sixpence, or the old permanent ratio of one and fourpence. The change would be immediate, not a matter of weeks or months, but of hours or minutes. There would be an immediate rise in prices of twelve and a half per cent. with a consequent reduction of real wages by that proportion; there would be convulsive disturbance of the foreign trade; there would be violent speculation. I omit all calculation of the effect of the lower rate on the finances of the Government of India, because this is an influence which has been over-valued in the past; it is infinitesimal in comparison with the industrial and commercial interests involved. No one who realises the sensitiveness of the Indian market, and the proneness to speculation, can contemplate these violent disturbances without a feeling akin to dismay. The balance of advantage lies with stabilisation at one and six, the controversy which must ensue is part of the price to be paid for the neglect to re-establish the permanent ratio when it was practicable.

The Currency Authority.—A feature in the Indian currency system little appreciated in Great Britain is the predominance of the Government. The Commission lay special stress on the disabilities this entails. "India is perhaps the only country, among the great trading countries of the world, in which the Government exercises direct control over currency in general and over the note issue in particular. The banking and currency reserves of the country are thus separated. . . . The Government controls the currency. The credit situation is controlled as far as it is controlled at all, by the Imperial Bank."

A volume might be written on this subject and on the controversy, the prejudice, and political harm which it involved. However, there is no useful purpose to be served by raking amongst these ashes, though the curious will find much food for thought in the historical retrospect, drawn entirely from official sources which forms the first part of Sir Purnhotamdas Thakordas's minute of dissent. The Commission hitherto to establish harmony between these hitherto diverse interests—though there has been a close working arrangement between the Government and the Imperial Bank of recent years, and the Government has developed the note issue with skill and enterprise—by the establishment of a new Reserve Bank. A detailed scheme for the constitution and working of the Bank, understood to be the handiwork of Sir Henry Strakosck, is embodied in the Report. The Reserve Bank, with a capital of five crores of rupees, is to have the sole right

the main duty of the Government and the duty of carrying through its remittances; it is to act generally as a bank of the banks, and its principal function will be to re-discount bankable bills held by the commercial banks. Subject to the payment of limited dividends and the building up of suitable reserve funds, the balance of the profits is to be paid over to the Government. In return for making over the note issue and the reserve, the Government is to nominate the managing-governor and deputy managing-governor, and three members of the Board—five members from a Board of fourteen. In order to free the Bank from political pressure, the Commission thinks it desirable to provide that no person shall be appointed President or Vice-President or a Local Board, or shall be nominated as a member of the Central Board, if he is a member of any of the legislatures.

The main principle underlying this recommendation is not open to question. It is of paramount importance to remove the Indian currency system from official management and to link the control of currency with the control of credit. This connotes the establishment of a Central Bank. But it is not the complete essential; far from it.

India is sometimes spoken of as the sink for the precious metals. So long as she chiefly absorbed silver the West looked on with benevolent approval; now she is turning to gold the attitude is different. Indian capital is sometimes described as inadequate and timid. But critics do not realise that the banking organisation of the country is so hopelessly inadequate that hundreds of millions of people have no secure refuge for their store of value other than gold and silver bullion in their own possession. The Exchange Bank cling to the seaports. The ... which can ...

The old Presidency Banks were lamentably slow in exercising this responsibility. The pace has been quickened, and as the price of the free use of the Government balances the Imperial Bank was called upon to open a hundred new branches. The total number of its branches is yet only a hundred and sixty-four, and it was stated by a competent banking authority in evidence before the Commission that India needed at least five thousand.

This extension of banking facilities is of transcendental importance. In an address to the University of Delhi last year Sir Basil Blackett committed himself to a remarkable statement. "To some it may sound fantastic, in view of this historic habit—reliance on external capital—to talk of India's not supplying the whole of her own capital requirements but also becoming a lender of capital for the development of other countries. Yet, I believe firmly that, given the necessary development of banking and credit facilities and goodwill and readiness to profit by the counsel and assistance of European businessmen, the time is not very far distant when India will be doing both these things. India would seem by nature to be destined to be a creditor country, if only her people will it so."

without the vehement development of branch banks.

As matters stand this work can only be done by the Imperial Bank, and though it is moving it is with desperate slowness. There are one or two features common to most of the proposed new branches it has opened. They attract deposits; they facilitate the investment habit but they do not pay. To many who are in close touch with Indian conditions it seems that any measure which would weaken the capacity of the Imperial Bank to prosecute this measure, five, but imperatively necessary, work by the diversion of the Government balances to the Indian Reserve Bank, or the division of those balances between the two banks, would be a retrograde measure. There are other considerations. The amount of ... in India is not large which finance the ex ... London, which is always ...

The number ... act on the directorate of banks is small. Are there enough to constitute the reliable directorates for two great banking institutions? The Commission rather glosses over these difficulties. They think that the Reserve Bank will be able to spare for the Imperial Bank sufficient funds from the Government balances to enable it to prosecute the work of opening new branches; also that a bill market will rapidly develop. But their arguments wear an aspect of special pleading. However, the issue can be put in a nutshell. India must have a central bank. It is found impossible to develop, even as a temporary measure, the Imperial Bank into a Central Bank, then there must be a Reserve Bank on the lines sketched in the Report. But if a new Reserve Bank is established, it is essential that provision shall be made for the Imperial Bank to enjoy the free use of a sufficient share of the Government balances to enable it vigorously to develop banking facilities in the moribund and this obligation should be made compulsory.

The Note Issue.—Before the war there was a considerable and growing circulation of sovereigns. On the outbreak of hostilities these disappeared as currency; the actual currency of India is a token, the silver rupees and another token, the note convertible into rupees. Ever since the breakaway from the accepted gold standard this obligation has imposed serious difficulties on the currency. It drove it into the very heavy coining which followed recovery from the famine of 1899-1900; it compelled heavy purchases of silver, which invariably rose in prices as the Government came into the market; and it placed the Indian currency system, as occurred during the war, at the mercy of the silver market. The maintenance of the convertibility of the note into silver rupees of the present fineness is only possible so long as silver does not rise above £4d. an ounce. The removal of this anomalous provision, the Commission says, is an essential step in Indian currency reform which must be taken sooner or later. ... the termination of ... is likely to be so ... by making the notes convertible into gold bars for all purposes, a more solid right of convertibility is attached

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The rise in the volume of the paper currency is one of the most remarkable features in Indian financial history. It developed from no change in the status of the note itself: it was always convertible on demand; but from increased facilities for the encasement of notes, beginning with the introduction of universal notes of small denomination and steadily progressing as experience was gained. We can therefore endorse the conclusion of the Commission that the best way to foster the use of currency notes is to establish confidence in their practical convertibility. "and this confidence has been secured now so much by a legal obligation to encash them at currency offices as by making rupees readily available to the public at centres where there is a demand for them." There has been another factor in popularising the note which commands less attention. The rise in prices made the rupee an unsuitable medium for large commercial transactions, from the bulk and weight of the amount of currency required.

The Commission therefore propose that whilst the legal obligation to convert into rupees all the notes in circulation shall remain, this obligation should not attach to the new notes to be issued by the Central Bank, and confidentially the one-rupee note, which had acquired great popularity before it was discontinued on the ground of economy, shall be re-issued. The legal obligation on the Central Bank will be to give legal tender money, either notes of smaller denominations or silver rupees, at its option: but it will be the duty of the Bank to supply rupees freely in such quantities as may be required for circulation, and of the Government to furnish the Bank with such coin. The currency position is such that the change in the legal status of the note will be unwise. India is suffering from a surplus of rupees, the total volume of which is estimated at approximately Rs. 400 crores. There are Rs. 66 crores of silver coin and bullion in reserve. The whole tendency will be in the direction of a return of rupees to the reserve rather than to an appetite therefor. Not only will there exist the fullest capacity to supply rupees on demand, but there will be a positive inducement to the currency authority to encourage a demand for rupees in order to get rid of its redundant stock. It is clear that the present opportunity of freeing the currency authority from the dependence on the silver market which has hampered India for so many years is exceptionally favourable, and should be seized without hesitation.

The reception of the Report followed very closely the lines indicated as probable in the article in *The Bankers' Magazine* which we have quoted extensively above. There was a considerable protest, strongest in Western India but shared in other parts of the country, against the proposal to stabilise the rupee at one shilling and sixpence and a demand for a reversion to one and fourpence. There was, particularly in Bombay, a reluctance to agree to the establishment of the Reserve Bank, coupled with the desire that the Imperial Bank of India should be re-modelled in order to make it the Central

Bank with the functions proposed to be remitted to the Reserve Bank. These voices were so loud that they overbore the consideration of the basic recommendations of the Report, a true gold standard, and the establishment of an organisation which would link currency with credit. In Bombay there was started a Currency League with branches in other parts of India, whose main efforts were directed to the rupee, and to the idea that the legal ratio should be one and four, not one and six.

In August 1926 the Government published the text of a Bill designed to fix the ratio at one and six, and to support it by the sale of bullion on the lines laid down in the Report. At the request of a large body of opinion in the Legislative Assembly, which urged that there had not been time to study the Report and that the papers were not available, the discussion of this measure was postponed until the 1927 session. On November 16th the Government of India issued a notification to the following effect:—

"After considering the report of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance, the Secretary of State for India in Council in agreement with the Government of India, is prepared to accept as a whole the recommendations of the Commission, subject to such further consideration of details as may prove to be necessary. The necessary legislation to give effect to these recommendations will be introduced in the Indian Legislature during the forthcoming session."

The new Ratio.—So far from closing the discussion, this notification intensified it. Feeling ran high on the subject of the ratio, considerable interests in the country being convinced that one shilling and sixpence was a higher rate than the manufacturing and agricultural industries could bear without prolonged and disastrous readjustment. These found strong expression when the Bill to give effect to the new rate was brought before the Legislative Assembly in February-March 1927. The Indian Currency Bill was however accepted by the Assembly by a small majority, and adopted by the Council of State. It established the ratio of one shilling and sixpence by enacting that the Government would purchase gold at a price of twenty-one rupees three annas ten ples per tola of fine gold in the form of bars containing not less than forty tolas and would sell gold or, at the option of Government, sterling for immediate delivery in London at the same price after allowing for the normal cost of transport from Bombay to London. A rate of one shilling fivepence fourteen sixths was notified as Government's selling rate for sterling to meet these obligations.

Although mutterings are still heard, and the textile interests of Western India that the depression from which they are suffering is in considerable part the outcome of the new rate, exchange was firm for the remainder of the year, the fluctuations being of little account. So far as outward signs are conspicuous, the new rate is well established.

The character of the Reserves which are the backbone of the Indian currency system are shown below:—

The R serves

MONTH.	Gross circulation of notes.	Silver coin in India	Gold coin and bullion in India.	Silver bullion under coinage.	Gold coin and bullion in England.	Silver coin and bullion in His Majesty's Dominions	Gold coin and bullion in His Majesty's Dominions.	Silver bullion in transit between India and England and His Majesty's Dominions.	Netting securities in England.	Rupce securities in India.	Int. a Bill of exchange
1926.											
April	1,85,13	77,04	22,32	7,66	21,00	57,11	..
May	1,87,08	78,85	22,32	7,75	21,00	57,10	..
June	1,91,41	83,05	22,32	7,87	21,00	57,20	..
July	1,97,48	88,91	22,32	7,94	21,00	57,31	..
August	2,00,58	91,06	22,32	7,87	21,00	57,38	..
September	1,06,45	94,86	22,32	8,04	14,00	57,40	..
October	1,92,79	96,83	22,32	8,04	14,00	53,60	..
November	1,89,16	97,52	22,32	8,04	10,00	51,27	..
December	1,81,18	95,32	22,32	8,20	5,57	49,77	..
1927.											
January	1,80,47	94,47	22,32	8,34	5,57	49,77	..
February	1,82,71	94,61	22,32	8,41	5,57	49,77	2,00
March	1,84,13	95,94	22,32	8,53	5,57	49,77	2,00

d up

	Nominal Value.			Cost Price.		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Rupees securities—						
Government of India securities maturing within twelve months.	41,47,00,000	0	0	39,76,59,000	0	0
Other Government securities	10,20,81,500	0	0	9,09,99,915	10	0
	51,67,81,500	0	0	48,86,58,915	10	0
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Sterling securities—						
British Treasury Bills	5,625,000	0	0	5,371,685	11	3

Statistics, etc., regarding the Gold Standard Reserve.

The total receipts from profits on coinage, interest and discount, and profit by exchange up to 31st March, 1927, were as follows:—

Profits on Coinage—from 1900-01	£
Interest and discount	28,573,508
Profit by exchange	23,312,551
	104,917

52,081,977

Of this sum, £1,123,855 has been used for capital expenditure on railways; the remainder, out of which £2,886,217 has been transferred to the Paper Currency Reserve in reduction of created Rupee securities and £6,471,738 has been transferred to Revenue, has been credited to the Reserve. The following table shows the disposal of the sums paid to the Reserve up to 31st March, 1927 and the composition of the Reserve on that date:—

<i>Summary of Transactions.</i>		<i>State of Reserve, 31st March, 1927.</i>	
Profits on Coinage paid to Gold Standard Reserve—	£	Sterling Securities held in England	£
Total Profits realized since 1st April, 1900	28,573,508	(estimated value):	
Deduct amount used for Capital Expenditure on Railways	1,123,855	National War Loan	1,896,018
	27,449,653	National War Bonds	8,275,343
Interest and discount received up to 31st March, 1927	28,573,508	Treasury Bonds	22,187,849
Profit by exchange	104,917	Treasury Bills	5,810,478
Profit through appreciation	44,024		36,269,688
	28,952,505	Gold deposited at Bank of England	1,730,131
Profits and Interest paid to Reserve from 1st April, 1900, to 31st March 1927	51,402,316	Cash held in England	153
Deduct—			
Loss on Sale, Redemption, and Conversion of Securities	2,042,817		
Transferred to Paper Currency Reserve in reduction of created securities	2,886,217		
Transferred to Revenue	6,471,738		
Miscellaneous Charges	20,574		
	11,402,346		
Amount of Reserve on 31st March, 1927	£40,000,000		£40,000,000

THE RESERVE BANK.

A second part of the scheme formulated by Currency Commission was the formation of a Reserve Bank, to take over the Note Issue, custody of the Government remittances, and act as a true banker's bank. The Commission pointed out that India was one of the few great countries where the control of currency was divorced from the control of credit, and where Government carried out immense financial transactions through its own agency, and propose the Reserve Bank as the apex of the new financial system.

The Government accepted these recommendations, and in January 1927 introduced a Bill to give effect to the Commission's advice. They proposed a shareholder's bank, with a commercial directorate tempered by Government nominees, and a new agreement with the Imperial Bank freeing it from some of the restrictions imposed. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee, when a marked divergence of opinion was manifested. A majority of the Committee earned recommendations for the transference of a shareholder's bank into a State Bank, with a strong element of directors selected by the legislatures. This changed Bill was before the legislature in September, and was withdrawn by the Government for further consideration, it being understood that the Secretary of State for India objected to the drastic changes made in the original scheme.

These objections to the original scheme have been summarised under the following heads. That a Reserve Bank in charge of the credit and currency should be responsible to the legislature; that only a State Bank would carry the confidence of the people; that a Reserve Bank does not require much capital, and therefore there was no need to create a body of shareholders; and that if a bank with share capital was created, there was the risk of it falling under the domination of foreign capitalists, or of Indian capitalists in the big cities.

The real ground of objection was the first; the legislature sought to make the Bank responsible to the legislature; that opened the great question whether the Reserve Bank should be commercial or political.

The New Bill. After conferring with the authorities in London, the Finance Member published in January 1928 the draft of an entirely new Bill. On the main point it was uncompromising. It provided for a shareholder's bank, with a capital of five crores of rupees, and it entirely excluded political interest in the management by stipulating that members of the legislatures were precluded from becoming directors. On all other points it sought to meet the objections to the original scheme. The provisions in this respect governed the directorate and the qualifications for shareholders. As these are important they are set out here—

The Shareholders.—(1) The original share capital of the Bank shall be five crores of rupees divided into shares of one hundred rupees each, which shall be fully paid up.

(2) No amount in excess of twenty thousand rupees shall be issued to any one person or to any two or more persons jointly, and no person shall be allowed to acquire an interest in the share capital of the Bank, whether held in his own right, or held jointly with others, or held partly in his own right and partly jointly with others, to a value in excess of twenty thousand rupees.

(3) Separate registers of shareholders shall be maintained at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Rangoon and Delhi, and a separate issue of shares shall be made in each of the areas served by those registers, as hereinafter defined, and shares shall not be transferable from one register to another save in accordance with conditions to be prescribed by the Governor-General in Council.

(4) A shareholder shall be qualified to be registered as such in any area in which he is ordinarily resident or has his principal place of business in India, but no person shall be registered as a shareholder in more than one register or as a holder of an interest in the share capital of a total nominal value exceeding twenty thousand rupees; and no person who is not—

(a) domiciled in India, or

(b) a British subject ordinarily resident in India, or

(c) a company registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1913, or a society registered under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912, or a scheduled bank, or a corporation or company incorporated by or under an Act of Parliament or any law for the time being in force in any of His Majesty's dominions and having a branch in British India, shall be registered as a shareholder or be entitled to payment of any dividend on any share.

Management.—The essential clauses of the Bill relating to the management of the Bank are:—

The general superintendence of the affairs and business of the Bank shall be entrusted to a Board of Directors which may exercise all powers and do all such acts and things as may be exercised or done by the Bank and are not by this Act expressly directed or required to be done by the Bank in general meeting.

Save as expressly provided in this Act—(a) no person may be a Director who is not or has not at some time been—(i) actively engaged in agriculture, commerce, finance or industry, or (ii) a director of any company as defined in clause (2) of section 2 of the Indian Companies Act, 1913, or of a corporation or company incorporated by or under any law for the time being in force in any place outside British India; and (b) no person may be a Director who is—(i) a government official, or (ii) an officer or employee of any bank or (iii) a director of any bank, other than a registered society as defined in clause (e) of section 2 of the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912.

The election or appointment as Director of any person who is a member of the Indian Legislature or of a local Legislature shall be void, unless within one month of the date of his election or appointment he ceases to be such member and if any Director is elected or nominated as

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five years, at a convenient time before the expiry of the term of office of the retiring Directors for the election of whose successors the delegates are to be elected.

(5) Delegates shall hold office for a period of five years.

The Board shall consist of the following Directors, namely:—(a) a Governor and two Deputy Governors to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council after consideration of any recommendation made by the Board in that behalf; (b) four Directors to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council; (c) two Directors to be elected by the Associated Chambers of Commerce; (d) two Directors to be elected by the Federation of the Indian Chambers of Commerce; (e) one Director, representing the

(f) eleven Directors to be elected on behalf of the shareholders on the various registers. (g) one government official to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

The shareholders registered on the various registers shall elect delegates for the purpose of electing Directors to represent them on the Board, and the numbers of delegates shall be as follows, namely:—(a) for the Bombay register—twenty-four members; (b) for the Calcutta register—twenty-four members; (c) for the Madras register—ten members; (d) for the Bangalore register—ten members; (e) for the Delhi register—twenty-four members.

Reception of the Bill.—When the Bill was published many of those who were opposed to the original scheme seemed to be chary of committing themselves to an opinion. But the general attitude may be fairly indicated in these terms. By those who accepted the idea of a shareholders' bank, the Bill was regarded as a considerable improvement, inasmuch as it safeguarded the country against either alien or capitalist control, and gave every part of the country, and every important interest, representation on the directorate. Those who wanted a State, or in other terms a political bank, stood fast in

rooted that to select legislature, it was unconstitutional to withdraw it and substitute a fresh measure; the correct procedure, they maintained was for the original Bill, as amended by the Select Committee and the legislature to be proceeded with. That was the position on the eve of the meeting of the legislature early in February 1928.

Agriculture.

As crops depend on the existence of plant food and moisture in the soil, so the character of the agriculture of a country depends largely on its soil and climate. It is true that geographical situation, the character of the people and other considerations have their influence which is not inconsiderable, but the limitations imposed by the nature of the soil and above all by the climate tend to the production of a certain class of agriculture under a certain given set of conditions.

The climate of India, while varying to some extent in degree, in most respects is remarkably similar in character throughout the country. The main factors in common are the monsoon, the dry winter and early summer months, and the intense heat from March till October. These have the effect of dividing the year into two agricultural seasons, the *Kharif* or Monsoon and the *Rabi* or Winter Season each bearing its own distinctive crops. From early June till October abundant rains fall over the greater part of the continent while the winter months are generally dry, although North-Western India benefits from showers in December and January. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year, which is of considerable importance to agriculture, is none too favourable, but is not quite so bad as is often represented. The rainfall is greatest at what would otherwise be the hottest time of the year, viz., mid-summer and when it is most needed. It should be remembered that in a hot country intermittent showers are practically valueless as evaporation is very rapid. The distribution of rainfall such as is common in England, for example, would be of little use to Indian soils.

Soil.—For the purpose of soil classification India may be conveniently divided into two main areas in (1) The Indo-Gangetic plains, (2) Central and Southern India. The physical features of these two divisions are essentially different. The Indo-Gangetic plains (including the Panjab, Sind, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Assam) form large level stretches of alluvium of great depth. The top soil varies in texture from sand to clay, the greater part being a light loam, porous in texture, easily worked, and naturally fertile. The great depth of the alluvium tends to keep down the soil temperature. Central and Southern India on the other hand consist of hills and valleys. The higher uplands are too hot and too near the rock to be suitable for agriculture which is mainly practised in the valleys where the soil is deeper and cooler and moisture more plentiful. The main difference between the soils of the two tracts is in texture and while the greater part of the land in Northern India is porous and easily cultivated, and most near to the surface, large stretches in Southern and Central India consist of an intractable soil derived from the Deccan trap, sticky in the rains, hard and crumbly in the dry weather and holding its moisture at lower levels.

Agricultural Capital and Equipment.—India is a country of small holdings and the vast majority of the people cultivate patches varying in size from one to eight acres. Large holdings are practically unknown, and are mainly

confined to the planting industries. Farming is carried on with a minimum of capital, there being practically no outlay on fencing, buildings, or implements. The accumulation of capital is prevented by the occurrence of famine and the high rate of interest, and extravagance of expenditure in marriage celebrations. The organization of co-operative credit which has been taken in hand by Government and which has already proved successful in many provinces will undoubtedly lead to an increase in Agricultural capital.

Equipment.—For power the ryot depends chiefly on cattle which, as a rule, are light and active but possess little hauling power. The necessary tillage for crops is brought about by frequency of ploughings, the result being that the soil is seldom tilled as it should be. This is not chiefly due to want of knowledge on the part of the people but through want of proper equipment. The Indian agriculturist, as a rule, possesses an intimate though limited knowledge of the essentials of his own business, and fails, not only through ignorance, but also through lack of ways and means.

Implements are made of wood although ploughs are usually tipped with iron points, and there is a great similarity in their shape and general design. The introduction of iron ploughs has made much progress in the last few years and many hundred thousand are now in use. The levelling beam is used throughout the greater part of the country in preference to the harrow and roller; and throughout Northern India the plough and the levelling beam are the only implements possessed by the ordinary cultivator.

In the heavier soils of the Deccan trap a cultivating implement consisting of a single blade, resembling in shape a Dutch hoe, is much used. Seed drills and drill hoes are in use in parts of Bombay and Madras but throughout the greater part of the country the seed is either broadcasted or ploughed in. Hand implements consist of various sizes of hoes, the best known of which are the *kadal* or spade with a blade set at an angle towards the labourer who does not use his feet in digging, and the *khurpi* or small hand hoe. Of harvesting machinery there is none, grain is separated either by treading out with oxen or beating out by hand, and winnowing by the agency of the wind.

Cultivation.—Cultivation at its best is distinctly good but in the greater part of the country it has plenty of room for improvement. As in any other country success in agriculture varies greatly with the character of the people depending largely as it does on thrift and industry. In most places considering the large population cultivation is none too good. Agriculture suffers through lack of organization and equipment. Owing to the necessity of protection against thieves, in most parts the people live in villages, many of them at considerable distances from their land. Again holdings, small though they are, have become sub-divided by the Indian laws of inheritance without any regard for convenience, although very definite attempts are now being made by some of the Provincial Governments to remedy this evil by new legislation. Preparatory tillage

Actuals

Province.	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley	Other Food Grains and Pulses.	Total Food Grains and Pulses.	Oilseeds.	Sugar.	Cotton.	Jute.	Total Area sown.	Netso Area deducting increase and on.
Madrns	11,522,646	24,112	3,578	17,085,598	28,50,039	4,491,638	104,356	2,887,110	..	38,788,493	4,051
Bombay	3,109,540	1,590,789	27,503	10,357,500	21,495,332	1,157,741	71,827	5,471,080	..	32,980,510	801
Bengal	21,133,100	130,500	83,409	1,163,900	22,514,209	1,059,000	271,800	59,600	2,123,700	28,302,800	4,100
United Provinces	7,450,300	6,947,412	4,110,971	18,242,362	36,751,017	834,857	1,119,901	990,000	..	42,048,524	7,810
Punjab	908,026	9,481,900	804,342	9,575,535	20,829,802	912,832	849,927	2,701,836	..	39,709,855	8,69
Burma	12,238,910	69,202	..	1,427,010	13,734,061	1,074,517	11,843	461,168	..	17,912,550	66
Bihar and Orissa	14,113,100	1,161,700	1,322,300	9,469,805	26,066,200	2,035,800	200,400	84,000	263,200	33,009,200	5,46
Central Provinces and Bihar.	5,197,868	3,521,207	16,012	9,978,469	18,717,186	2,155,090	22,942	5,885,097	..	27,110,401	2,24
Assam	4,530,140	177,159	4,707,599	394,926	40,036	47,303	136,503	6,393,789	56
N. W. Frontier Province.	25,836	1,081,223	181,718	985,212	2,298,995	124,673	48,124	32,416	..	2,000,277	35
Minor Areas	83,181	57,907	56,623	229,168	326,870	57,597	8,167	5,936	..	723,874	8
Total	9,171,558	23,979,057	410,079	85,105,643	1,06,666,311	15,156,008	2,592,006	18,180,166	2,123,408	266,927,315	81,14

generally consists of repeated ploughings, followed as seed time approaches by harrowings with the levelling beam. The *Rabi* crops generally receive a more thorough cultivation than the *Kharif*, a finer seed bed being necessary owing to the dryness of the growing season. Manure is generally applied to more valuable crops like sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, etc. Seeding is either done broadcast or by drilling behind a wooden plough or drill. Thinning and spacing are not nearly so well done as they might be, and intercultivation is generally too superficial. Harvesting is done by sickle where the crops are cut whole, and there is little waste involved. On the whole the methods of the ryot if carried out thoroughly would be quite satisfactory, but it is doubtful if this could be done with the number and quality of cattle at his disposal.

Irrigation is necessary in order to grow full crops on the land, over a large part of the country owing to insufficient rainfall and the vagaries of the monsoon. Canal irrigation has been greatly extended over the Punjab, Sind, United Provinces and Madras through Government canals which, in addition to securing the crops over existing cultivated land, have converted large desert tracts into fertile areas. The Punjab and parts of the United Provinces are naturally well suited to canal irrigation owing to the frequency of their rivers. The water is generally taken off at a point a little distance from where the rivers leave the hills and is conducted to the arid plains below. The main canal splits up into diverging branches, which again subdivide up into distributaries from which the village channels receive their supplies. Water rates are levied on the matured areas of crops. Government thus bearing a part of the loss in case of failure. Much of the land is supplied by what is termed *flow irrigation*, i.e., the land is directly commanded by the canal water, but a great deal has to be lifted from one to three feet the canal running in such cases below the level of the land. Rates for lift irrigation are, of course, lower than those for flow.

Irrigation canals are generally classed into (1) perennial and (2) inundation canals. Perennial canals, which give supplies in all seasons generally have their headworks near the hills, thus commanding a great range of country. Farther from the hills, owing to the very gradual slope of the land and the lowness of the rivers in the cold weather, perennial irrigation is difficult and inundation canals are resorted to. These canals only give irrigation when the rivers are high. As a rule, in Northern India they begin to flow when the rivers rise owing to the melting of the snow on the hills in May and dry up in September.

At the present time the Bombay Presidency possesses the most spectacular irrigation schemes in India—if not in the world. The Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar, 190 feet high, will have the greatest cubical contents of any masonry wall in the world; the Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, impounding 272 feet of water, is far and away the highest dam in India, whilst the Sukkur Barrage in Sind across the Indus will irrigate a desert whose area far exceeds that of any other scheme conceived by man.

Irrigation from Wells.—About one-quarter of the total irrigation of the country is got from lifting water from wells ranging in depth from a few feet to over fifty feet. Their numbers have greatly increased in recent years largely through Government advances for their construction. The recurring cost of this form of irrigation has, however, greatly increased owing to the high price of draught cattle and the increasing cost of their maintenance.

The Bombay Government have lately decided to mark time more or less on major irrigation schemes, however, and to concentrate on the construction of new wells and tanks and the repairing of old and disused ones. An official Water Diviner with wide experience has been appointed to locate underground water supplies especially in the "dry" or famine areas, and is meeting with excellent success.

Tank Irrigation is common in Central and Southern India. Large quantities of rain water are stored in lakes (or tanks) and distributed during the drier seasons of the year. The system of distribution is the same as that by canal.

Manures.—Feeding of animals for slaughter being practically unknown in India, the amount of farm yard manure generally available in other countries from this source thus does not exist. This is partially if not entirely made up for by the large numbers required for tillage and the amount of cows and buffaloes kept for milk. Unfortunately fuel is very scarce and a greater part of the dung of animals has to be used for burning. Most of the trash from crops is used up for the same purpose and the net return of organic matter to the soil is thus insignificant. In some parts cakes of oil seed are used as manures for valuable crops like tea and sugarcane but in the greater part of the country the only manure applied is the balance of farm yard manure available after fuel supplies have been satisfied. Farm yard manure is particularly effective and its value is thoroughly appreciated, but the people have much to learn in the way of storage of bulky manures and the conservation of urine.

Though much of the cultivated land in India is naturally fertile, the soil over large areas has been impoverished as a result of its being cropped year after year without manure. Various kinds of natural and artificial manures have been tested on Government farms and a small demand for them created by demonstrating their use in villages. The demand for artificial fertilizers is on the increase, and although a large portion of them goes to tea and coffee plantations, larger quantities are now being applied also to such valuable crops as sugarcane, cotton and tobacco. The chief artificial fertilizers now in use are sulphate of ammonia, calcium cyanide and nitrate of soda.

Rice—A reference to the crop statistics shows that rice is the most extensively grown crop in India, although it preponderates in the wetter parts of the country, viz., in Bengal, Bihar and Burma and Madras. The crop requires for its proper maturing a moist climate with well assured rainfall. The cultivated varieties are numerous, differing in qua-

Agricultural Statistics

223

Net Area by professional survey...	625,149,442	621,226,065	668,760,657	667,007,157	667,719,983	667,661,018	667,670,091
Area under forest ..	98,223,320	88,246,141	86,412,111	86,561,925	85,979,312	86,514,012	86,927,005
Not available for cultivation	145,760,969	141,504,618	153,178,429	152,015,021	151,841,176	150,971,049	150,104,444
Cultivable waste other than fallow	113,414,708	114,848,090	151,173,040	164,420,158	164,602,297	152,830,343	151,874,655
Fallow land	52,134,792	61,346,523	50,553,524	47,070,298	49,019,708	47,173,904	49,305,848
Not area sown with crops	222,625,487	212,260,506	223,183,048	224,915,489	222,490,718	226,980,218	225,846,78
Area irrigated	48,968,038	48,966,511	47,789,679	47,874,704	47,021,026	45,298,891	47,665,78
Area under Food-grains—							
Rice	78,706,103	78,120,270	79,699,370	80,576,926	77,200,711	79,306,299	80,171,58
Wheat	23,620,806	20,307,787	22,403,659	21,407,679	24,291,647	24,248,067	23,979,07
Barley	7,513,736	6,208,171	7,856,430	7,401,220	7,181,144	6,969,792	6,610,90
Jowar	22,488,240	22,490,318	24,214,289	22,834,088	21,138,172	22,470,373	20,616,751
Bajra	14,582,453	12,002,923	15,000,389	18,023,069	13,074,070	11,605,420	12,209,381
Ragi	4,222,306	4,238,057	4,211,067	4,282,040	4,220,442	3,080,098	3,882,857
Maise	6,456,116	6,306,020	6,384,705	5,954,053	5,811,693	5,347,964	5,504,307
Gram	12,940,458	9,468,432	16,054,866	16,776,986	14,437,912	19,551,817	14,325,194
Other grains and pulse	29,022,910	27,532,165	29,616,281	28,889,277	29,010,771	28,775,200	28,708,654
Total Food-grains	199,607,194	186,890,043	204,700,808	206,027,388	197,000,162	200,215,084	196,066,831
Area under other food-crops (including fruits, vegetables, spices, &c.).	8,434,666	7,610,459	8,194,791	8,226,438	7,954,130	7,793,934	7,757,486
Area Under—							
Sugar	2,813,428	2,705,778	2,522,176	2,865,491	3,044,711	2,654,870	2,502,006
Coffee	95,815	98,501	96,611	97,006	95,995	94,266	95,166
Tea	701,423	600,751	713,379	710,244	713,161	728,857	728,857

ty and as usual for various conditions and under an irrigation process and name acquaintance with those grown in their own localities. The better qualities are sown in seed beds and transplanted in the monsoon. Broadcasted rice is grown generally in lowlying areas and is sown before the monsoon as it must make a good start before the floods arrive. Deep water rice grows quickly and to a great height and are generally able to keep pace with the rise in water level.

For transplanted rice the soil is generally prepared after the arrival of the monsoon and is worked in a puddle before the seedlings are transplanted. The land is laid out into small areas with raised partitions to regulate the distribution of the water supply. The seedlings are planted in small bunches containing from 4 to 6 plants each and are simply dibbled into the mud at distances of 6 to 12 inches apart. Where available, irrigation water is given at frequent intervals and the fields are kept more or less under water until the crop begins to show signs of ripening.

Wheat.—Wheat is grown widely throughout Northern India as a winter crop, the United Provinces and the Punjab supplying about two-thirds of the total area, and probably three-quarters of the total output in India. The majority of the varieties grown belong to the Species *Triticum Vulgare*. Indian wheats are generally white, red and amber coloured and are mostly classed as soft from a commercial point of view. The grains are generally plump and well filled but the samples are spoiled through mixtures of various qualities. Indian wheat is generally adulterated to some extent with barley and largely with dirt from the threshing floor and although there is a good demand in England and the Continent for the surplus produce, prices compare unfavourably with those obtained for Canadian and Australian produce. The crop is generally grown after a summer fallow and, except in irrigated tracts depends largely on the conservation of the soil moisture from the previous monsoon. Rains in January and February are generally beneficial but an excess of rainfall in these months usually produces rust with a diminution of the yield. On irrigated land 2 to 4 waterings are generally given. The crop is generally harvested in March and April and the threshing and winnowing go on up till the end of May. In good years the surplus crop is bought up at once by exporters and no time is lost in putting it on the European market as other supplies are at that time of year scarce. In years of famine the local price is generally sufficiently high to restrict exports.

The Millets.—These constitute one of the most important group of crops in the country, supplying food for the poorer classes and fodder for the cattle. The varieties vary greatly in quality, height and suitability to various climatic and soil conditions. Perhaps the two best known varieties are Jowar (*Sorghum fuscum*) tall growing with a large open head, and Bajra with a close rat-tail head and thin stem. Generally speaking the Jowars require better land than the Bajras and the distribution of the two crops follows the quality of the soil. Neither for Jowar nor Bajra is manure

ally applied and cultivation is not so thorough as for wheat, the main objective being to produce a fine seed bed. The crop is generally sown in the beginning of the monsoon and so it requires to be thoroughly weeded in the case of jowar, however, very large areas are sown as a rabi crop. It is often grown mixed with the summer pulses and other crops in which cast thin seedlings are resorted to. The subsidiary crops are harvested as they ripen either before the millet is harvested or afterwards. The produce is consumed in the country

Pulses are commonly grown throughout India and the grain forms one of the chief foods of the people. Most lands do well but are subject to failure or shortage of yield owing to a variety of causes, which may be one of the most important. Therefore more suitable to grow as mixed crops especially with cereals, and are generally grown as such. Being deep rooted and practically independent of a Nitrogen supply in the soil they withstand drought and form a good alternation in a cereal rotation. The chief crops under this heading are gram, mash, mung and moth, gram forming the main winter pulse crop while the others are grown in the summer. The pulses grow best on land which has had a good deep cultivation. A fine seed bed is not necessary. For gram especially the soil should be loose and well aerated. Indian pulses are not largely exported although they are used to some extent in Europe as food for dairy cows.

Cotton is one of the chief exports from India and the crop is raised in all parts of the country. Generally speaking it is well suited for English mills. Japan and the Continent have, in the past, been the chief buyers. The crop is grown during the summer months and requires a deep moist soil and light rainfall for its proper growth. Rain immediately after sowing or during the flowering period is injurious. In parts of Central Western and Southern India the seed is sown in rows and the crop receives careful attention but over Northern India it is sown broadcast (often mixed with other crops) and from the date of sowing till the time of picking is practically left to itself. The average yield, which does not amount to more than 400 lbs. per acre of seed cotton, could doubtless be greatly increased by better cultivation.

Sugarcane.—Although India is not naturally as well suited for sugarcane growing as many other tropical countries, some 3½ millions of acres are annually sown. The crop is mostly grown in the submontane tracts of Northern India. The common varieties are thin and hard, yielding a fair quantity of juice. The juice is not made by the grower who simply boils down the juice and does not remove the molasses. The product called gur or gul is generally sold and consumed as such, although in some parts a certain amount of sugar-making is carried on. The profits, however, are small owing to the cheapness of imported sugar and there appears to be some danger to the crop if the present taste for gur were to die out. The

Area under Oilseeds—		Total Oilseeds	
Linseed	..	1,498,139	2,053,853
Sesamum (H)..	..	3,591,919	3,707,067
Rape and Mustard	..	2,979,484	4,232,822
Other Oilseeds..	..	4,302,850	4,902,524
	..	12,370,392	14,196,571
Area under—			
Cotton	..	14,111,976	11,556,595
Jute	..	2,472,938	1,505,527
Other Fibres	..	728,815	683,521
Indigo	..	241,461	328,829
Opium	..	128,884	122,883
Tobacco	..	932,482	1,050,685
Food crops	8,108,016	8,008,219
	..		
Yields of—			
Rice (Cleaned)	..	27,659,000	93,143,000
Wheat	..	6,700,000	9,374,000
Coffee	..	22,464,000	25,380,000
Tea †	..	345,389,000	274,263,800
Cotton	..	3,000,000	4,485,000
Jute †	..	5,915,000	3,985,000
	..		
Linseed	..	270,000	436,000
Rape and Mustard	..	859,000	1,183,000
Sesamum (H)..	..	382,000	518,000
Groundnut	..	1,022,000	939,000
Indigo	..	43,700	67,300
Cane-sugar	..	2,522,000	2,614,000
Rubber †	..	13,615,000	9,056,000

quinton has been taken up by Government and a cane breeding station has been recently opened near Coimbatore in Madras with the object of raising seedling canes and otherwise improving the supply of cane sets. A number of sugar factories of a modern type have been set up within recent years in Bihar and the United Provinces and more recently in Bombay. The chief difficulty seems to be the obtaining of a sufficiently large supply of canes to offset the heavy capital charges of the undertakings.

Oilseeds.—The crops classified under this heading are chiefly sesamum, linseed and the cruciferous oilseeds (rape, mustard, etc.). Although oilseeds are subject to great fluctuation in price and the crops themselves are more or less precarious by nature—they cover an immense area.

Linseed requires a deep and moist soil and is thus grown chiefly in Bengal, Bihar, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The crop is grown for seed and not for fibre and the common varieties are of a much shorter habit of growth than those of Europe: the yield varies greatly from practically nothing up to 500 or 600 lbs. of seed per acre. The seed is mainly exported whole but a certain amount of oil pressing is done in the country.

Sesamum (or *Gingelly*) is grown mostly in Peninsular India as an autumn or winter crop. The seed is largely exported.

The Cruciferous Oilseeds form an important group of crops in Northern India where they grow freely and attain a fair state of development. They are one of the most useful crops in the rotation. They occupy the land for a few months only, and owing to their dense growth leave the soil clean and in good condition after their removal. A number of varieties are grown differing from each other in habit of growth, time of ripening, and size and quality of seed. The best known are rape, tona, and sarson. The crop is generally sown in September or early October and harvested from December to February. The crop is subject to the attack of aphid (green fly) at the time of flowering and sometimes suffers considerable damage from this pest. The seed is subject to injury from rain and great care has to be taken in the drying. The produce is largely exported whole, but there is a considerable amount of local oil-pressing—the cake being in demand for feeding purposes.

Jute.—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, *Capanslans* and *Chlorinus*. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Eastern Bengal, in the Ganges-Brahmaputra Delta. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After about three weeks' submersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. At the recent high range of prices jute may be considered to have been, for the last few years, the best paying crop in India.

Tobacco is grown here and there all over the country chiefly, however, in Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madras and Burma. Of two varieties cultivated *Nicotiana Tabacum* is by far the most common. Maximum crops are obtained on deep and moist alluvium soils and a high standard of cultivation including liberal manuring is necessary. The crop is only suited to small holdings where labour is plentiful as the attention necessary for its proper cultivation is very great. The seed is germinated in seed beds and the young plants are transplanted when a few inches high, great care being taken to shield them from the sun. The crop is very carefully weeded and hoed. It is topped after attaining a height of, say, 2 ft., and all suckers are removed. The crop ripens from February onwards and is cut just before the leaves become brittle. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves different quantities of tobacco are obtained. A black tobacco is required for *Hooka* smoking and this is the most common product but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Live-stock consist mainly of cattle, buffaloes and goats, horses not being used for agricultural purposes. Sheep are of secondary importance.

For draught purposes cattle are in more general use than buffaloes especially in the drier parts of the country, but buffaloes are very largely used in the low lying rice tracts. For dairying buffaloes are perhaps more profitable than cows as they give richer milk and more of it; but they require more feeding. The poorer people depend largely on the milk of goats of which there are an enormous number throughout India. Cattle breeding is carried on mainly in the non-cultivated tracts in Central and Southern India, Southern Punjab and Rajputana, where distinct breeds with definite characters have been preserved. The best known draught breeds are Hansi, Nellore, Amritmahal, Gujrat, Malvi, and the finest milk cows are the Saurwal (Punjab) Gir (Kathiawar) and Sind. Owing, however, to the encroachment of cultivation on the grazing areas well-bred cattle are becoming scarce and some of the breeds are threatened with extinction. Efforts to improve the quality of the cattle in the non-breeding districts by the use of selected bulls have hitherto been frustrated by the promiscuous breeding which goes on in the villages.

The Government of India and all the Provincial Governments have now, however, turned their attention to the great problem of cattle breeding and have instituted a number of special farms where high-class stock animals are kept. In most cases these bulls are sent into villages to serve cows free on the one condition that the progeny are not allowed to deteriorate and that details of their history are given to the superintendent of the farm. Cattle-breeding, however, is naturally a very slow process and so, no appreciable improvement in the draught and milch animals of the country can be expected for many years, even though the official and non-official schemes now in operation continue to be as enthusiastically received in the villages as they are at

but no condensed milk produced in the towns dairy products are known to be bought unadulterated. The Government of India have opened an Anand Dairy Creamery and Butter Factory at Anand and an Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore where students are given courses for the Indian Dairy Diploma.

CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED, in 1925-26 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Area according to Survey.	Deduct Indian States.	NET AREA.	
		According to Survey.	According to Village Papers.
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
91,705,413	91,705,413	90,005,116
97,881,244	13,561,280	78,799,084	78,799,084
52,691,156	3,477,760	49,123,398	49,123,398
72,048,741	4,848,232	68,300,569	68,015,615
65,546,560	3,290,700	62,259,866	60,235,184
155,652,067	155,652,067	155,652,067
71,415,378	13,334,720	58,080,658	58,080,658
83,913,945	19,960,127	63,953,818	64,094,295
41,220,420	3,061,443	38,167,040	(a) 38,167,980
5,524,252	140,800	5,383,452	5,514,436
1,802,267	1,802,267	1,802,267
1,612,260	1,612,260	1,612,260
363,349	363,349	363,349
743,781,000	76,171,079	667,610,031	664,490,249

CULTIVATED.		UNCULTIVATED.		Forests.
Net Area actually Sown.	Current Fallows.	Culturable Waste other than Fallow.	Not available for Cultivation.	
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
33,538,765	10,148,823	12,361,551	21,117,148	13,165,789
81,285,312	11,806,710	6,959,893	19,701,296	9,246,839
23,841,200	4,656,769	5,824,062	10,217,170	4,583,568
84,800,050	3,383,663	10,197,481	10,063,865	9,264,216
26,015,019	4,159,987	15,859,263	12,549,507	2,171,712
17,273,801	3,764,080	60,123,352	54,530,268	19,821,480
25,140,300	6,533,827	7,060,772	7,702,435	7,567,624
24,870,181	3,266,520	14,724,474	4,516,316	16,416,804
6,828,473	1,884,953	15,864,153	5,510,500	3,747,246
2,304,531	471,801	2,723,582	2,655,447	359,125
299,439	212,622	311,301	665,694	112,411
136,982	172,358	11,690	324,045	357,185
510,197	24,330	62,374	71,458
225,345,734	40,305,848	151,874,855	150,134,447	88,937,005

of 382,660 acres of the Ballpara Frontier tract for which details are not

question has been taken up by Government and a cane-breeding station has been recently opened near Coimbatore in Madras with the object of raising seedling canes and otherwise improving the supply of cane sets. A number of sugar factories of a modern type have been set up within recent years in Bihar and the United Provinces and more recently in Bombay. The chief difficulty seems to be the obtaining of a sufficiently large supply of canes to offset the heavy capital charges of the undertakings.

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Jute.—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, *Capsularis* and *Qbtorius*. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Eastern Bengal, in the Ganges-Brahmaputra Delta. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After about three weeks submersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. At the recent high range of prices jute may be considered to have been, for the last few years, the best paying crop in India.

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It is noticed that the Government has decided to open a school for the purpose of teaching the art of milking and the management of the cow and bull. The Government has also decided to open a school for the purpose of teaching the art of milking and the management of the cow and bull. The Government has also decided to open a school for the purpose of teaching the art of milking and the management of the cow and bull.

CULTIVATED and UNCULTIVATED, in 1955-56 in each PROVINCE.

Area according to Survey.	Deduct Indian States.	NET AREA.	
		According to Survey.	According to Village Papers.
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
31,705,313	31,705,313	30,805,210
37,861,244	18,561,280	78,799,064	78,799,064
62,601,158	2,377,780	42,123,398	42,123,398
72,646,741	1,848,232	88,800,509	68,313,616
85,548,588	3,286,700	82,259,888	80,255,184
135,652,807	153,652,807	135,652,807
71,115,978	13,334,720	58,080,658	58,080,658
83,913,945	12,960,127	83,953,218	64,084,205
41,229,420	3,061,440	23,167,990	(a) 23,167,990
3,324,252	140,800	2,868,452	3,511,484
1,802,267	1,802,267	1,802,267
1,012,260	1,012,260	1,012,260
268,819	268,819	268,819
743,731,690	76,171,659	667,610,031	664,490,249

CULTIVATED.		UNCULTIVATED.		Forests.
Net Area actually Sown.	Current Fallows.	Culturable Waste other than Fallow.	Not available for Cultivation.	
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
33,833,765	10,143,829	12,351,351	21,117,148	13,168,789
31,285,312	11,606,710	6,969,898	19,701,205	9,246,889
23,341,200	4,656,769	5,824,662	10,217,179	4,583,548
84,800,050	3,883,583	10,497,431	10,063,305	9,264,216
26,015,013	4,159,987	15,859,265	12,549,207	1,171,712
17,273,801	3,764,080	60,123,352	54,530,248	19,661,166
25,146,800	5,553,327	7,090,772	7,762,395	7,557,924
21,870,181	3,266,520	14,734,474	4,816,316	16,416,804
5,828,473	1,854,978	15,864,153	5,510,500	9,747,246
2,804,581	471,801	2,723,582	2,655,447	359,123
209,859	212,622	311,301	565,994	112,411
136,282	172,356	11,690	334,045	357,135
210,157	24,330	62,374	71,458
225,545,734	49,305,848	151,874,653	150,194,447	86,937,005

of 222,560 acres of the Balipara Frontier tract for which details are not

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS.

The Agricultural Departments in India as they now exist may be said to be a creation of the last twenty years. There have for a good many years past been experimental farms, under official control, in various parts of India, but they were in the past to a large extent in the hands of amateurs, and the work of the Agricultural Departments, with which all the major provinces were provided by about 1884, was in the main confined to the simplification of revenue settlement procedure and the improvement of the land records system. In 1901 the appointment of an Inspector-General of Agriculture gave the Imperial Agricultural Department for the first time an expert head, and placed the Government of India in a position to enlarge the scope of their own operations and to co-ordinate the work being done on independent lines in various provinces. At that time, the staff attached to the Government of India consisted of an Agricultural Chemist and a Cryptogamic Botanist, while trained Deputy Directors of Agriculture were employed only in Madras, Bombay and the United Provinces and the Economic Botanist in Madras was the only provincial representative of the more specialised type of appointments. Within the next few years a number of new appointments were made, so that by March 1905 there were altogether 20 sanctioned agricultural posts; of these a number were in the Imperial Agricultural College, the establishment of which at Pusa in Bengal was sanctioned in 1903. A great impetus was given to the development of the Agricultural Departments by the decision of the Government of India in 1905 to set apart a sum of 20 lakhs (£133,000) a year for the development of agricultural experiment, research, demonstration and instruction. Their ultimate aim, as then expressed, was the establishment of an experimental farm in each large tract of country in which the agricultural conditions are approximately homogeneous, to be supplemented by numerous small demonstration farms; the creation of an agricultural college teaching up to a three years' course in each of the larger provinces; and the provision of an expert staff in connection with these colleges for purposes of research as well as education. The eventual cost, it was recognised, would largely exceed 20 lakhs a year. The Pusa Research Institute and College alone has cost nearly £150,000 including equipment. A part of the cost was met from a sum of £30,000 placed at Lord Curzon's disposal by Mr. Phipps, an American visitor to India. This example of munificence has recently been followed by Sir Sassoon J. David, who placed the sum of £53,300 at the disposal of the Government of Bombay for the establishment of vernacular agricultural schools and the improvement of agricultural methods, in commemoration of the visit of Their Imperial Majesties to India.

Prior to 1921, the policy of agricultural development in India as a whole was guided by the Government of India, but with the inception of the

transferred subject and provincial Governments were granted autonomy in respect of the policy of agricultural development in their provinces. The Central Government, however, still concerns itself with agricultural problems of all-India importance and maintains the following institutions under the administrative control of the Agricultural Department of the Government of India:—(1) Pusa; (2) the Imperial Research Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairy, Bangalore and Wellington; (3) the Imperial Cattle Breeding Farm, Karnal; (4) the Imperial Camel Breeding Station, Combaratore and (5) the Sugar Bureau, Pusa.

The net annual expenditure of the Imperial Department of Agriculture is about Rs. 9,50,000 or about £70,000 while that of the Provincial Departments of Agriculture is Rs. 73,68,000 or about £545,000. The total net expenditure of the agricultural departments in India is therefore about £6,15,000 or about one half penny per acre per annum.

Recent Progress.—A survey of the results of the activities of the Agricultural Department—including the Central Research Institute at Pusa and the Provincial Departments—shows that the Department is devoting much attention to the evolution and introduction of improved varieties. An area of 150,000 acres is now grown with the heavy yielding races of Indrasail, Dudsar and Katakara in Bengal alone, while some of the selected strains are steadily gaining ground in other provinces. The hybridisation of a race of transplanted rice shows promising results.

Wheat is the next important crop. The types evolved by the Agricultural Departments possessing high yielding and rust resisting qualities and good milling and baking properties are becoming very popular all over the land and give satisfactory results even under adverse conditions. Some of the new series of bearded wheats evolved at Pusa for tracts of country where the crop is liable to damage by birds possess equally satisfactory milling and baking qualities and yield as heavily as the popular Pusa wheat (12 and 4).

With a view to meeting India's requirements of refined sugar, which are greater than her own production, the Imperial Department is maintaining a cane breeding station at Combaratore. Cane Breeding Station are doing remarkably well and Combaratore 210, 213 and 214, the demand for which far exceeds supply, have well established their superiority over the old indigenous canes. Experiments are also, with the aid of the Indian Sugar Producers' Association being made with field and factory tests on all the more promising seedlings.

There has recently been a considerable increase in the area under cotton, especially roseum, a high ginning quality. The Indian Central Committee, of all

In particular to investigate—

- (a) the measures now being taken for the promotion of agricultural and veterinary research, experiment, demonstration and education, for the compilation of agricultural statistics, for the introduction of new and better crops and for improvement in agricultural practice, dairy farming and the breeding of stock;
- (b) the existing methods of transport and marketing of agricultural produce and stock;
- (c) the methods by which agricultural operations are financed and credit afforded to agriculturists;
- (d) the main factors affecting rural prosperity and the welfare of the agricultural population; to make recommendations.

It will not be within the scope of the Commission's duties to make recommendations regarding the existing system of land-ownership and tenancy or of the assessment of land revenue and irrigation charges, or the existing division of functions between the Government of India and the local Governments. But the Commission shall be at liberty to suggest means whereby the activities of the Governments in India may best be co-ordinated and to indicate

d. in which the may usefully supplement Governments.

The Commission commenced its work in October 1928 and during year heard evidence in and Madras Presidencies return from England in its investigations. Its report will be available 1928.

Another milestone in the history of agriculture in India was the Bombay Commission at Poona in October 1928. More than 135,000 people were employed in the scheme of the Bombay Commission. It was possible by the formation of rupees, and the residue turned into a Trust Fund being made an annual or The Show as generally proved ever held in Asia, and witnesses from all the provinces of the Royal Commission that at least two of the decided to hold annual large a scale.

AREA UNDER IRRIGATION IN 1925-26 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces.	Total Area Sown.	AREA IRRIGATED			
		By Canals.		By Tanks	
		Government.	Private.		
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres	
Madras	38,788,496	3,616,988	244,083	3,295,175	
Bombay	32,086,540	8,081,324	66,994	186,503	
Bengal	23,303,800	142,495	187,246	474,748	
United Provinces ..	* 42,646,524	2,231,399	26,949	67,679	
Punjab	29,709,855	9,499,141	471,674	20,293	
Burma	17,943,559	637,034	278,894	181,482	
Bihar and Orissa ..	30,609,200	872,010	870,085	1,815,388	
Central Provinces & Berar	27,116,461	† ..	1,084,041	† ..	
Assam	6,393,789	120	193,907	710	
North-West Frontier Province	2,660,277	363,058	401,679	..	
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana ..	335,938	15,709	
Coorg	133,193	2,488	..	1,339	
Delhi	254,693	30,361	..	542	
Total	256,987,375	20,531,913	3,827,002	5,809,618	

(x) Includes 343,245 acres for which details are not available.

(y) Included under

AREA
IRRIGATED

CROPS IRRIGATED •

Total Area Irrigated.	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or cholum (great millet).	Bajra or ambara (spiked millet.)
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
9,248,940	8,061,301	4,537	90	486,599	309,322
1,011,951	1,403,018	371,740	21,332	643,929	517,660
1,368,108	1,173,433	15,278	3,234	10	10
9,764,511	980,597	2,519,547	2,039,453	21,158	2,237
18,810,281	742,437	5,039,725	301,058	167,139	358,087
1,427,127	1,273,473	379	..	182	..
5,223,449	3,534,910	249,498	103,927	3,050	655
1,286,772	1,100,303	30,495	1,783	161	..
433,927	423,900
896,581	25,922	331,907	66,314	13,712	6,100
79,457	17	6,283	24,646	163	2-9
3,877	3,877
51,115	20	23,272	5,137	465	132
47,565,781	18,229,473	9,672,658	3,553,403	1,841,599	1,031,322

CROPS IRRIGATED *

Provinc es	Maize.	O the cereals and pulses.	Sugar- cane.	Other Food crops.	Cotton
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres	Acres.	Acres
Madras .. .	4,307	1,243,782	108,936	282,117	224 356
Bombay	23,987	250,231	67,262	206,554	390,048
Bengal.. ..	2,823	99,452	27,404	123,342	550
United Provinces ..	50,925	2,343,234	985,248	297,744	289 380
Punjab	378,984	1,097,608	302,179	233,027	2,421 080
Burma .. .	74	4,530	1,745	68,304	37
Bihar and Orissa ..	82,122	843,948	157,148	184,438	1 904
Central Provinces and Berar	14	2,069	21,216	65,284	623
Assam	1,845	..	6,974	..
North-West Frontier Province .. .	228,086	19,108	48,071	28,418	24,400
Ajmer-Merwara and Munpur Pargana ..	17,599	10,017	17	5,916	28,909
Coorg
Delhi	254	3,902	5,232	5,603	2,57
TOTAL ..	791,178	5,983,816	1,724,458	1,724,458	3,379,295

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

(a) Includes 35,900 acres for which details are not available.

ART. AND R. D. FREEMANT C. O. S. G. O. L. T. E.

V. E. C. H. R. O. C.

FOOD GRAINS.

Provinces.	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or Cholum (Great Millet).	Kajra or Cumbu (Spiked Millet).
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	11,322,646	21,122	3,572	4,546,213	3,071,173
Bombay	3,109,540	1,700,730	27,503	8,215,208	1,661,292
Bengal	21,133,400	130,600	88,400	4,000	2,100
United Provinces	7,450,302	6,347,412	4,110,971	1,980,655	1,574,123
Punjab	963,020	9,081,000	504,342	923,141	2,563,225
Burma	12,236,919	40,223	725,780
Bihar and Orissa	14,719,400	1,161,700	1,324,300	59,100	66,000
Central Provinces and Berar	5,147,808	3,524,207	10,042	3,827,993	113,760
Assam	1,550,440
North-West Frontier Province	21,536	1,031,228	181,713	61,357	156,065
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	287	8,100	36,156	63,340	27,010
Coorg	62,807
Delhi	27	20,708	20,188	20,757	21,019
TOTAL	59,171,568	23,970,437	6,810,072	20,016,751	12,269,81

Provinces.	FOOD GRAINS.				
	Ragi or Manna (Millet).	Maize.	Gram (Pulse).	Other Food Grains and Pulses.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	2,730,782	137,834	118,620	6,478,967	28,476,983
Bombay	271,714	202,558	520,173	2,129,560	21,496,532
Bengal	9,100	78,300	135,600	934,000	22,514,200
United Provinces	158,743	1,615,512	6,641,207	6,203,052	39,751,047
Punjab	17,462	931,014	3,700,597	1,431,003	20,829,893
Burma	221,383	163,100	317,602	13,784,061
Bihar and Orissa	779,900	1,678,000	1,412,100	2,434,800	28,066,200
Central Provinces and Berar	9,541	138,953	1,377,394	2,800,322	16,717,186
Assam	*	177,159	4,707,500
North-West Frontier Province	455,093	277,315	92,180	2,286,995
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	343	65,024	7,319	31,465	239,142
Coorg	5,507	129	1,167	87,670
Delhi	1,693	46,305	11,087	200,007
TOTAL	3,891,397	5,501,267	14,225,104	23,793,551	140,066,331

Included under "other food grains and pulses."

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1925-26 IN INDIA

Provinces.	OIL-SEEDS.					
	Linseed.	Sesamum (til or jinih).	Rape and Mustard.	Ground- nut.	Cocoa- nut.	Castor
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	12,279	789,859	12,171	2,598,609	555,485	377,86
Bombay	120,935	226,594	147,338	595,588	45,239	77 20
Bengal	133,700	152,900	731,200	400	600	
United Provinces ..	381,217	254,748	146,641	14,410	..	16,50
Punjab	29,438	124,661	751,585	104
Burma	16	1,162,862	4,540	498,587	11,040	2
Bihar and Orissa ..	686,700	218,100	753,000	200	28,500	44 400
Central Provinces and Berar ..	1,147,600	433,054	61,261	59,636	..	58,30
Assam	11,413	20,405	353,263	4 834
North-West Frontier Province.	11	4,085	118,050	
Ajmer-Merwara and Mampur Pargana.	769	31,554	366	
Coorg	125	6	
Delhi	181	4,513	
TOTAL	2,524,078	3,409,123	3,086,948	3,767,480	640,344	579,212

Provinces.	Condi- ments & Spices.	Sugar- cane.	Sugar Others. †	FIBRE.	
				Cotton.	Jute.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres
Madras	667,108	112,821	81,535	2,887,410	
Bombay	178,552	68,426	3,401	5,474,080	
Bengal	151,200	215,000	56,300	59,600	2,523,700
United Provinces ..	98,671	1,418,964	..	990,099	
Punjab	33,873	389,927	..	2,701,836	
Burma	90,723	23,276	21,587	464,168	
Bihar and Orissa ..	56,500	290,200	200	84,000	263,200
Central Provinces and Berar	84,841	22,942	..	5,385,087	..
Assam	40,836	..	47,303	136 508
North-West Frontier Province.	1,801	48,124	..	32,416	.
Ajmer-Merwara and Mampur Pargana ..	1,817	369	..	54,271	..
Coorg	3,562	32	..	1	.
Delhi	1,157	7,766	..	5,935	
TOTAL	1,369,805	2,638,483	163,523	13,186,166	2,923 408

† Area under sugar-yielding plants other than —————

TABLE III CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1925-26 IN EACH PROVINCE

Dyes and Tanning materials.		Drugs and Narcotics.					Fodder Crops.
Indigo.	Others.	Opium.	Tea.	Coffee.	Tobacco	Other Drugs and Narcotics.	
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
7,627	3,983	..	50,445	54,987	244,339	145,791	388,484
1,026	552,088	..	18	9	121,557	31,222	2,104,979
300	187,700	..	293,400	4,200	96,700
14,818	601	31,008	6,633	..	79,094	2,058	1,208,808
20, 28	5,888	2,022	9,635	..	70,800	714	4,273,436
885	55,105	40	86,165	67,619	235,418
18 900	3,000	..	2,100	..	132,500	..	39,100
28	73	16,905	1,577	464,375
..	416,577	..	9,161
..	27	9,943	16	92,333
7	37	..	2,039
..	623	40,130	19	206	..
..	1	883	..	26,656
183,618	564,611	33,030	723,857	95,166	1,064,862	253,403	8,932,358

	Fruits and Vegetables, including Root Crops.	Miscellaneous Crops.		Total Area Sown.	Deduct Area Sown more than once.	Net Area Sown.
		Food.	Non-Food.			
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
..	678,792	57,354	162,920	33,738,406	4,954,731	33,833,765
..	467,424	1,413	44,132	32,086,540	301,228	31,283,312
..	701,600	267,900	103,700	28,303,800	4,462,600	23,841,200
..	470,314	91,901	9,073	642,646,524	7,846,474	84,800,050
..	287,019	115,607	4,046	29,709,855	3,694,342	26,015,013
..	1,266,460	24,786	196,590	17,943,559	669,753	17,273,801
Berar.	674,700	604,100	312,200	30,609,200	5,462,900	23,146,300
..	106,691	2,791	843	27,116,461	2,246,230	24,870,181
Pro-	493,056	(a)	148,029	6,393,789	565,316	5,828,473
a and	16,726	45,947	609	2,660,277	855,746	2,304,531
..	639	2,293	2,555	335,988	36,049	299,939
..	5,296	138,193	1,211	136,982
..	5,589	233	1,025	254,693	44,503	210,187
..	6,173,306	1,214,375	986,722	256,937,375	31,141,641	225,845,734

(a) non-food crops.

245 acres for which details are not available.

in Ma and Indian hemp also.

Agricultural Statistics

Provinces.	MILLAGES IN OPERATION		Area irrigated.	Total Capital Outlay		Gross Receipt.	Working Expenses.	Net Income		Interest on Mean Capital Outlay	Percentage of Working Expenses to Receipts.
	Main Canals.	Distributaries.		Rs.	Acres.			Rs.	Rs.		
Productive Works.											
Madras ..	4,083	8,344	2,243,130	7,54,99,346	1,34,76,904	42,39,051	91,87,253	12.17	21,08,575	31.82	
Bombay ..	5,733	799	2,601,217	7,58,33,227	66,56,918	30,01,418	26,95,509	3.55	23,05,234	59.54	
United Provinces ..	1,459	8,810	2,579,725	15,32,41,070	1,30,70,742	48,14,218	82,62,524	6.39	50,43,481	38.80	
Punjab ..	8,022	12,820	10,436,359	27,91,16,936	6,32,32,131	1,50,70,133	4,75,61,698	17.20	98,73,340	21.78	
Burma ..	822	838	865,988	2,52,90,186	25,01,699	9,94,778	15,06,918	5.96	8,82,360	39.76	
Central Provinces ..	220	894	1,89,533	2,00,10,632	75,81,794	5,31,849	1,54,517	..	8,47,802	23.15	
N. W. F. Province ..	88	200	207,805	55,76,804	10,07,279	2,83,243	7,74,036	13.88	1,84,355	..	
Total ..	14,927	32,717	13,678,787	63,19,06,907	10,03,92,002	8,95,45,390	6,08,30,112	11.07	2,21,45,269	30.42	
Unproductive Works											
Madras ..	518	664	160,610	3,98,42,394	7,80,094	3,70,442	4,12,632	1.04	18,14,472	47.81	
Bombay ..	1,983	1,130	619,850	10,17,17,189	33,08,095	22,17,177	11,50,918	1.13	39,37,741	65.81	
Bengal ..	69	254	25,698	84,96,213	2,81,623	2,90,774	60,849	0.72	2,76,405	78.39	
United Provinces ..	428	1,362	216,234	2,97,39,571	6,88,429	8,65,319	1,76,890	..	10,20,292	125.73	
Punjab ..	573	150	300,139	39,11,462	8,64,813	9,89,473	1,24,660	..	1,31,019	114.41	
Burma	5,90,385	67,059	1,07,576	40,517	..	19,287	160.41	
Behar and Orissa ..	764	2,772	901,222	6,27,29,069	30,60,523	17,21,175	19,39,356	3.09	20,42,583	47.01	
Central Provinces ..	60	1,472	214,687	3,40,57,074	6,91,347	5,78,162	26,185	0.08	13,80,177	95.66	
N. W. F. Province ..	146	349	160,676	9,31,45,672	7,14,167	3,95,141	3,49,023	1.57	7,92,276	52.09	
Rajputana	
Baluchistan ..	8	71	22,839	83,47,933	1,08,381	73,768	31,123	0.97	1,13,141	63.0	
				31,66,112	46,627	23,584	8	..	11,261	11.44	

a summary of the various crop forecasts relating to the season 1906-7
 Government of India

crop, seed, and the figures and percentage of total Indian crop represented by them.	Estimated Area.	Per cent. of preceding year (100 = figure of same date preceding year.)	Estimated outturn.	Per cent. of preceding year (100 = figure of same date preceding year.)
Agal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam (100 per cent. of the total jute area in India.)	3,630,000 Acres.	116	10,849,000 bales.	121
P., Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Madras, Bombay and Indt., Assam, N.-W. F. Provinces, C. P. and Berar, Delhi, Mysore and Baroda (About 95 per cent. of total sugarcane area of India.)	2,920,000	103	3,203,000 tons.	108
cotton growing tracts	21,076,000	83	4,073,000 bales.	80
Provinces, Burma, Madras, C. P., and Berar, Bombay and Indt., Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Punjab, Ajmer-Merwara, Hyderabad, Baroda and Kotaht (99 per cent. of total sesamum area of India.)	4,784,000	93	407,000 tons.	87
Madras, Bihar and Orissa, United Provinces, Punjab, Bengal, Bombay, and Sindt (about 85 per cent. of total indigo area of India.)	100,400	75	20,000 cwts.	71
Madras, Burma, Bombay and Hyderabad (93 per cent. of total groundnut area of India.)	4,163,000	105	1,981,000 tons.	97
Madras, Bihar and Orissa, Madras, Burma, United Provinces, C. P., and Berar, Assam, Bombay, and Sindt, Coorg, Hyderabad, Mysore, and Baroda (97 per cent. of total rice area of India.)	4,872,000	98	122,000 tons.	92
Agal, Bihar and Orissa, Madras, Burma, United Provinces, C. P., and Berar, Assam, Bombay, and Sindt, Coorg, Hyderabad, Mysore, and Baroda (97 per cent. of total rice area of India.)	79,132,000	96	39,470,000 tons.	96
United Provinces, Punjab, Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, Assam, Bombay, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi, Baroda, Hyderabad and Alwar (94 per cent. of total rape and mustard area of India.)	3,491,000	99	983,000 tons.	103
United Provinces and Berar, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Bombay, Punjab, Hyderabad and Kotaht (about 93 per cent. of the total linseed area of India.)	3,348,000	93	497,000 tons.	101
Punjab, United Provinces, Central Provinces and Berar, Bombay (including Sind), Bihar and Orissa, North-West Frontier Province, Bengal, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Central India, Gwalior, Rajputana, Hyderabad, Baroda and Mysore (98 per cent. of total wheat area of India.)	31,244,000	102	8,948,000 tons.	103

Director of Agriculture, Bengal, the outturn figure includes Nepal.
 † Rajputana.

Irrigation.

The chief characteristics of the Indian rainfall are its unequal distribution over the country, its irregular distribution throughout the seasons and its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The normal annual rainfall varies from 160 inches at Cherrapunji in the Assam hills to less than three inches in Upper Sind. The greatest rainfall actually measured at any station in any one year was 905 inches, recorded at Cherrapunji in 1861, while at stations in Upper Sind it has been nil. There are thus portions of the country which suffer as much from excessive rainfall as others do from drought.

The second important characteristic of the rainfall is its unequal distribution throughout the seasons. Except in the south-east of the peninsula, where the heaviest precipitation is received from October to December, by far the greater portion of the rainfalls during the south-west monsoon, between June and October. During the winter months the rainfall is comparatively small the normal amount varying from half an inch to two inches, while the hot weather, from March to May or June, is practically rainless. Consequently it happens that in one season of the year the greater part of India is deluged with rain and is the scene of the most wonderful and rapid growth of vegetation; in another period the same tract becomes a dreary, sun-burnt waste. The transition from the latter to the former stage often occurs in a few days. From the agricultural point of view the most unsatisfactory feature of the Indian rainfall is its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The average annual rainfall over the whole country is about 40 inches and there is but little variation from this average from year to year, the greatest recorded being only about seven inches. But if separate tracts are considered, extraordinary variations are found. At many stations annual rainfalls of less than half the average are not uncommon, while at some less than a quarter of the normal amount has been recorded in a year of extreme drought.

Scarcity.—Classing a year in which the deficiency is 25 per cent. as a dry year and one in which it is 40 per cent. as a year of severe drought, the examination of past statistics shows that, over the precarious area, one year in five may be expected to be a dry year and one in ten a year of severe drought. It is largely in order to remove the menace of these years that the great irrigation systems of India have been constructed.

Government Works.—The Government irrigation works of India may be divided into two main classes, those provided with artificial storage, and those dependent throughout the year on the natural supplies of the rivers from which they have their origin. In actual fact, practically every irrigation work depends upon storage of one kind or another but, in many cases this is provided by nature without man's assistance. In Northern India, upon the Himalayan rivers, and in Madras, where the cold weather rains are even heavier than those of the south-west monsoon, the principal non storage systems are found.

The expedient of storing water in the monsoon for utilization during the subsequent dry weather

has been practised in India from time immemorial. In their simplest form, such storage works consist of an earthen embankment constructed across a valley or depression, behind which the water collects, and those under Government control range from small tanks irrigating only a few acres each to the huge reservoirs recently completed in the Deccan which are capable of storing over 20 000 million cubic feet of water. By gradually escaping water from a work of the latter type a supply can be maintained long after the river on which the reservoir is situated would otherwise be dry and useless.

The Three Classes.—Previously all irrigation works were divided into three classes Productive, Protective and Minor, but during the triennium 1921-24 the method of determining the source from which the funds for the construction of Government works was provided was changed, and now all works, whether major or minor, for which capital accounts are kept, have been re-classified under two heads, Productive and Unproductive, with a third class embracing areas irrigated by non capital works. The main criterion to be satisfied before a work can be classed as productive is that it shall, within ten years of the completion of construction, produce sufficient revenue to cover its working expenses and the interest charges on its capital cost. Most of the largest irrigation systems in India belong to the productive class. The total capital outlay direct and indirect on irrigation and navigation works, including works under construction, amounted at the end of the year 1925-26 to Rs. 99.84 lakhs..

Unproductive works are constructed primarily with a view to the protection of precarious tracts and to guard against the necessity for periodical expenditure on the relief of the population in times of famine. They are financed from the current revenues of India, generally from the annual grant for famine relief and insurance, and are not directly remunerative, the construction of each such work being separately justified by a comparison of the value of each acre protected (based upon such factors as the probable cost of famine relief, the population of the tract, the area already protected and the minimum area which must be protected in order to tide over a period of severe drought) with the cost of such protection.

Nearly a fifth of the whole area irrigated in India from Government works is effected by minor works for which no capital account is kept.

Growth of Irrigation.—There has, during the last fifty years, been a steady growth in the area irrigated by Government irrigation works. From 10½ million acres in 1878-79 the area annually irrigated rose to 19½ million acres at the beginning of the century and to 28 million acres in 1919-20, the record year up to that date. This record was, however, again surpassed in the year 1922-23, when the total area irrigated by all classes of works in India, excluding the Indian States, amounted to 28½ million acres. During the year 1925-26 the total area irrigated by Government works of all classes in British India amounted to some

23.1 million acres which almost approaches the record area of 23½ million acres irrigated in 1922-23 and is nearly a million acres more than in the preceding year. The main increase has been in the class of productive works, which irrigated 4½ million acres in 1917-18 and rose to 13,475,838 acres in 1922-23. The area irrigated by unproductive works at the end of 1922-23 was 2,716,171 acres.

The area irrigated in 1922-23 was largest in the Punjab, in which province 16,418,000 acres were irrigated during the year. In addition nearly 670,000 acres were irrigated from channels which although drawing their supplies from British canals, lie wholly in the Indian States. The Madras Presidency came next with an area of 7.4 million acres, followed by Sind with 3.3 million acres and the United Provinces with nearly 2.8 million.

Capital and Revenue.—The total capital invested in the works has risen from Rs. 42.36 lakhs in 1900-01 to Rs. 99.54 lakhs in 1922-23, an average increase of Rs. 180 lakhs a year. As regards revenue, the Government Irrigation works of India, taken as a whole, yield a return of from 7 to 8 per cent. on the capital invested in them; this is a satisfactory result as Rs. 34.87 lakhs of the total have been spent on unproductive works, which return less than 1 per cent. The capital outlay also includes expenditure on a number of large works under construction, which have not yet commenced to earn revenue.

Charges for Water.—The charges for water are levied in different ways in the various provinces. In some, notably in Sind, the ordinary land revenue assessment includes also the charge for water, 9/10ths of this assessment being regarded as due to the canals. In others, as in parts of Madras and Bombay, different rates of land revenue are assessed according to whether the land is irrigated or not, and the assessment upon irrigated land includes also the charge for water. These methods may however be regarded as exceptional. Over the greater part of India water is paid for separately, the area actually irrigated is measured, and a rate is charged per acre according to the crop grown. Lower rates are often levied in cases where irrigation is by "lift", that is to say where the land is too high for the water to flow on to it by gravity and consequently the cultivator has to lift it on to his field.

Various other methods of assessment have been tried, such as by renting outlets for an

annual sum, or by charging according to the volume of the water used, but these have never been successful. The cultivator fully understands the principle of "No crops, no charge" which is now followed as far as possible in canal administration, but has no confidence in a system under which his liability for water rate is independent of the area and quality of his crop.

*The rates charged vary considerably with the crop grown, and are different in each province, and often upon the several canals in a single province. Thus in the Punjab, they vary from Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12 per acre for sugarcane, from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7-8-0 per acre for rice, from Rs. 3-4-0 to Rs. 5-4-0 per acre for wheat, from Rs. 8 to Rs. 4-3-0 per acre for cotton and from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3-4-0 per acre for millets and pulses. No extra charge is made for additional waterings. Practically speaking, Government guarantees sufficient water for the crop and gives it as available. If the crop fails to mature, or if its yield is much below normal, either the whole or part of the irrigation assessment is remitted.

A somewhat different system, the long lease system, is in force in parts of Bengali and the Central Provinces, under which the cultivators pay a small rate for a term of years whether they take water or not. In these provinces where the normal rainfall is fairly high, it is always a question whether irrigation will be necessary at all, and if the cultivators have to pay the full rate, they are apt to hold off until water becomes absolutely essential, and the sudden and universal demand then usually exceeds the supply. By paying a reduced rate every year for a term of years they become entitled to water when required; consequently there is no temptation to wait till the last possible moment, and the demand is much more evenly distributed throughout the season.

Taken as a whole, irrigation is offered on extremely easy terms, and the water rates represent only a very small proportion of the extra profit which the cultivator secures owing to the water he receives.

Triennial Comparisons.—The average area irrigated in British India by Government works of all classes during the triennium 1922-23 was nearly 27½ million acres, which is slightly less than in the previous triennium. The areas for each of the three years were 26,302,303 acres in 1922-23, 26,539,390 in the 1923-24 and 27.2 million in 1924-25. The area irrigated in 1922-23 was the highest on record.

The results obtained in each province are given in the table below:—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1918-21.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1922-25.
Madras	7,276,257	7,112,082
Bombay (Deccan)	338,675	432,000
Sind	3,040,020	3,600,000
Bengal	108,618	98,640
United Provinces	3,501,848	2,300,069
Punjab	9,378,008	10,345,215
Burma	4,401,465	1,898,587
Bihar and Orissa	988,268	886,814
Central Provinces	331,551	135,858
North-West Frontier Province	341,809	371,782
Rajputana	20,497	20,543
Baluchistan	24,833	24,297
Total	26,787,300	27,325,397

Productive Works.—Taking productive works only, a triennial comparison is given in the following table. It will be seen that the average area irrigated by such works during the triennium was over a million acres more than in the previous period.

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1918-21.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1921-24.
Madras	3,755,814	3,681,940
Bombay Deccan	2,973	2,851
Sind	1,950,811	2,545,065
United Provinces	3,115,207	2,243,989
Punjab	8,480,798	9,714,815
Burma	951,975	1,065,402
Central Provinces	127,374	181,632
North-West Frontier Province	204,808	216,814
Total ..	18,589,760	19,652,514

Taking the productive works as a whole, the capital invested in them was, at the end of 1925-26, Rs. 64.96 lakhs. The net revenue for the year was Rs. 712 lakhs giving a return 10.97 per cent. as compared with 9 per cent. in 1918-19 and 3½ per cent. in 1919-20. In considering these figures it must be remembered that the capital invested includes the expenditure upon several works which have only lately come into operation and others which are under

construction, which classes at present contribute little or nothing in the way of revenue; moreover only receipts from water rates and a share of the enhanced land revenue due to the introduction of irrigation are credited to the canals, so that the returns include nothing on account of the large addition to the general revenues of the country which follows in the wake of their construction.

Unproductive Works.—Turning now to the unproductive works, the areas irrigated in the various provinces during the triennium were as below.—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1918-21.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1921-24.
Madras	281,608	290,854
Bombay-Deccan	242,388	263,363
Sind	1,047,268	833,391
Bengal	87,169	79,121
United Provinces	228,418	130,838
Punjab	46,149	65,844
Burma	3,368	6,379
Bihar and Orissa	935,955	959,607
Central Provinces	175,285	202,220
North-West Frontier Province	137,001	174,035
Rajputana	20,947	19,422
Baluchistan	24,833	23,635
Total ..	3,280,839	3,108,509

Non-capital Works The results obtained from the non-capital works are given below:—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1918-21.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1921-24.
Madras	3,238,835	3,179,388
Bombay-Deccan	159,214	157,036
Sind	41,941	52,365
Bengal	21,449	21,371
United Provinces	158,223	8,768
Punjab	748,062	684,745
Burma	505,622	559,012
Bihar and Orissa	2,413	1,898
Central Provinces	23,942	47,728
Total	4,896,701	4,712,311

The drop in the area irrigated by non-capital works in the United Provinces and Punjab is due to the exclusion of certain works owing to a change having been made in their original classification.

Capital Outlay.—The total capital outlay, direct and indirect, on irrigation and navigation works, including works under construction, amounted at the end of 1925-26 to Rs. 99,34

lakhs. The gross revenue for the year was Rs. 11.48 lakhs, and the working expenses Rs. 4.06 lakhs; the net return on capital was therefore 7.41 per cent. Of the several provinces, the return on the capital outlay invested in productive works was highest in the Punjab, where the canals yielded 17.2 per cent. In Madras the percentage of return was 12.17, while in the United Provinces a return of 5.39 per cent. was realised.

Irrigated Acreage.—A comparison of the acreage of crops matured during 1925-26 by means of Government irrigation systems with the total area under cultivation in the several provinces is given below:—

Provinces.	Net area cropped.	Area irrigated by Government irrigation works.	Percentage of area irrigated to total cropped area.	Capital cost of Government irrigation & Navigation works to end of 1924-25 in lakhs of rupees.	Estimated value of crops raised on areas receiving State irrigation. In lakhs of rupees.
Madras	38,788,000	7,413,000	19.11	1,247	2,705*
Bombay-Deccan	25,761,000	454,000	1.8	950	514
Sind	8,376,000	3,296,000	97.6	824	894
Bengal	23,841,000	100,000	0.42	420	124
United Provinces	34,191,000	2,791,000	8.2	1,830	1,850
Punjab	29,710,000	10,413,000	35.07	2,804	5,453
Burma	15,920,000	1,900,000	11.93	365	886
Bihar and Orissa	24,745,000	904,000	3.6	627	554
Central Provinces	17,867,000	443,000	2.5	541	235
North-West Frontier Province	2,660,000	893,000	14.9	287	300
Rajputana	225,000	12,000	5.2	35	5
Baluchistan	222,000	23,000	10.3	32	4
Total	217,311,000	28,122,000	13.9	9,354	14,554

* Exclusive of the value of crops raised on some 3 million acres irrigated by non-capital works

New Works. Two m o w l s i e c e p t n a m p o t n e a e n w u n d e c n s r u n n a n e y e h e S u k k u B a r r a g e d n n s s j a n d h S u V y C n a n t h e P u n j a b T h e S u k k u B a r r a g e, w h e n c o m p l e t e d, w i l l b e t h e g r e a t e s t w o r k o f i t s k i n d i n t h e w o r l d, m e a s u r i n g 4,725 f e e t b e t w e e n t h e f a c e s o f t h e r e g u l a t o r s o n e i t h e r s i d e. T h e t o t a l c o s t o f t h e s c h e m e i s e s t i m a t e d a t R s. 1,835 l a k h s, o f w h i c h t h e b a r r a g e a c c o u n t s f o r a b o u t R s. 500 l a k h s a n d t h e c a n a l s f o r R s. 1,265 l a k h s. A g r o s s a r e a o f 74 m i l l i o n a c r e s i s c o m m a n d e d, o f w h i c h 8½ m i l l i o n a c r e s i s c u l t i v a b l e a n d a n a n n u a l a r e a o f i r r i g a t i o n o f 5½ m i l l i o n a c r e s i s a n t i c i p a t e d, o f w h i c h 2 m i l l i o n a c r e s r e p r e s e n t e x i s t i n g i n u n d a t i o n i r r i g a t i o n w h i c h w i l l b e g i v e n a n a s s u r e d s u p p l y b y t h e n e w c a n a l s. T h e u l t i m a t e a n n u a l n e t r e v e n u e f o r e c a s t e d a s o b t a i n a b l e f r o m t h e p r o j e c t, a f t e r p a y i n g w o r k i n g e x p e n s e s, i s R s. 194 l a k h s, w h i c h r e p r e s e n t s a r e t u r n o f 10½ p e r c e n t. o n c a p i t a l. T h i s i s t h e r e t u r n f r o m w a t e r r a t e s a l o n e, b u t a f u r t h e r l a r g e i n c r e a s e i n g e n e r a l r e v e n u e s m a y s a f e l y b e r e c k o n e d u p o n f r o m t h e a r e a o f 3 m i l l i o n a c r e s o f w a s t e w h i c h w i l l b e b r o u g h t u n d e r c u l t i v a t i o n. T h e r e w i l l b e i n c r e a s e s o n t h i s a c c o u n t u n d e r p r a c t i c a l l y e v e r y h e a d o f r e v e n u e, s u c h a s r a i l w a y s, c u s t o m s, s t a m p s, e x c i s e a n d t h e l i k e, n o t t o m e n t i o n t h e a d d i t i o n t o t h e c o u n t r y ' s w e a l t h o w i n g t o t h e p r o d u c t i o n, o n l a n d a t p r e s e n t b a r r e n, o f c r o p s t o t h e v a l u e o f R s. 2,500 l a k h s p e r a n n u m.

The Sutlej Valley Works consist of four weirs, three on the Sutlej and one on the Panjab, as the Chenab is called below its junction with the Sutlej, with twelve canals taking off from above them. The total area to be irrigated is 5,108,000 acres, or nearly 8,000 square miles. Of this, 2,075,000 acres

a b p x e n a a n d 033000 n o n p n n g o n 9 000 a a n B r i t i s h t e r r t o y 82 00 n B a h a p u r a n d 11,000 a c r . . . n B i k a n e r .

The total cost of the scheme was estimated at Rs. 1,460 lakhs. Upon this a return of 12½ per cent. is anticipated from water-rates alone. But the scheme has another, and even more important source of revenue. On the introduction of irrigation, no less than 2½ million acres of desert waste, the property of the three parties concerned, at present valueless, will become available for colonisation and sale. It is customary, in the *pro-forma* accounts of irrigation projects, to credit a scheme with the interest on the sale proceeds of Crown waste lands rendered culturable by its construction, if this is included, the annual return on the works will amount to nearly 38 per cent. It bids fair, indeed, to rival the Lower Chenab Canal, the return from which during the past seven years has averaged over 41 per cent.

The Canvey Reservoir project, which will cost over 6 crores of rupees and will extend irrigation to a new area of 301,000 acres, was sanctioned by the Secretary of State in 1925. In Bombay Presidency the Bhandara Dam, 270 feet in height, was completed at the end of 1925 and the Bhatgar Dam at the end of 1928. The Damodar River (Canal) project was sanctioned in 1921, but has been re-cast in view of the rise in the price of labour. Excellent progress has been made with the Sarda-Gudri canals in the United Provinces. A comprehensive irrigation programme extending over a period of 14 years has been commenced in the Central Provinces.

WELLS AND TANKS.

So far we have dealt only with the great irrigation schemes. They are essentially exotic, the products of British rule; the real eastern instrument is the well. The most recent figures give thirty per cent. of the irrigated area in India as being under wells. Moreover the well is an extremely efficient instrument of irrigation. When the cultivator has to raise every drop of water which he uses from a varying depth, he is more careful in the use of it; well water exerts at least three times as much duty as canal water. Again, owing to the cost of lifting, it is generally used for high grade crops. It is estimated that well-irrigated lands produce at least one-third more than canal-watered lands. Although the huge areas brought under cultivation by a single canal scheme tend to reduce the disproportion between the two systems, it may be remembered that the spread of canals increases the possibilities of well irrigation by adding, through seepage, to the store of subsoil water and raising the level.

Varieties of Wells.—Wells in India are of every description. They may be just holes in the ground, sunk to subsoil level, used to a year or two and then allowed to fall into decay. These are temporary or *kacha* wells. Or they may be lined with timber, or with brick or stone. They vary from the *kacha* well costing a few rupees to the masonry well, which will run into thousands, or in the sandy wastes of Bikanir.

where the water level is three hundred feet below the surface, to still more. The means of raising the water vary in equal degree. There is the *piottah*, or weighted lever, raising a bucket at the end of a pivoted pole, just as is done on the banks of the Nile. This is rarely used for lifts beyond fifteen feet. For greater lifts bullock power is invariably used. This is generally harnessed to the *mot*, or leather bag, which is passed over a pulley overhanging the well, then raised by bullocks who walk down a ramp of a length approximating to the depth of the well. Sometimes the *mot* is just a leather bag, more often it is a self-acting arrangement, which draws the water into a sump automatically to the surface. By this means thirty gallons of water are raised with the simplicity, and the ease with which the apparatus can be constructed and repaired by village labour, the *mot* is unsurpassed in efficiency. There is also the Persian wheel, an endless chain of earthenware pots running round a wheel. Recently attempts have been made, particularly in Madras, to substitute mechanical power, furnished by oil engines, for the bullock. This has been found economical where the water supply is sufficiently large, especially where two or three wells can be linked. Government have systematically encouraged well irrigation by advancing funds to the purpose and well watered lands

De mbe to Mar h amounts to 5 26 nche while h total fa m he four mon hs Jun o Sep mbe s i 78 n hes showing that the a nfa of the wnt ab ou e y g ea e n h reeson than that of he sum mon soon. These two periods of subsidiary "rains" are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras is, as shown above, of considerable actual amount, while that of North-west India though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of Northern India.

Spring Months.—March to May and part of June form a period of rapid continuous increase of temperature and decrease of barometric pressure throughout India. During this period there occurs a steady transference northward of the area of greatest heat. In March the maximum temperatures, slightly exceeding 100° , occur in the Deccan; in April the area of maximum temperature; between 100° and 105° , lies over the south of the Central Provinces and Gujarat; in May maximum temperatures, varying between 105° and 110° , prevail over the greater part of the interior of the country while in June the highest mean maximum temperatures exceeding 110° occur in the Indus Valley near Jacobabad. Temperatures exceeding 120° have been recorded over a wide area including Sind, Rajputana; the West and South Punjab and the west of the United Provinces, but the highest temperature hitherto recorded is 126° registered at Jacobabad on June 12th, 1897. During this period of rising temperature and diminishing barometric pressure, great alterations take place in the air movements over India, including the disappearance of the north-east winds of the winter monsoon, and the air circulation over India and its adjacent seas, becomes a local circulation, characterised by strong hot winds down the river valleys of Northern India and increasing land and sea winds in the coast regions. These land and sea winds, as they become stronger and more extensive, initiate large contrasts of temperature and humidity which result in the production of violent local storms. These take the forms of dust storms in the dry plains of Northern India and of thunder and hailstorms in regions where there is interaction between damp sea winds and dry winds from the interior. These storms are frequently accompanied with winds of excessive force, heavy hail and torrential rain and are on that account very destructive.

By the time the area of greatest heat has been established over North-west India, in the last week of May or first of June, India has become the seat of low barometric pressures relatively to the adjacent seas and the whole character of the weather changes. During the hot weather period, discussed above, the winds and weather are mainly determined by local conditions. Between the Equator and Lat. 30° or 35° south the wind circulation is that of the south-east trades, that is to say from about Lat. 30° - 35° south a wind from south-east blows over the surface of the sea up to about the equator. Here the air rises into the upper strata to flow back again at a considerable elevation to the Southern Tropic or beyond. To the north of this circulation, i.e., between the Equator and Lat. 20° to 25° North, there exists a light westerly circula-

on the remains of the north-east trades that is to say about Lat. 20° North the air then east wind which blows southward till it reaches the thermal equator where it is deflected by the south-east trade. The air then rises above the surface and rises into the upper strata of the atmosphere. Still farther to the northward and in the immediate neighbourhood of land there are the circulations due to the land and sea breezes which are attributable to the difference in the heating effect of the sun's rays over land and sea. It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south-west monsoon period. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropic. Hence the thermal equator is also progressing northward and with it the area of ascent of the south-east trades circulation. Thus the south-east trade winds cross the equator and advance further and further northward, as the thermal equator and area of ascent follows the sun in its northern progress. At the same time the temperature over India increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trades circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south-east Trades, with its cool, moisture laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the Indian land area and the adjacent seas and India is invaded by oceanic conditions—the south-west monsoon proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people of India.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the Indian seas and the Indian land area from Lat. 30° S. to Lat. 30° N. the southern half being the south-east trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a continuous horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in progress so that where the current enters the Indian seas and flows over the Indian land it is highly charged with aqueous vapours.

The current enters the Indian seas quite at the commencement of June and in the course of the succeeding two weeks spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal up to their extreme northern limits. It advances over India from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats prevails more or less exclusively over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajputana and north Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current blows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards Burma; East Bengal and Assam while another portion curves so south at the head of the Bay and over Bengal, and then meeting with the barrier of the Himalayas curves still further and blows as a south-easterly and easterly wind right up the Gangetic plain. The south-west monsoon continues for three and a half to four

months, viz., from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During its prevalence more or less general though far from continuous rain prevails throughout India, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater portion of the Arabian Sea current, the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bengal current, blows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range, is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hilly range, the total averaging about 100 inches most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional uncertain rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it coalesces with the local current. The northern portion of the current blowing across the Gujarat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli Hill range but very little to Western Rajputana, and passing onward gives moderate to heavy rain in the Eastern Punjab, Eastern Rajputana and the North-west Himalayas. In this region the current meets and mixes with the monsoon current from the Bay.

The monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal blows from south west and is thus directed towards the Tenasserim hills and up the valley of the Irrawady to which it gives very heavy to heavy rain. That portion of this current which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of East Bengal and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances from the southward over Bengal, is then deflected westward by the barrier of the Himalayas and gives general rain over the Gangetic plain and almost daily rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikkim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar in the Punjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where neither current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is uncertain and would probably be light, but that the storms from the Bay of Bengal exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain.

The total rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast, the amount diminishes eastward, is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras; it is over 100 inches on the Tenasserim and South Burma coast and decreases to 20 inches in Upper

Burma; it is over 100 in the north Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

The month to month distribution for the whole of India is:—

May	2.6	inches.
June	8.3	"
July	11.9	"
August	10.5	"
September	7.2	"
October	2.2	"

Cyclonic storms and cyclones are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, viz., May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season. The following gives the total number of storms recorded during the period 1877 to 1901 and shows the monthly distribution —

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Bay of Bengal	1	4	13	28
	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Bay of Bengal	41	36	45	34	22	8
Arabian Sea	2	15	..
Arabian Sea	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
	2	..	1	1	6	..

The preceding paragraphs give an account of the normal procession of the seasons throughout India during the year, but it must be remembered, that every year produces variations from the normal, and that in some years these variations are very large. This is more particularly the case with the discontinuous element rainfall. The most important variations in this element which may occur are:—

- (1) Delay in the commencement of the rains over a large part of the country, this being most frequent in North Bombay and North-west India.
- (2) A prolonged break in July or August or both.
- (3) Early termination of the rains; which may occur in any part of the country.
- (4) The determination throughout the monsoon period of more rain than usual to one part and less than usual to another part of the country. Examples of this occur every year.

About the middle of September fine and fresh weather begins to appear in the extreme north-west of India. This area of fine weather and dry winds extends eastward and southward, the area of rainy weather at the same time contracting till by the end of October the rainy area has retreated to Madras and the south of the Peninsula and by the end of December has disappeared from the Indian region; fine clear weather prevailing throughout. This procession with the numerous variations and modifications which are inseparable from meteorological conditions repeats itself year after year.

MONSOON OF 1927.

The S. W. Monsoon of the year was not normally vigorous; but, though feeble in its initial onset, its progress on the whole over the country improved as the season advanced and finally approximated near enough to normal conditions. The distribution however was seriously affected by several storms which, as usual rising off the Bay drew marked concentration of rainfall over certain regions along the tracks of these storms, flooding the country, Gujrat, Sind, and Rajputana West thus returned heavy excesses respectively of 46, 40, and 29, per cent. over the normals of the season, at the expense of precipitation over other portions of the Continent. The Current on the Arabian Sea side was established on the Malabar coast practically about its normal time—27th May—and advancing northwards somewhat tardily, confined its activity only to the southern half of the Peninsula for over a week. It reached the Konkan coast on the 13th June and the Bombay coast on the 14th, about a week later than the normal date, and thereafter advanced well in time, to Gujrat and into the Deccan and the Central Provinces. Though the pulses continued fairly active over the Peninsula during the rest of the month they were too feeble to penetrate further northwards into Sind and Rajputana, and North-west and Central India.

The Bay branch of the current was established and was fairly pronounced in the South and Centre of the Bay about the last week in May, and under the stimulus of a small depression it extended well up into Chota Nagpur and Bihar early in June. And further strengthened about the middle of the month by a storm rising off the Orissa coast, the current was well helped in its advance past the Central Province into West United Provinces giving fairly widespread rains over the central parts of the Continent. On the whole however indications of the feebleness of this branch also during the month were fully apparent over the whole of its field of activity except in Assam. Thus the total rainfall in June averaged over the plains of India was in defect by 18 per cent. Hyderabad, Central Provinces, and Assam however returned fairly large excesses while marked defects were noted all over the tract of the country extending from Bihar and Orissa to the North-West Frontier with the exception of Gujrat.

Conditions in July improved but mainly under the influence of cyclonic circulation. A small depression off the Konkan coast followed by another over west Punjab helped the extension of the Arabian Sea current well into Sind, Rajputana and Punjab and the rest of other

storms in the Bay later sustained the activity of the branch during the month. The Bay current likewise struggling feebly to advance along the Gangetic plains into the Punjab, was strengthened during the month by no less than three storms rising off the Orissa coast, which following the usual north-westerly course determined heavy downpour all along their tracks. The storm of the 23rd July especially, which intensified on its passage as it approached Gujrat, concentrated heavy downpour of rain causing disastrous floods in Gujrat and Kathiawar. While yet a fourth storm off the Bay about the end of the month moving inland and disappearing after a short run over Bihar, caused heavy floods in parts of Bihar and Orissa. The rainfall averaged over the plains of India thus gathered for July was in excess by 12 per cent.

During August both branches continued weak their activity being influenced in the main by three Bay disturbances which concentrating the rains on tracks along their courses contributed to the large excesses returned by Rajputana Central India, and United Provinces West. Averaged over the plains of India the month's contribution however remained in defect by 7 per cent.

The severe weakness of the monsoon current of the year was evidenced by its retreat from North-west India early in September. In the Peninsula the retreat was for the time retarded by yet another depression which rising off the Bay and traversing now in the westerly direction crossed the Deccan and merging itself into a low pressure area off the Konkan coast, invigorated the Arabian Sea pulses which once again extended the rains into Gujrat and Rajputana. The activity of the Bay current was in the main confined during the month to Upper Burma, Assam, and Bengal influencing to a certain extent Bihar and Orissa also. The total fall for September was 12 per cent. in defect, though Malabar, Assam, and Bengal returned fairly large excesses.

During the month of October the activity of the Bay current was restricted to Burma and Assam in the main. A depression off the Orissa-Ganjam coast early in the month helped to extend the pulses over North-east India. The appearance of the North East Monsoon current about the 20th October confined at first to the extreme south of the Peninsula, determined the final recession of the S. W. Monsoon of 1927. The total fall for October was 7 per cent. in excess. The total fall averaged over the whole of India for the season June to September was 4 per cent. in defect.

The following table gives detailed information of the rainfall of the period June to September :—

DIVISION.	RAINFALL, JUNE TO SEPTEMBER.			
	Actual.	Normal.	Departure from Normal.	Percentage departure from Normal.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	
Burma	72.8	83.8	— 11.0	— 13
Assam	79.8	91.1	— 11.2	— 30
Bengal	57.0	60.9	— 3.9	— 6
Bihar and Orissa	40.1	45.5	— 5.4	— 12
United Provinces	35.8	36.1	— 0.3	— 2
Punjab	12.0	15.7	— 3.7	— 24
North-West Frontier Province	2.8	5.0	— 2.2	— 44
Sind	6.6	4.7	— 1.9	— 40
Rajputana	20.4	18.1	— 2.3	— 13
Bombay	38.9	37.9	— 1.0	— 3
Central India	29.5	38.8	— 4.3	— 13
Central Provinces	40.8	40.5	— 0.3	— 0
Hyderabad	26.6	26.7	— 0.1	— 0
Mysore	12.9	15.5	— 2.6	— 17
Madras	28.0	26.3	— 2.0	— 10
Mean of India	38.1	39.7	— 1.6	— 4

To the end of the famine in India, the general truth is illustrated by a study of the history of famine in India. For nearly forty years it was the bogey of the Indian administrator. The forecasts of the rains were studied with acute anxiety. The actual progress of the rains was followed with no less anxiety, and at the first signs of a bad or poor season the famine relief machinery was furnished up and prepared for any emergency. The reason for this is clear if we examine for a brief space the economic condition of the Indian peasantry. Nearly three-quarters of the people are directly dependent on agriculture for their daily bread. Very much of this agriculture is dependent on the seasonal rains for its existence. Immense areas in the Bombay Presidency, Madras, the United Provinces and Central India are in a region of erratic and uncertain rainfall. The rainy season is short and if for any natural reason there is a weakness, or absence, of the rain bearing currents, then there is either a poor harvest or no harvest at all. In Western lands everyone is acquainted with the difference between a good and a poor season, but western countries offer no parallel to India, where in an exceptionally bad year wide tracts of thickly populated land may not produce even a blade of grass. In the old days there were no railways to distribute the surplus of one part of India to the districts where the crop had failed. There were often no roads. The irrigation works were few and were themselves generally dependent on the rainfall for their reserves. The people lived from hand to mouth and had no store of food to fall back upon. Nor had they any credit. In the old days then they died. Commencing with the Orissa famine in 1865-67 the Government of India assumed responsibility for the saving of human life in such crises. After the famine of 1899-1900 this responsibility was also shouldered by the Indian States. Stage by stage this responsibility was expressed in the evolution of a remarkable system of famine relief covering the whole field. But now that machinery has reached a remarkable degree of perfection, it is rusting in the official armouries, because the conditions have changed. The whole of India is covered with a network of railways, which distributes the produce of the soil to the centres where food is required. The extension of irrigation has enormously increased the product of the soil and rendered large areas much less dependent on the monsoon rainfall. At the same time the scientific study of the problems of Indian agriculture has raised the capacity of even the "dry" zones. The peasantry has accumulated a certain reserve against the rainless days from the prosperity which accompanied the period of high prices. The rapid spread of the co-operative credit movement has mobilised and strengthened rural credit. The spread of manufacturing enterprise has lightened the pressure on the soil. The relation of famine to the question of Indian administration has therefore changed. In an exceptionally bad year it may create administrative difficulties; it has ceased to be an administrative and social problem.

Famine under Native Rule

The famine in India under Native Rule was a ghastly when by the year 1800 says Sir V. A. Smith in his History of India a famine of such a nature upon Gujarat which enables us to realise the terrible meaning of the word famine in India under Native rule. Whole cities and districts were left bare of inhabitants. In 1831 a Dutch merchant reported that only eleven of the 260 families at Swally survived. He found the road thence to Surat covered with bodies decaying on the highway where they died, there being none to bury them. In Surat, that great and crowded city, he could hardly see any living persons; but "the corpses at the corner of the streets lie twenty together, nobody burying them. Thirty thousand had perished in the town alone. Pestilence followed famine." Further historical evidence was adduced by Sir Theodore Morrison in his volume on the Economic Transition of India. It has come to be seen that whilst railways have checked the old fashioned practice of storing grain in the villages they have made the reserves, where they exist, available for the whole of India. In India there is now no such a thing as a food famine; the country always produces enough food for the whole of the population; famine when it comes is a money famine and the task of the State is confined to providing the means for those affected by drought to earn enough to buy food. The machinery whereby this is done will be examined after we have seen the experiences through which it was evolved.

History of Recent Famines.

The Orissa famine of 1865-67 may be taken as the starting point because that induced to first great and organised effort to combat distress through State agency. It affected 180,000 square miles and 47,500,000 people. The Bengal Government was a little slow in appreciating the need for action, but late food was poured into the district in prodigious quantities. Thirty-five million units were relieved (a unit is one person supported for one day) at a cost of 95 lakhs. The mortality was very heavy, and it is estimated that a million people or one-third of the population, died in Orissa alone. This was followed by the Madras famine of 1866, and the famine in Western India of 1868-70. The latter famine introduced India to the great migration from Marwar which was such a distinguishing feature of the famine of 1899-1900; it is estimated that out of a total population of a million and a half in Marwar, one million emigrated. There was famine in Behar in 1873-74, then came the great South Indian Famine of 1876-78. This affected Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad and Bombay for two years and in the second year extended to parts of the Central and United Provinces and to a small tract in the Punjab. The total area affected was 257,000 square miles and the population 58,500,000. Warned by the excessive expenditure in Behar and actuated by the desire to secure economy the Government relief programme was not entirely successful. The excess mortality in this famine is said to have been 5,250,000 in British territory alone. Throughout British India 700,000,000 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 8½ crores. Charitable contributions from Great Britain and the Colonies aggregated Rs. 84 lakhs.

The Famine Codes.

The experiences of this famine showed the necessity of placing relief on an organised basis. The first great Famine Commission which sat under the presidency of Sir Richard Strachey, elaborated the Famine Codes, which amended to meet later experience, form the basis of the famine relief system to-day. They recommended (1) that employment should be given on the relief works to the able-bodied, at a wage sufficient for support, on the condition of performing a suitable task; and (2) that gratuitous relief should be given in their villages or in poor houses to those who are unable to work. They recommended that the food supply should be left to private agency, except where that was unequal to the demands upon it. They advised that the land-owning classes should be assisted by loans, and by general suspensions of revenue in proportion to the crop failure. In sending a Famine Code to the provincial governments, the Government of India laid down as the cardinal feature of their policy that the famine wage "is the lowest amount sufficient to maintain health under given circumstances. Whilst the duty of Government is to save life, it is not bound to maintain the labouring population at its normal level of comfort." Provincial codes were drawn up, and were tested by the famine of 1896-97. In that 307,000 square miles were affected, with a population of 69,600,000. The numbers relieved exceeded 4,000,000 at the time of greatest distress. The cost of famine relief was Rs. 7½ crores, revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs. 1½ crore, and loans given aggregating Rs. 1½ crore. The charitable relief fund amounted to about Rs. 1½ crore, of which Rs. 1½ crore was subscribed in the United Kingdom. The actual famine mortality in British India was estimated at 750,000. The experiences of this famine were examined by a Commission under Sir James Lyall, which reported that the success attained in saving life and the relief of distress was greater than had ever been recorded in famines, comparable with it in severity, and that the expense was moderate. But before the Local Governments had been given time to digest the proposals of this Commission or the people to recover from the shock, the great famine of 1899-1900 supervened.

The Famine of 1899-1900.

This famine affected 475,000 square miles with a population of 59,500,000. In the Central Provinces, Berar, Bombay, Ajmer, and the Hissar district of the Punjab famine was acute; it was intense in Rajputana, Baroda, Central India, Hyderabad and Kathiawar. It was marked by several distinctive features. The rainfall over the whole of India was in extreme defect, being eleven inches below the mean. In several localities there was practically no rain. There was in consequence a great fodder famine, with a terrible mortality amongst the cattle. The water supply was deficient, and brought a crop of difficulties in its train. Then districts like Gujarat, where famine had been unknown for so many years that the locality was thought to be famine immune, were affected; the people here being softened by prosperity, clung to their villages, in the hope of saving their cattle, and came within the

scope of the relief works when it was too late to save life. A very large area in the Indian States was affected, and the Marwaris swept from their impoverished land right through Central India like a horde of locusts, leaving desolation in their train. For these reasons relief had to be given on an unprecedented scale. At the end of July 4,500,000 persons were supported by the State, Rs. 10 crores were spent on relief, and the total cost was estimated at Rs. 15 crores. The famine was also marked by a widespread acceptance by Indian States of the duty hitherto shouldered by the Government of India alone—the supreme responsibility of saving human life. Aided by loans to the extent of Rs. 3½ crores, the Indian States did a great deal to bring their administration into line with that in British India. Although actual deaths from starvation were insignificant, the extensive outbreaks of cholera, and the devastating epidemic of malaria which followed the advent of the rains induced a famine mortality of approximately a million. The experiences of this famine were collated by the Commission presided over by Sir Antony MacDonnell. This Commission reported that taking the famine period as a whole the relief given was excessive, and laid down certain modified lines. The cardinal feature of their policy was moral strategy. Pointing out that if the people were assisted at the start they would help themselves, whilst if their condition were allowed to deteriorate it proceeded on a declining scale, they placed in the forefront of their programme the necessity of "putting heart into the people." The machinery suggested for this purpose was the prompt and liberal distribution of advance loans, the early suspension of revenue, and a policy of prudent boldness, starting from the preparation of a large and expansive plan of relief and secured by liberal preparations, constant vigilance, and a full enlistment of non-official help. The wage scale was revised; the minimum wage was abolished in the case of able-bodied workers; payments by results were recommended; and proposals were made for saving cattle.

The Government of India is now in possession of complete machinery to combat the effects of drought. In ordinary times Government is kept informed of the meteorological conditions and the state of the crops; programmes of suitable relief works are kept up to date, the country is mapped into relief circles, reserves of tools and plant are stocked. If the rains fail, policy is at once declared, non-officials are enlisted, revenue suspended and loans for agricultural purposes made. Test works are then opened, and if labour in considerable quantities is attracted, they are converted into relief works on Code principles. Poor houses are opened and gratuitous relief given to the infirm. On the advent of the rains the people are moved from the large works to small works near their villages, liberal advances are made to agriculturists for the purchase of plough, cattle and seed. When the principal autumn crop is ripe, the few remaining works are gradually closed and gratuitous relief ceases. All this time the medical staff is kept in readiness to deal with cholera

which often a compensation and maintenance in any superfluous when he is to ask

Famine Protection

Side by side with the perfection of the machinery for the relief of famine has gone the development of famine protection. The Famine Commission of 1890 stated that the best, and often the only means of securing protection from the extreme effects of famine and drought, are railways and irrigation. These are of two classes, productive and protective. Productive works being estimated to yield profits which will pay interest and sinking fund charges are met from loans; protective works, which do not pay, directly from revenue. In order to guarantee that there should be continuous progress with protective works, the Famine Insurance Grant was instituted in 1876. It was decided to set apart from the general revenues Rs 14 crores annually or one million sterling. The first charge on this grant is famine relief, the second protective works, the third the avoidance of debt. The chain of protective railways is now practically complete. Great progress is being made with protective irrigation. Acting on the advice of the irrigation Commission an elaborate programme of protective irrigation works has been constructed, particularly in the Bombay Deccan—the most famine-susceptible district in India—and in the Central Provinces.

The Outlook.

Such in brief is the official programme and organisation which has been built up out of the experience and practice of the past. Yet everything goes to show that Government activity to save human life will never be wanted in the future on the colossal scale of former times, even so recently as 1899-1900. Each succeeding failure of the rains indicates that there has been in silent progress an economic revolution in India. In the year 1918 the rains failed more seriously and over a wider area than during any monsoon in the recent history of India. The deficiency in the rainfall was more marked than in the great famine of 1899. Yet such was the increased resisting power of the people that instead of a demand for State relief from over five millions, the maximum number at any time in receipt of public assistance was never so large as six hundred thousand. The shock to the social life of the community was insignificant; the effects of the drought completely disappeared with the good rains of the following year.

Increased Resisting Power.

The causes of this economic change in the conditions of India, whose influence is widespread are many. We can only briefly indicate them here. There is a much greater mobility in Indian labour. Formerly when the rains failed the ryot clung to his village until State relief in one form or another was brought almost to his doors. Now at the first sign of the failure of the rains he girds up his loans and goes in search of employment in one of the industrial centres, where the supply of labour is rarely equal to the demand, or on the constructional works which are always in progress either through State or private agency in the country. Then the ryot

he all commands some stock of silver or a mite made a bad. The balance of exports in 1910-11 had a nominal value of approximately £50 millions a year. The gold and silver bullion in which this is largely liquidated is distributed all over the country, in small sums or in ornaments, which can be drawn upon in an emergency. The prodigious coining of rupees during the last two years of the war, and the continuous absorption of gold by India, represent small diffused savings, which take this form owing to the absence of banking institutions and lack of confidence in the banking system. There has been a large extension of irrigation. More than one-third of the land in the Punjab is now under irrigation, and in other Provinces particularly in the famine-susceptible tracts of the Bombay Deccan, irrigation works have been constructed, which break the shock of a failure of the rains. Then the natural growth of the population has been reduced by plague and famine diseases, followed by the great influenza pandemic of 1918-19, which swept off five millions of people. This has not only prevented the increase of congestion, but has brought some areas particularly in the Indian States below their former population-supporting capacity. The increase of railways distributes the resources of the country with ease; the spread of the co-operative credit movement has improved rural credit. Finally, there is the considerable development of manufacturing industry, which is generally short of labour and helps to absorb the surplus of a famine year. Whilst the Government is completely equipped with a famine code, there is no reason to suppose that there will ever recur such an emergency as that of 1899. Famine can now be efficiently met by the liberal distribution of tagavi, the suspension and remission of the land revenue demand, the relief of the aged and others who cannot work, the provision of cheap fodder for the cattle, with possibly some assistance in transporting the affected population of the famine-affected tract to the industrial centres.

The increased resisting power of the people was effectively demonstrated during the famine of 1920-21, which was due to the failure of the monsoon towards the end of the year 1920. The distress which appeared in the end of 1920 persisted during the early months of 1921 and regular famine was declared in parts of Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces and Baluchistan. Local distress prevailed also in Bengal, Punjab and Central India. The largest number of persons on relief of all kinds did not exceed 0.45 million which was considerably less than 8% of the total population of the area affected by the failure of the monsoon.

The Indian Famine Trust.

Outside the Government programme there is always scope for private philanthropy, especially in the provision of clothes, help for the superior class poor who cannot accept Government aid, and in assisting in the rehabilitation of the cultivators when the rains break. At every great famine large sums have been subscribed, particularly in the United Kingdom, for this purpose, and in 1899-1900 the people of the United States gave generous help. With the idea of providing a permanent famine

Hydro-Electric Development.

357

India promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in regard to the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. India not only specially lends itself to projects of this kind, but peremptorily demands them. Cheap motive power is one of the secrets of successful industrial development and the favourable initial conditions caused by the war, the stimulus for industrial development which has seized nearly all classes of educated Indians, and the special attention which the circumstances of the war have compelled Government to direct towards the scientific utilisation of Indian natural resources all point to a rapid growth of industrial enterprise in all parts of India within the next few years. Indeed, the process, for which sound foundations had been laid before the war, is now rapidly under way. India is severely handicapped compared with other lands as regards the generation of power by the consumption of fuel, coal or oil. These commodities are all difficult to obtain, and costly in India except in a few favoured areas. Coal supplies, for example, are chiefly centred in Bengal and Chota Nagpur and the cost of transport is heavy. Water power and its transmission by electricity offer, on the other hand, immense possibilities, both as regards the quantity available and the cheapness at which the power can be rendered, in all parts of India.

Water power schemes, pure and simple, are generally difficult in India, because the power needs to be continuous, while the rainfall is only during a small portion of the year. Perennial rivers with a steady flow throughout the year are rare in India. Water is scarce during the dry season and this exists in many of the hilly regions and the mountainous areas. The opportunities by the power afforded by the future. Further, hydro-electric schemes are frequently he associated with important irrigation projects the water being first used to drive the turbines at the generating stations and then distributed over the fields.

The Industrial Commission emphasized the necessity for a Hydrographic Survey of India. On this recommendation the Government of India in 1918 appointed the late Mr. G. T. Barlow, C.I.E., then Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, United Provinces, to undertake the work, associating with him Mr. J. W. Meares, M.I.C.E., Electrical Adviser to the Government of India. Mr. Barlow died, but Mr. Meares issued a preliminary report in September, 1919, summarising the present state of knowledge of the problem in India and outlining a programme of investigation to be undertaken in the course of the inquiry. Mr. Meares showed that industries in India now absorb over a million horse power, of which only some 285,000 h.p. is supplied by electricity from steam, oil or water. The water power so far actually in slight amounts to 12 million horse-power, but this excludes practically all the great rivers, which are at present uninvestigated. Thus the minimum flow of

the seven great rivers eastward from the Indus is stated to be capable of giving not less than three million horse-power for every thousand feet of fall from the Himalayas, while similar considerations apply to rivers in other parts. Some doubt is expressed as to the estimate of seven million horse-power in the Lrawaddy and Chindwin rivers, given in the report of the London Geologist Board of Scientific Studies.

The Report points out that the Bombay Presidency holds a unique position owing to its great existing and projected schemes at Lonavla, the Andhra Valley, the Nila Mula and the Koyna Valley and has the still greater advantage of possessing a firm ready to develop its resources.

Bombay Hydro-Electric Works.

The greatest water-power undertakings in India—and in some respects the greatest in the world—are the Tata Hydro-electric schemes recently brought to fruition, and constantly undergoing expansion, for the supply of power to the city of Bombay, the most populous city and it is the largest manufacturing town in Asia. Its cotton mills and other factories use over 100,000 horse power of mechanical energy and until a year or two ago this was almost entirely provided by steam, generated by coal coming from a distance—mostly Bengal. The Tata Hydro-Electric Power Scheme, now an accomplished fact, marked one of the big steps forward made by India in the history of its industrial development. It was the product of the fertile brain of Mr. David Gostling, one of the well known characters of Bombay, nearly a generation ago. The exceptional position of the Western Ghats, which rise 2,000 feet from sea-level which a very short distance of the Arabian Sea, and force the monsoon as it sweeps to land, to break into torrential rain at the mountain passes was taken full advantage of, and the table lands behind the Ghats form a magnificent catchment area to conserve this heavy rainfall in. Mr. Gostling pressed the scheme on the attention of Mr. Jamsetji Tata for years, and with perseverance collected data which he laid before that pioneer of the larger industries in India. He summoned the aid of experts from England to investigate the plan. The scheme was fully considered for six long years. Meanwhile both Mr. J. N. Tata and Mr. David Gostling passed away, but the sons of the former continued the work of their father and on Mr. Gostling's death, Mr. R. B. Joyner's aid was sought to work out the hydraulic side of the undertaking.

The scheme completed, a syndicate secured the license from Government and an endeavour was made to enlist the support of financiers of England who tried to impose terms which were not acceptable. Meanwhile, the attention of Sir George Clarke (now Lord Sydenham), then Governor of Bombay, and an engineer of distinction himself, was drawn to the scheme. The interest shown by him drew the attention of Indian Chiefs in the Presidency of Bombay

Hidro Electric Development

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 d c u n n g w a k i n
 a h h p n n are situated at and
 nava above the Bhor Ghat. The
 stored in three lakes at Lonavia,
 and Shirsuta, whence it is conveyed
 y canals to the forebay or receiving
 The power-house is at Khopoli,
 it of the Ghats, whither the stored
 conveyed through pipes, the fall being
 23 feet. In falling from this height
 develops a pressure of 750 lbs per
 sq and with this force drives the
 or water wheels. The scheme was
 restricted to 30,000 electrical horse
 the Company, in view of the increas-
 ed for power from the Bombay mills.
 extend the works by building the
 Dam and issued further shares bring-
 ing to Rs. 3,00,00,000, the capacity
 now being increased to more than
 100,000 electrical horse power. Issued Capital
 Preference 3,735 shares fully paid and
 18,000, out of which 10,000 are fully
 2,000 new shares, on which Rs. 400
 called up. There is also a Deben-
 tur. S. Lakshmi. The works were formally
 H. E. the Governor of Bombay on
 February 1915. At present there are
 mills with motors of the aggre-
 gate P. of 55,000 H. P. in service. In
 to the cotton and flour mills which
 acted so take supply from the Com-
 pany period of ten years, an agreement
 completed whereby the Tata Hydro-
 company, the Andhra Valley Power
 company and the Tata Power Com-
 pany then supply the whole of the
 power required by the Bombay Electric
 and Tramways Company, Limited.
 the power for the electrification of
 our Branch and Bombay-Kalyan
 the G. I. P. Railway. There remain
 prospective buyers of electrical energy
 completion of the Company's full
 it not suffice for all such demands.
 e Bombay cotton mills, which alone
 require about 100,000 horse power
 for instance, tramways, with possi-
 ble suburban extensions. The probable
 demand is roughly estimated at about
 1,00,000 H. P. Recently the Company has con-
 sidered a considerable scheme of exten-
 sion involving the impounding of a fourth
 andley, near Lonavia, the duplication
 line and the installation of additional
 at the power house at Khopoli.
 stations undertaken by Mr. H. P.
 th a view to further developing the
 supply led to the discovery of a
 promising water storage site in the
 the Andhra River, situated near the
 lakes previously overlooked, as Alto-
 rrent treatment and design were
 In this instance the draw off point is
 stream from the dam and at a level
 above the lowest river bed level at the
 the water is taken through a tunnel
 long driven in solid trap rock through
 of the ghats of which the pressure
 an extension. Seventy feet of the

up water in the lake can be drawn off
 up n 5 p nt f th t a m n
 of water stored above and below draw off
 A scheme was prepared to be carried
 out by a separate company and providing
 for holding up the Andhra River by a Dam,
 about a third of a mile long and 192 feet
 high at Tatarwadi. This dam holds up a
 lake nearly twelve miles long, the further end
 of which approaches the brink of the Ghats at
 Khand. Here, a tunnel, a mile and a quarter
 long, carries the water to the surge chamber,
 whence it enters the pipes for a vertical
 drop of about 1,750 feet to the generating
 station at Bhirsuri, about 17 miles from the
 generating station at Khopoli. The scheme
 is designed to yield 100,000 horse power in its
 full development. A new company to operate
 the scheme was formed on the 31st August
 1916, with an initial capital of Rs. 1,00,00,000
 divided into 1,00,000 shares of Rs. 1,000 each
 and 5,000 Preference shares of Rs. 100 each,
 this being the Andhra Valley Power Supply
 Company, Limited. This Company will pay
 annually to the Tata Hydro-Electric Power
 Supply Company 15 per cent. upon the profits
 (after making certain deductions), or a sum of
 Rs. 50,000, whichever shall be the larger sum,
 the intention being that the new company
 shall pay annually to the Tata Hydro-Electric
 Power Supply Company a minimum sum of
 Rs. 50,000. Power is being supplied to some
 thirty factories in Bombay absorbing roughly
 40,000 electrical horse-power, as well as to
 the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways
 Company and to the G. I. P. Railway for the
 first stage of their electrification scheme.

Just as the Andhra project has been developed
 as a northward extension of the original scheme,
 so a southward development also originated by
 Mr. Gibbs and developable on lines similar to
 those of the Andhra project in now practically
 completed under the name of the Nila-Mula
 scheme, the name arising from the fact that
 the valleys of the Nila and Mula rivers are
 being dammed for the conservation of water
 for it. A company entitled The Tata Power
 Co., Ltd., was floated in the autumn of 1918
 for the purpose, having a capital of Rs. 9 crores,
 divided into 30,000 7½% cumulative preference
 shares of Rs. 1,000 each and 80,000 shares of
 Rs. 1,000 each, the first and present issue being
 of 10,000 preference shares and 35,000 ordinary
 shares. A lake having an area of sixteen square
 miles and a catchment area of 112 square miles
 has been formed at Mushi by the erection of a
 masonry dam 1,100 feet in length and 115 feet
 in height. At the end of the lake opposite to
 the site of the dam, a tunnel has been cut through
 the Western Ghats to a total length of 14,500
 feet, at the further end of which the water enters
 the pipe line and descends to the turbine power
 house at Bhira, 1,750 feet below. The head of
 water is sufficient to generate 150,000 electrical
 horse-power at 11,000 volts, and after being
 transformed up to 110,000 volts the current
 is transmitted to the receiving station at Dharavi,
 Bombay, through an overhead line approxi-
 mately 80 miles in length. Five generating
 units each of 30,000 electrical horse-power are
 being erected, and of these two are already in
 commercial operation. The power will be
 absorbed by mills, factories and local areas not

get electrified in Bombay and suburbs as well as by the E. B. & C. I. Railway's suburban service, the G. I. P. Railway's electrified service within thirty miles of Bombay and the evergrowing needs of the B. E. S. & T. Company.

Nearly 100 miles southward of this Messrs. Tata propose to erect two dams in the huge valley of the Koyna river, proposed by Mr. A. T. Arnali and developable on lines similar to the two projects by Mr. Gibbs above mentioned and partly to chemical industry. The preliminary investigations for this scheme are still proceeding. The catchment area for the lake will be 846 square miles and there will be a total storage after the rains of 112,000 million cubic feet, which will be sufficient to supply a normal load of 350,000 horse power for 8,000 hours per year. The preliminary estimates provided for a capital of Rs. 816 lakhs to carry out the scheme.

Mysore Installation.

The first hydro-electric scheme undertaken in India or, indeed, in the East, was that on the River Cauvery, in Mysore State, which was inaugurated, with generating works at Sivasa-mudram, in 1902. The Cauvery rises in the British district of Coorg, and flows right across Mysore. The first object with which the installation was undertaken was the supply of power to the gold-mines at Kolar. These are 32 miles distant from Sivasa-mudram and for a long time this was the longest electrical power transmission line in the world. Current is also sent to Bangalore, 59 miles away, where it is used for both industrial and lighting purposes.

The initial undertaking has constantly been expanded since its inauguration, so that its total capacity, which was at first 6,000 horse power, is now approximately 25,000 h.p. This is the maximum obtainable with the water which the Cauvery affords and, therefore, with the number of consumers, large and small, rapidly increasing, the necessity of a completely new installation elsewhere, to be operated in parallel with or separately from that at Sivasa-mudram, is now generally recognised. Two projects have been suggested. The first would be at Shimsha, a tributary of the Cauvery which has natural falls and the second, known as the Mekadatu project, would have its power house on the Cauvery, 25 miles down-river from Sivasa-mudram and just within the borders of Mysore State, adjacent to the Madras Presidency. The head of water available at Sivasa-mudram is 400 feet, that on the Shimsha 618 feet net, which would generate 39,500 e. h. p. At Mekadatu the Cauvery runs in rapids and a dam and a channel 20,000 feet long with a 22½ feet bed would be necessary. There would be three generating units, each giving an output of 4,000 e. h. p. Future extensions yielding an additional 8,000 h. p. could be made. The progressive spirit which has marked the management of the works since their inception now characterises the manner in which the problem of further extensions are being considered.

Works in Kashmir.

A scheme of much importance from its size, but more interesting because of the developments that may be expected from it than for the part which its current supply already plays, in the life of the countryside, is one installed a few years ago by the Kashmir Durbar, utilising the River Jhelum, near Baramulla, which has thirty-four miles north-west of Srinagar. The head works of the Jhelum power installation are situated six and a half miles from the power house and the main connection between the two is a great timber flume. These works and the forebay at the delivery end of the flume have a capacity for carrying water sufficient for the generation of 27,000 electrical horse power. Four pipes 606 feet long lead from the forebay to the power house, and from forebay to water wheel there is an effective head of 395 feet. There are four vertical waterwheels, each coupled on the same shaft to a 1,000 k.w., 3-phase, 2,300 volt, 25-period generator running at 500 r.p.m., and each unit is capable of making a 25 per cent. overload, which the generator end is guaranteed to maintain with safety for two hours. The power house is of sufficient capacity to allow of 15,000 k.w. generating plant being installed within it. Two transmission lines run side by side as far as Baramulla, 21 miles distant, at which point one terminates. The other continues to Srinagar, a further 24 miles. The installation at Baramulla was originally utilised for three floating dredgers and two floating derricks, for dredging the river and draining the swampy countryside and rendering it available for cultivation, but these operations have temporarily been curtailed, so that only one dredger is now in operation. The lighting of Baramulla has been taken in hand with satisfactory results and it is expected that the lighting demand will rapidly increase and that a small demand for power will soon spring up. At Srinagar, the line terminates at the State silk factory, where current is supplied not only for driving machinery and for lighting, but for heating. The greater part of Srinagar city is now electrically lighted and during the past year a motor load of over 100 k.w. has been connected with the mains, motors being hired out to consumers by the Electrical Department. This step was taken with a view to educating the people in the use of electric power and it has been entirely successful.

Recent Progress.

Apart from the development of the three projects in the Bombay Presidency the past four years have witnessed comparatively little progress in hydro-electric works. A small plant was completed and put into operation at Nani Tal during 1923, and the erection of another small plant was commenced at Shillong, but otherwise there is nothing to record. It is interesting to note, however, that preliminary investigations are proceeding with a view to the erection of hydro-electric plants in various parts of India. In the tea districts of Kalimpong and Kurseong, for example, it is proposed to harness a promising water-power site and to supply current to an important area in which are situated more than two hundred tea factories.

The fact that the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company has shut down its steam-driven generating plant and now takes its supply in bulk from the various Tata companies has been recorded above, and it is of more than passing interest to note that the Poona Electric Supply Company has put forward a similar proposition with effect from the time when power is available from the Tata Power Company's installation at Nila Mula. This is a phase of hydro-electric distribution which is quite in its infancy in India, but it is possible to foresee the time when every village within a couple of hundred miles of a hydro-electric power station will receive its supply of electric current in bulk, thus greatly reducing capital and administrative charges and minimising the price of current to the consumer. It is a system which has become some thing of a fine art in California, where current is transmitted by overhead wires for many hundreds of miles at a pressure of 200,000 volts or double the pressure commonly employed in India for overhead long-distance transmission.

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The Kallar river project is very much smaller, but it is interesting in being a scheme in which the Government of Madras and the Travancore Darbar will be jointly responsible. For the power house will be located on the British side of the river and the current transmitted to and distributed in Travancore State. Finally, there is a big combined project of irrigation in Hyderabad which is still very much in the early stages. It is under consideration is worthy of being placed on record in view of the somewhat unusual circumstances

Local Self-Government.

No field of the administration of India is likely to be more profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 than local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and there are many signs that the power will be freely used for the purpose of experiments in the direction of building up stronger and more efficient local bodies. On the whole, the progress of government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns, and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay.

ment to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries have been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the moribund are stirring: inasmuch as this being a transferred subject it is entirely provincial there will be the widest variation between provinces and provinces according to the special needs of each. We can indicate here only the broad tendencies, with the expression of opinion that this field will be one of the most important in the growth of nation-building forces in British India.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative entities—tahsils, sub-divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central nucleus with an open space for a pond stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting. . . . The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, welded together in a little community with a common life and a common sentiment, which diffuses itself over the whole."

types of villages, rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, e.g., in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the people living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads.—"Gazetteer of India."

The villages above described fall under two main classes, viz.—

Types of Villages.—"(1) The 'severalty' or talukdar village, which is the prevalent form

a land. Thus the revenue is individual cultivators. There is responsibility among the villagers, the non-cultivated lands may be common purpose, such as grazing and may be brought under the permission of the Revenue Department of assessment. The chief vests in a hereditary head of an old vernacular name, such as who is responsible for law and collection of the Government presents the primitive headship claim by which the village was

it or landlord village, the type of United Provinces, the Punjab Province. Here the revenue assessed on the village as a whole, and distributed by the body of voters, and a certain amount of responsibility still, as a rule, remains, as owned by the proprietary body, and to the tenants, artisans, etc. The waste land is allotted and, if wanted for cultivation, is shared by the shareholders. The village is originally by the *punchayat* or of superior families. In later times headmen have been added to it to represent the village in its local authorities; but the artificial appointment, as compared with the *raiyatwari* village, the title of its holder, which is *rajar*, a vernacular derivative of the word 'number.' It is this type which the well-known description of the *Village Communities* is alone here the co-proprietors are in origin with the bulk of the land as tenants of labourers under

onomy.—The Indian villages had a large degree of local autonomy, the native dynasties and their rulers did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large group of villages, as responsible for the payment of revenue, and the maintenance of law and order. This autonomy has now given place to the establishment of local, district, and provincial courts. The present revenue system, the increase of commercial and industrial growth, and the individual *raiyatwari* system, are all tending to destroy the village even in the north of India. The village remains the first unit of administration on the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village guard—are largely utilised and respected, and there is still a certain amount of village feeling and interests.

—For some years there was gunda in favour of reviving the ribunal, or Panchayet and the Commission of 1908 made the following recommendations:—

fore, we desire the development
system, and consider that the
d thereto are far from 'true'

mountable, we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to Panchayats in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural integrity, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many years, will require great care and discretion, much patience, and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however, still mainly a question of future possibilities, and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what like they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Panchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of councillors to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character, may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves, including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities.—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration, first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal administration until 1842. An Act passed in 1842, which was practically in force in 1850 by an Act of 1850, was passed in India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until about 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, which, among other things, extended to the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881-2 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of elective representation. Acts were passed in 1881, 1882, and 1883, which gave to the municipalities the constitution, powers, and duties of municipal corporations. The Acts gave to the elective system, while independence and

responsibility is conferred on the municipalities. Many of them are owned by the people and are managed by the people. The municipalities are responsible for the management of the provincial revenue suited to and capable of development under local management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for local objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position.—There are some 757 municipalities in British India, with something over 18 million people resident within their limits. Of these municipalities, roughly 487 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the municipalities within municipal limits, where it amounts to 20 per cent. in Assam, where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent. of the total population. Turning to the composition of the municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are only 7 per cent., and nominated 25 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are classed under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs. 14.08 crores derived principally from taxation, just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous income of Rs. 1.01 crores.

The expenditure of municipalities is divided into three main heads: (1) Public Safety, (2) Health, and (3) Convenience and Instruction. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of "Conservancy" and "Public Works," which amount to 15 per cent. and 14 per cent. respectively. "Water-supply" comes to 18 per cent., "Drainage" to 6 per cent., and "Education" to no more than 8 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar it is over 17 per cent.

District Boards.—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards; while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India at large there are some 231 district boards with 556 sub-district boards and more than 800 Union Committees. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was some 213 millions in 1916-20. Leaving aside the Union Committees the

number of municipalities in India has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically manned by Indians who constitute 96 per cent. of the whole membership. Only 11 per cent. of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1922 amounted to Rs. 11.82 crores, the average income of each district board being Rs. 5,00,000. The most important item of revenue is provincial taxes, which represent a proportion of the total income varying from 25 per cent. in Bombay and in the N. W. F. Provinces to 83 per cent. in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come remarkably to the front within the last three years and civil works such as roads and bridges. Medical relief is also sharing with education though in a less degree the lion's share of the available revenue.

Improvement Trusts.—A notable feature in the recent sanitary history of India is the activity played by the great cities in the direction of social improvements. In Bombay and Calcutta the Improvement Trusts are continuing their activities which are described in a separate chapter (q.v.). In Bombay the work of the Improvement Trust is being developed by the Bombay Development Directorate. Other cities are beginning to follow the examples of these great cities and Improvement Trusts have been constituted in Cawnpore, Lucknow and Allahabad in the United Provinces and in several of the larger cities of the Provinces of India. Their activities have, however, been severely curtailed by the financial stress.

Provincial Progress.—There was passed in Bengal in 1918 a Village Self-Government Act embodying the policy of constituting Union Boards at the earliest possible date for groups of villages throughout the province. The number of these boards continues to increase, rising from 1,500 to more than 2,000. Though they are in their infancy as yet, many of them show a remarkable aptitude for managing their own affairs.

In Bombay the development of village self-government is also proceeding, as the result of an Act constituting, or increasing the power of village committees, which was passed in 1920 by the Legislative Council. In this presidency, some 75 out of 137 municipalities had a two-thirds elected majority of councillors in the year 1920; and a distinct step forward has been taken in the direction of all municipal work. In Madras also the institutions of local self-government continued to progress in an encouraging manner. The number of district boards in the Presidency was 24, with 882 members. The number of sub-district boards rose from 119 to 121. The total number of Municipal Councils rose from 78 to 89 and the

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as against 41 in the previous year. The average imposition of taxation per head of population is still very low, being only about Rs. 2. Nonetheless, 28 towns in the Presidency possess a protected water-supply and water works schemes are either under execution or in contemplation in a number of others. The number of educational institutions maintained of municipal councils rose to 1,016 which was 99 more than in the previous year; while the net educational charges amounted to Rs. 12.61 lakhs.

In the United Provinces the new District Boards, which consist of non-official members only with elected non-official Chairmen, were plunged straight-way into financial difficulties. In some cases the necessity for retrenchment was immediate resulting in the curtailment of medical relief and of allotments for the ordinary repairs of roads. Additional taxation has so far not been generally imposed and the Boards are still suffering from inexperience in husbanding public money and obtaining the full value for their expenditure. In the case of Municipal Finances, there has been some change for the better. The new Municipalities have shown a great interest in all forms of civic activity but they are still hampered in their work by political and communal obsessions. They are reluctant to impose new taxation but a considerable programme of expenditure lies before them. The restoration of municipal roads, the abatement of the dust nuisance and the renewal of water-works plant are problems calling almost everywhere for immediate solution. On the whole, the position is more hopeful since the rapid progress which was being made towards Municipal insolvency has been arrested.

In the Punjab municipal administration continued to show improvement, the general attitude of the members in regard to their responsibilities being promising for progress in the future. Generally speaking the finances are in a more satisfactory position than was the case in previous

years. Expenditure on water-supply schemes is steadily increasing and the capital cost of schemes executed during 1924-25 amounted to over Rs. 21 lakhs as compared with Rs. 11 lakhs in the previous year.

Three Acts of considerable importance, providing for the creation of improvement trusts for the more effective administration of smaller towns and for the establishment of village panchayats have been passed. Further Municipalities and District Boards have been reconstituted in a more democratic form.

In the Central Provinces, the year 1920 witnessed the passing of a Local Self-Government Act which will guide into proper channels the undoubtedly growing interest in public matters. The continued reduction of official members and chairman, and the wider powers of control given to local bodies will be an incentive to the development of local self-government, leading to or increasing sense of public duty and responsibility. Another very important measure regulating municipalities was passed into law in 1922. Its chief features are the extension of the Municipal franchise, the reduction of official and nominated members, the extension of the powers of Municipal Committees and the relaxation of official control.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the institution of local self-government is somewhat of a recent growth. Certain of the municipal committees are still lax in the discharge of the responsibilities imposed upon them, but to be infrequent, but on official members is increasing. Municipal Government reports that the members continue to take a very great interest in their duties and that their attitude towards the responsibilities imposed upon them is on the whole satisfactory. Communal feeling shows itself in certain localities; but in many instances offset by the public spirit and initiative of individual members and there are considerable symptoms of advance in independence of action and in the smooth working of the Committees.

Local Government Statistics.

Province.	Population within Municipal Limits.	Number of Members of Municipalities.	Number of Members of Committees.	Classification of Members.		Income.	Incidents per Head of Population.			Expenditure.
				Official.	Non-Official.		Rates and Taxes.	Total Income (excluding Extraordinary and Debt.)		
									Rs.	
Presidency Towns.										
Calcutta	1,077,284	1	90	1	89	9,58,55,476	16 1 8	20 4 0	9,06,07,620	
Bombay City	1,176,014	1	106	3	103	21,30,16,077	23 2 10	28 1 1	24,30,53,067	
Madras City	525,701	1	46	1	45	90,56,921	7 10 8	14 8 14	90,46,888	
Bangalore	335,491	1	34	2	32	1,43,63,964	16 15 4	24 0 4	1,32,73,770	
District Municipalities.										
Bengal (excluding Calcutta) ..	2,011,888	116	1,692	141	1,401	86,73,749	8 1 5	8 11 9	88,72,440	
Bihar and Orissa	1,171,003	58	994	155	689	40,17,922	2 2 0	3 0 2	40,73,950	
Assam	1,66,609	26	205	11	284	9,81,910	3 5 6	5 11 1	9,71,786	
Bombay (excluding Bombay City) ..	2,677,507	156	3,497	220	2,377	2,10,16,845	5 11 6	8 5 2	3,21,62,871	
Madras (excluding Madras City) ..	5,601,913	80	1,659	6	1,683	1,63,81,910	2 2 3	4 15 6	1,04,24,580	
United Provinces	2,920,865	85	1,062	41	1,041	1,74,03,162	3 7 7	5 5 0	1,60,86,681	
Punjab	1,817,252	104	1,104	132	1,002	1,43,09,427	4 2 7	7 5 1	1,51,10,882	
N. W. Frontier Province	1,69,409	8	190	32	88	23,54,360	5 11 9	14 8 3	29,44,889	
Central Provinces and Berar ..	1,048,299	65	1,085	71	1,014	71,53,406	2 15 9	5 0 11	72,17,815	
Pirma (excluding Bangalore) ..	814,192	57	793	71	722	72,91,145	3 12 9	8 9 10	71,92,770	
Bhilai, Baluchistan	28,235	1	29	4	25	6,88,771	13 1 0	13 0 9	6,85,724	
Ajmer-Merwara	145,048	4	53	12	46	5,944,687	2 10 3	4 0 7	5,38,919	
Coorg	12,076	5	60	19	41	48,953	2 6 11	4 0 7	39,240	
Delhi	248,302	1	26	2	24	22,53,503	5 4 0	8 11 7	28,82,762	
Bangalore	718,940	1	28	8	20	12,20,886	4 14 0	8 10 0	16,29,980	

Calcutta Improvement Trust.

The Calcutta Improvement Trust was instituted by Government in January, 1912, with a view to making provision for the improvement and expansion of Calcutta by opening up congested areas, laying out or altering streets, providing open spaces for purposes of ventilation of recreation, demolishing or constructing buildings and rehousing the poorer and working classes displaced by the execution of improvement schemes.

The origin of the Calcutta Improvement Trust must, as in the case of the corresponding Bombay body, upon which the Calcutta Trust was to a large extent modelled, be looked for in a medical enquiry which was instituted into the sanitary condition of the town in 1896, owing to the outbreak of plague. It was estimated that the Trust might in the ensuing 30 years have to provide for the housing of 225,000 persons. The population of Calcutta proper, which includes all the most crowded areas, was 649,995 in 1891, and increased to 801,251, or by 25 per cent., by 1901. The corresponding figure according to the 1911 Census was 898,087, and this had increased by 1921 to 993,503.

The problem of expansion was difficult, because of the peculiar situation of Calcutta, which is shut in on one side by the Hooghly and on the other by the Salt Lakes.

Preliminary investigations continued for several years, so that it was only in 1910 that the Trust instituted an scheme involving 2,00,000, and for

special local taxation to this end. It also provided for the appointment of a whole time chairman of the board of trustees and the membership of the Trust was fixed at eleven.

The following formed the Board of Trustees in 1920-1927: Mr. A. Marr, C.I.E., I.C.S., Chairman; Mr. J. C. Mukherjee, Barr-at-Law, Offg. Chief Executive Officer, Calcutta Corporation (ex-officio); Babu Sailapati Chatterjee, elected by the Corporation of Calcutta under Section 7 (1) (a) of the 1911; Rai Nalini

by the elected Calcutta, under Sec-
Improvement Act,
Amendment Act of
1926, elected by
Councilors of the

Corporation of Calcutta, under Section 7 (1) (c) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911, as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr. G. Morgan, elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Babu Han Banker Paul, elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; Mr. H. Sudlow; Mr. A. Cassels, I.C.S.; Rai Ram Deo Chokhary Bahadur Lt. Bhojy Prasad Singh Roy appointed by the Local Government.

During the 15 years that it has now been at work, the Trust have decided, and partly or entirely carried through, several improvement schemes for opening up congested areas, laying out or widening streets and providing open spaces.

In Central Calcutta many highly insanitary houses have been done away with and several roads of an improved type laid out, the most

important of which is the Central Avenue, 100 ft wide, which at present extends from Beadon Street to Chowringhee, and will shortly be extended to Esplanade on the north.

In the north of the City, a park and play ground have been completed and several wide roads driven through that highly congested area. The approaches to the City have also been adequately widened.

The Suburban Areas to the South and South East of Calcutta required greater attention and extensive development schemes were undertaken. Several open spaces and squares have been made in various parts. Insanitary tanks requiring approximately 2 acres of earth have been filled up. Russa Road which forms the southern approach to the town has been widened to 150 ft. for a length of one mile and 100 ft. for a length of another mile. It now gives a most pleasant drive from Chowringhee to Tollygunge. To improve the drainage of this area a 100 ft. wide East to West road, from Ballygunge Railway Station to Chita Bridge, and for recreation an artificial lake of 167 bighas with adequate grounds are being made.

Lastly, for the housing of the displaced population the Trust has undertaken on a large scale the following schemes:—

In the early stages three blocks of chawls were built in Wards Insitution Street for persons of the poorer classes. It was found, however, that the persons displaced preferred to take their compensation and migrate to some place where they could erect huts of their own, the class of structures they were accustomed to live in. These chawls were then filled with persons of limited means, e.g., School Masters, poor Students, Clerks and persons of the artisan class. As many as 1,200 people are housed in these chawls, these buildings, including land, cost Rs. 2,44,368 and are let at very low rents—ground floor rooms at Rs. 5 per mensem and top floor rooms at Rs. 6 per mensem, each room measuring 12'x12' with a 4 ft. verandah in front opening on to a central passage 7 ft. wide.

As these chawls failed to attract the people for whom they were meant, the Board next tried an experiment in providing sites for busters. Two sites with a lettable area of 16 bighas were acquired within the area of Manikgola Municipality, but they failed to attract because they were out of the way and were expensive.

KEMBARA TANK LAKE RE-HOUSING SCHEME.—In this scheme 4 detached and 35 semi-detached houses were built. The detached houses were sold last year as this scheme never became popular with the class of tenants for whom they were originally intended. Owing to this unpopularity the Board further decided to throw open to tenants of all classes 18 out of the remaining 35 semi-detached houses. This change of policy, however, produced no effect on the letting. It is now under contemplation to make some structural alterations, so as to ensure more privacy to persons living in these houses or in the alternative to sell these buildings for what they will fetch

Owing to want of suitable tenants the entire dwellings in Kerbala Tank Re-housing scheme had been sold by private sale shortly after the 31st March 1927.

BOW STREET RE-HOUSING SCHEME.—Seven blocks of buildings containing one-roomed, two-roomed and three-roomed suits have been con-

structed to re-house Murasians and Anglo Indians displaced by the operations of the Trust. This scheme has proved a striking success.

PAIKARA RE-HOUSING SCHEME.—This scheme has an area of 36 bighas well laid out in 86 building sites. Special facilities are offered to dis-housed persons for securing land in this scheme.

BOMBAY IMPROVEMENT TRUST.

The transfer of the Trust to the Municipality has now been effected by an Act of Legislature called "The City of Bombay Improvement Trust Transfer Act, 1925 (Bombay Act No. XVI of 1925). By virtue of this Act the powers and duties of the Trustees for the Improvement of the City of Bombay have been transferred and the property and rights belonging to the said Trustees have now been vested in the Municipal Corporation for the City of Bombay which is referred to as the Board, the President of the Corporation being also the President of the Board.

The execution of the powers and the performance of the duties vested in the Board is entrusted to a committee called the "Improvements Committee" subject to the general control of the Board. The Improvements Committee consists of eighteen members, that is to say, fourteen elected members and four nominated members. Of the elected members eleven are elected by the Board, one by the Bombay Chamber of Commerce, one by Indian Merchants' Chamber and one by the Millowners' Association out of their own bodies respectively. The nominated members are appointed by Government by notification, three of them being chosen from among the following:—

- (i) The Director of Development, Bombay,
- (ii) the Chairman of the Bombay Port Trust,
- (iii) the Collector of Bombay, and
- (iv) the Executive Engineer, Presidency District,

and the fourth by Government to represent labour from among the members of the Board.

The Municipal Commissioner has the right of being present at a meeting of the Committee and of taking part in the discussions thereat, but he shall not vote upon or make any proposition at the meeting. The Chief Officer, who is the Chief Executive Officer, is appointed by the Board subject to confirmation of Government. He has the same right of being present at a meeting of the Board and of the Committee and of taking part in the discussions thereat as a member of the said Board or Committee, but he must not vote upon or make any proposition at such meeting. He exercises general supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the Board in matters of executive administration and is directly responsible to the Board.

The specific duties of the Trust are to construct new and widen old streets, open out crowded localities, construct sanitary dwellings including those required for the Bombay City Police. The Trust derives its income from certain Government and Municipal lands vested in the Trust and the schemes it has undertaken.

The Trust receives a contribution from Municipal revenues amounting to a definite share in the general tax receipts—approximating to 2 per cent. on assessments and subject to no maximum. Works are financed out of loans raised by the Board. By the close of 1925-26 the Board had raised Rs. 15.24 lakhs by loans and their total capital receipts (including grants of Rs. 54 lakhs received from Government) amounted to Rs. 18.23 lakhs out of which they had spent Rs. 118 lakhs on the improvement of Government and Municipal lands temporarily vested in the Trust and Rs. 15.82 lakhs on their acquired states and office buildings. The Trust have provided in their chawls accommodation for 37,000 persons.

The present Chairman and members of the Improvements Committee are as follows:—

(a) *Elected by the Board:—*

Sir Vasantrao Anand Rao Dabholkar, Esq., C.B.E., *Chairman.*

Mr. K. F. Nariman, B.A., LL.B., M.L.C.

Dr. A. G. Viegas, L.M. & S.

Mr. Hoosenally M. Rahimtoola, B.A., M.L.C.

Mr. Mirza Ali Mohammed Khan, M.A., LL.B.

Mr. Naoroji M. Dumasia.

Dr. S. S. Bafliwala, F.C.P.S., L.M. & S.

Dr. K. E. Dadachanji, L.M. & S.

The Hon'ble Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, Esq., O.B.E.

Mr. Sayajee Lakshman Shyam, B.A., LL.B.

Mr. B. G. Hornaman.

(b) *Elected by the Chamber of Commerce:—*

Mr. Harry T. Gorrie.

(c) *Elected by the Indian Merchants' Chamber:—*

Mr. S. B. Billimoria, M.B.E.

(d) *Elected by Millowners' Association:—*

Mr. C. N. Wadia, C.I.E.

(e) *Nominated by Government:—*

The Director of Development.

The Chairman, Bombay Port Trust.

The Collector of Bombay.

Mr. Ganpat Krishnajeo Borade.

Municipal Commissioner—Mr. H. B. Clayton C.I.E., I.C.S.

Chief Officer—Mr. R. H. A. Delves, F.S.I.

Secretary and Chief Accountant—Mr. Cawasjee Pestonjee Ghorwala, B.A. (On leave). Mr. Narayan T. Chawathe (Acting).

Chief Engineer—Mr. J. F. Watson, B.E., M.I. C.E. (On leave). Mr. T. R. S. Kynnersley, A.M.I.C.E. (Acting).

Trust Architect—Mr. M. Framjee, I.C.E., L.R. I.B.A. (Acting).

Land Manager—Mr. M. S. Bharucha, I.C.E.

Estate Agent—Mr. J. T. Burge, F.S.I.

Bombay Development Scheme.

The Bombay Development Scheme in its widest sense represents concerted attempts by the three local bodies, the Municipality, the City Improvement Trust and the Port Trust, each working in its own sphere, and by the Government, to secure the rapid and adequate development of the city and suburbs of Bombay.

The Municipality is developing various areas in the city which will result in providing increased residential and business accommodation. The Mahim scheme will provide main avenue running north to south, in addition to the 60 feet road from Worli to Mahim Bazar and a large number of cross roads. It aims at the development of an area in which it may be possible to house, approximately, a population of 250,000. Provision has been made for a central park with a frontage on the bay and for a smaller park near the southern end of the area. The main contribution of the Municipality, however, towards the general development scheme lies in the great water and drainage projects which it is undertaking and which are essential for the health and well-being of the city.

Improvement Trust.—The Improvement Trust are developing the north of the Island on a large scale completing their old schemes, Dadar-Matunga and Sion-Matunga, and carrying on with the new schemes, adopted in 1919, the total area of which amounts to about one ninth of the area of the whole Island. Of the latter, the Worli scheme will provide for three classes of people, the richer class on the sea face the middle class on the main road, and a large area for the working classes on land reclaimed in the neighbourhood of the mills. At Dharavi the scheme for removing the tanneries and filling in the swamps to the south is in abeyance. The Sewri-Wadalla scheme is intended almost entirely for the working and lower middle classes, and the area included in it will, when the contemplated railway connections are made, be within easy access by rail from Victoria Terminus.

Port Trust.—The construction of the new cotton depot on the Mazgaon-Sewri reclamation has been completed and has released for other purposes the ground now occupied by the Cotton Green.

Programme.—The works for which Government are directly responsible are as follows:—
(a) The Industrial Housing Scheme providing one-room tenements for the working classes, to meet an actual existing shortage of accommodation as reported by the Municipal Commissioner in 1919.

(b) The Back Bay Reclamation, to reduce congestion in the business area and provide residential accommodation and open spaces in the south of the City.

(c) The development of South Salsette, including Trombay, partly for residential and partly for industrial purposes.

(d) The provision of other industrial areas at greater distances.

(e) The improvement of communications to the suburban areas.

The question of special measures for the development of Bombay was under the consideration of Government for many years. The

results of the last general survey of the subject are contained in the report of the Bombay Development Committee submitted in May 1914. The war made it impossible then to carry out any large schemes. When the war had come to an end, it was found that owing to the large increase in the City's population during the war, and the high prices of materials conditions were much worse than before, and that more rapid action was necessary.

Scope of Work.—In a speech to the Legislative Council in August 1920, His Excellency the Governor explained that the industrial housing scheme, which Government considered essential, would be carried out by them direct, instead of being entrusted to the Municipality or the Improvement Trust, because of the very heavy liabilities which already rested on those bodies. He introduced a Bill for the levy of a cess of one rupee per bale on cotton imported into Bombay, the proceeds of which would be used partly to provide additional revenue for the Municipality in view of its large programme of expenditure, partly to meet the loss anticipated on the housing scheme, and partly to assist development schemes in Salsette.

He announced Government's decision to establish a new Development Department, and Directorate which was at once a Department of Government and an executive organisation and was constituted a few months later. Some of the programme of work of the Department has since been completed but the greater part of it has been suspended for the present owing to depression in the land market, while the construction of more chawls has been held in abeyance owing to the decrease in population since the census of 1921. The Development Directorate was, therefore, abolished in January 1927 and the executive organisation is, at the moment, under reconstruction. There is still a special branch of the Government Secretariat viz., the Development Department which deals with development operations.

Personnel.—The whole Development Department is in charge of the Honourable Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Jr.), K.C.I.E., O.B.E.

The Back Bay Reclamation Scheme is in charge of a Chief Engineer assisted by two Deputy Chief Engineers, one for the Dredging Section and the other for the Marine Lines, Colaba and Quarry Section.

The technical control over all works, other than the Back Bay Scheme, was transferred to the Public Works Department, towards the end of the year 1926.

The Government of India have appointed a special Audit and Accounts Officer for the Bombay Development Scheme, and have authorised his appointment as Deputy Financial Adviser under a Financial Adviser who is an officer of the Finance Department.

R. D. BELL, C.I.E., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Development Department, and Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division, and Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, Bombay Suburban Division (also holds the appointment of Land Manager)

H. ST. C. SMITH, J.P., Deputy Secretary to Government, Development Department, and Assistant Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division.

R. B. VACHHA, M.A., J.P., Assistant Secretary to Government, Development Department.

K. S. FRAMJI, C.I.E., B.A., L.C.E., F.U.B., Chief Engineer, Back Bay Reclamation Scheme.

E. M. DUGGAN, B.Sc., A.M. Inst. C.E., Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch, Marine Lines, Colaba and Quarry Section.

C. R. BRIMS, Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch, Dredging Section.

F. FARVEY, M.Sc., M.I.C.E., Officer on special duty in connection with the Back Bay Reclamation Scheme (on leave).

G. D. KUNDAN, M.R. Sen.I. (Lond.), A.M.I.E.S. (Glas.), Marine Surveyor.

K. R. DOCTOR, F.S.I., L.C.E., A.M.I.E., Personal Assistant to the Land Manager.

B. M. BHARUCHA, B.A., Collector, Bombay Suburban District, and Salsette Development Officer. (Also Superintendent Bombay Suburban Survey and Land Records, Bombay Suburban Division.)

Audit and Finance.

C. G. FREKE, B.A. (Cantab.), I.C.S., Financial Adviser to Government.

S. M. L. BEAN, Deputy Financial Adviser to Government and Audit and Accounts Officer, Bombay Development Scheme.

Military Lands Scheme.

S. M. L. BEAN Secretary, Board of Control
I. C. DARE, B.A., F.R.S.A., F.S.I., A.M.I.E.
M.I.S.E., Executive Engineer

Industrial Housing. City apart from some m... Govern- ment properties, the work of the Development Department consists of Industrial Housing and the Back Bay Reclamation. There are four housing schemes and Government have decided that till these are fully utilised further new schemes are not to be embarked on the schemes which are now complete are as follows:—

1. *Naigaum*.—42 chawls.
2. *DeLisle Road*.—32 chawls.
3. *Worli*.—121 chawls.
4. *Sewri*.—12 chawls.

Each chawl with two exceptions contains 30 rooms of 160 square feet, superficial area. There is a *nikani* in each room, and each floor has its own water-supply and modern sanitary conveniences. The areas, in which the chawls are situated, are conveniently situated near the mills and other factories, and are at the same time open and healthy and well provided with open spaces. Out of the 16,534 tenements ready for occupation, over 8,000 are occupied. Provision has been made for shops in the chawls and at Worli there is a specially constructed market place. The Bombay Municipality have opened vernacular schools in the chawls at DeLisle Road, Naigaum and Worli, and the Infant Welfare Society is carrying on welfare work at those chawl centres. A Municipal dispensary will be opened shortly at Worli.

The average economic rent of the chawls works out approximately to Rs. 16 per month per tenement, but the rents actually charged for rooms let singly are as follows:—

	DeLisle Road.	Naigaum.	Worli.	Sewri.
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Ground floor rooms }				
First floor rooms }	9 8	7 0	5 0	7 0
Second floor rooms }				
Third floor rooms }	9 0	7 0	5 0	7 0

On this basis there will be, when the chawls are fully occupied, an annual loss of Rs. 16½ lakhs most of which is covered by the revenue from the cotton cess. Owing to the large number of vacancies, the loss at present is much more than this. The vacancies are mostly at Worli, where 78 out of 121 chawls have not been brought into use. At Naigaum there are ten unoccupied chawls and at DeLisle Road three.

No large employers of labour, including Societies, institutions or bodies, and to on behalf of any public concession rents, as under, are charged if whole chawls are rented:—

Chawl area.	Annual rent per chawl.
	Rs.
Worli	3,862
Naigaum	5,478
DeLisle Road	7,298

The above rents include charges for main tenance and repairs, sweepers and sanitary stores *plus* municipal taxes which may vary. These rents are equivalent to an inclusive rent of about Rs. 4, Rs. 5-11-0 and Rs. 7-11-0 per room per mensem at Worli, Naigaum and DeLisle Road, respectively. In fixing them a deduction has been made from the usual rents on account of vacancies, bad debts and the cost of rent collection. The offer has so far been availed of by the B. B. & C. I. Railway Company, who have rented five chawls at Worli for housing their employees and by the Bombay Municipality who have taken one whole chawl for housing the employees of the King Edward Memorial Hospital.

As an experimental measure one chawl at DeLisle Road and one chawl at Naigaum have been converted into two and three-roomed tenements.

Salsette.—In Salsette, the widening and tar macadamising of the surface has been completed

in the greater portion of the Bandra-Andheri Road, and the road has been transferred to the Public Works Department for maintenance. The Malad-Marve Road, including the construction of bridge, has been completed and transferred to District Local Board, while the first section of the Kolwada-Boia Road, which will afford direct road communication between Bombay and Trombay, has also been finished. Quarrying and reclamation works have been carried out at Gilbert Hill, Andheri, and progress has been made in town planning schemes. The development scheme at Khar, between the Khar Station and the sea, known as Khar Model Suburb, and a small scheme at Chapel Road, Bandra, have been very successful. These two schemes provide for about 863 and 140 building plots, respectively. The Khar Scheme has been developed by the aid of a new railway station of the same name; most of the roads are complete, the area is now well built upon and sales of building plots continue steadily. The Chapel Road Scheme is quite complete, the roads have been transferred for maintenance to the Municipality and only nine plots are now available for sale.

A small development scheme for an area of about 16 acres in Danda village has also been worked out and a few plots therein have been sold. All roads in the scheme have been completed and a direct communication between the Bandra railway station and the scheme area has been established by the completion of the Turner Road extension through the Salsette Catholic Co-operative Housing Society's land.

In Trombay the schemes in hand are (i) Trombay North-East which is intended to provide for (a) a new municipal slaughter-house, tanneries, dye-works and other noxious trades which ought to be removed from the City; residential areas for the people employed in the tanneries, etc., and (ii) Trombay North-West which is intended to provide a residential area for the lower middle class on good land surrounding on three sides, the existing Chembur village and extending to the south and east. In Trombay North-East development operations have been stopped for a considerable time owing to the curtailment or suspension by the Bombay Municipality and the Bombay Improvement Trust of schemes in Bombay City with which the scheme at Trombay North-East was linked. A large portion of the area included in Trombay North-East scheme has recently been denotified.

In Trombay North-West the development of an area of 128 acres known as Chembur Garden Suburb to provide about 450 building plots, has been worked out in detail. So far about 250 plots have been actually developed by the construction of roads and provision of a piped water supply, out of which an area of 144,000 sq. yards has been disposed of. A passenger service between Kurla and Chembur is run by the G. I. P. Railway and it is well patronised especially in the mornings and evenings. As many as 40 trains are run per day. The line has been extended up to Mandala which will serve the new military explosives depot as well as the tannery area.

The Salsette-Trombay Railway runs from Anik to Kurla and then through the Shahar

area, lying between the G. I. P. and B. B. & C. I. Railways, to Andheri. This railway is now complete as a single line. The main objects of the railway was to bring stone for road-making in Salsette from the quarries in Trombay and to provide a tramway service to open up the areas, through which it passes, which are at present without any means of communication. As road-making in Salsette is in abeyance owing to the prevailing stagnation in the land market, the line is not required for stone traffic at present. Arrangements have been concluded with the G. I. P. Railway for the working and maintenance of the line as a tramway for a period of two years. The line is expected to be opened for traffic in the near future.

The Salsette water-supply scheme obtains water from the Bombay Municipality's Tulsī and Vehar mains and supplies it in bulk to the Municipalities of Bandra and Kurla. The Development Department has made its own distribution scheme in the areas of Andheri and neighbourhood, Vile Parle, Santa Cruz, Juhu, Khar, Ghatkopar and the two schemes in Trombay described above.

In order to help people of moderate means to become owners of their homes, Government have sanctioned a scheme of financial assistance to intending purchasers of plots in the residential schemes of the Development Directorate. The essential feature of this scheme is that Government will advance at 6 per cent. interest, a sum equal to three-fourth of the cost of land and half the cost of the building which it is intended to erect, the advance being repayable in instalments spread over a period not exceeding fifteen years. Another scheme for permanent Government servants on slightly easier terms has also been sanctioned. Government have also sanctioned the extension of the benefits of the State-Aided Buildings Scheme to Co-operative Housing Societies for building houses on the tenant ownership system. The essential feature of this scheme is that Government will advance to Co-operative Housing Societies which acquire building plots in the estates managed by the Development Department subject to certain conditions, sums to the extent of three-fourth of the value of any plot plus half the estimated cost of the building proposed to be erected on it with interest at 5½ per cent. per annum, the advance being as in the former cases repayable in instalments spread over a period not exceeding 15 years.

Industrial Town.—The Ambernath Development Scheme aims at creating a new township to establish industries with all modern facilities. During the year no further sites were sold at Ambernath. The approach roads to all existing factories were completed, together with road connecting Ambernath Station with the Kalyan-Badlapur Road. Roads for staff bungalows and workmen's quarters have been finished. The existing sewage arrangements are by means of septic tanks, but a small activated sludge plant has been installed as an experiment, and, if successful, will probably be extended to deal with the sewage of the area. A market to serve the residents of the area has also been provided. The G. I. P. Railway are running a shuttle service between Kalyan and Badlapur

and are remodelling Ambernathi Station to deal with the traffic of the factories. An arterial siding for the factories is also being arranged by the Railway Company.

The water scheme is located at Badlapur 5 miles from Ambernath Station. The works comprise—(a) A barrage across the Ulhas River about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the railway station; (b) A set of Paterson rapid filters to filter three million gallons of water daily; (c) Protection wall for the Ulhas left bank.

The filtered water is pumped by electric power transmitted from Ambernathi to a reservoir on top of an adjoining hill commanding the factory area. The plant designed for a supply of three million gallons per day. The cost of the scheme is Rs. 10 lakhs. A proposal to supply the Kalyan Municipality and the village of Badlapur with filtered water from the scheme is under consideration.

A small power station supplies electric energy for running the permanent pumping plant at Badlapur and the factories in the area. The plant has been so laid out that it can easily be supplemented, should further demands arise in the future.

Military Lands.—Arrangements have been made with the Government of India involving the relinquishment by the military authorities of practically all the land they hold in the Fort area. The services displaced are to be reinstated partly at Deolali and partly at Colaba, where the military area is to be increased by about 245 acres at the southern end of the Back Bay Reclamation. The Government of India have to pay the Government of Bombay for this land. The cost of new

buildings, etc., due to the removal of the military from the Fort is to be covered by the sale of the land to be vacated. A large area of land on the Palton Road Estate (formerly the old Palton Road Lines) has been sold to the Bombay Municipality. A few plots on the estate and another in Carnac Road have also been sold. The plots available for sale in the Mazagon Defence Yard site have all been sold, while the small site, known as the Old Saluting Battery site, situated at Strand Street on the Harbour Face, south of the Apollo Bunder, was sold to the Port Trust for road widening. The old town barracks in the Fort have been sold to the Bombay Municipality in connection with its Hornby Road-Ballard Pier Scheme. New Indian Infantry Lines at Carnac Lines near Marine Lines, New Indian Infantry Lines at Deolali, the temporary Mechanical Transport Depot at Colaba, the married officers' quarters at Colaba, the Pilot Bunder flats at Colaba, and the quarters for the General Officer Commanding, Bombay District at Colaba. The new Explosives Depot at Trombay and the new building for Auxiliary Force Headquarters at Marine Lines have been completed. The Bombay Military Lands Scheme is in charge of a Board of Control, consisting of the Secretary to Government, Development Department and the General Officer Commanding, Bombay District. The Audit and Accounts Officer, Bombay Development Scheme, is also Secretary, Board of Control, and Financial Adviser and Audit Officer for the Military Lands Scheme. The Staff employed on this scheme do not form part of the Development Department. As military land becomes ready for disposal, it is handed over by the military authorities to the Bombay Government and action in regard to its disposal is taken by the Development Department of Government.

RECLAMATION INQUIRY AND REPORT.

The progress of the Development Scheme came under acute public discussion in 1925-26, and in particular the Reclamation of Back Bay. There were discussions in the Legislative Council and elsewhere, and various committees set up by the Government of Bombay severely criticised the increase in the estimated cost, some indeed the whole financial basis of the Scheme. The Government of India, therefore, in its supreme capacity, set up an over-riding Committee to inquire into the progress and future of the Reclamation.

Chairman:—Sir Grimwood Means, Chief Justice, Allahabad High Court.

Members: Sir M. Visvesvaraya, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., M.I.C.E., Sir Frederick Thomas Hopkinson, K.B.E., M.I.C.E., and Mr. S. B. Billimoria, M.B.

Secretary:—Mr. R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.C.S. The terms of reference of the Committee were:—

Firstly, to inquire into the history of the inception and conduct of the Back Bay Reclamation Scheme.

Secondly, to make recommendations as regards future operations.

The Committee took evidence in India and in England, and on December 1st signed a unanimous report, which was issued early in 1927. The tenor of this is covered in the following official summary.

The object of the Back Bay Reclamation Scheme was to reclaim from the sea an area of 1,145 acres at an estimated outlay of about Rs. 337 lakhs. Government were prepared to spend on the scheme up to Rs. 400 lakhs if necessary. A revised estimate for Rs. 702 lakhs was approved within two years of the original sanction, and if the scheme is to be completed, a second revision of the estimate will be necessary. The total cost will approximate to about 900 lakhs gross, exclusive of interest charges. This total sum will be reduced by the 256 lakhs to be received from the Military authorities and any other subsequent receipts from sales of land. The programme of the reclamation, which was to have been completed by 1926-27, has completely broken down. If it is continued under present conditions it cannot be finished for many years to come.

It is believed that land reclaimed cannot in the near future be sold at remunerative prices and care should be exercised not to reclaim land in advance of the demand. The work is being constructed from public loans on which interest and sinking fund charges have to be met and Government are faced with a growing debt.

The difficulties in which the scheme is at present involved arise from—

(1) the unsatisfactory character of the estimates.

- (2) defective organisation ;
- (3) the failure of the dredging operations ; and
- (4) the fall in land values.

The defects in the various estimates would have been avoided if there had been sufficient and careful preliminary investigation. If an alternative comparative estimate for dry filling had been prepared at the outset and the cost of adequate dredging plant properly investigated, Government might have hesitated to commit themselves to the use of suction dredgers for this scheme. A dredging scheme costing Rs 400 lakhs was an attractive financial proposition, but it might very well be considered to have changed its character when the cost went up to 702 lakhs. Reclamation by dry filling, if then practicable, might have proved cheaper.

As regards the organisation and arrangements made for the conduct of the scheme, these in themselves were almost unworkable. A reading of clause 3 of the agreement between the Secretary of State in Council and the firm of Meik and Buchanan shows that responsibility was not clearly defined between the Engineers and the Director of Development. Much of the technical work was left to an overworked Chief Engineer or was not done at all. There was no costing system, without which it was impossible properly to control expenditure.

Because nobody believed himself responsible for the due execution of the work, unwise decisions were taken and mistakes made, such, for instance, as commencing the construction of the sea wall from both ends, delay in sealing the rubble mound, undertaking dredging operations in Back Bay without consideration of cost, absence of preconcerted programmes to regulate operations, etc. All these militated against the success of the scheme and added to its cost.

The inability of the dredger to give the required output has been the chief cause of failure and has had a disastrous effect on the financial prospects of the scheme. The principal reason for the present serious position of the scheme was the ordering of the dredger on estimates and specifications put forward by Messrs. Simons and Company which were not examined with due care, the absence of proper guarantees for the sufficient output of the dredger and the acceptance of a quotation for a dredging plant without any real effort to secure competitive tenders.

The work having been undertaken in anticipation of realising large profits, the scheme was subjected to very great criticism when a period of acute trade depression set in with a consequent fall in land values. The trade depression was not a matter which could have been foreseen, although caution was necessary in undertaking a scheme of the magnitude at a time when world conditions were unstable. With the disappearance of the prospect of profits public criticism concentrated on the defects of the scheme.

The Future.—With regard to future operations, the following is a summary of the recommendations which we have made :—

- (i) For financial reasons the completion of block 8 is a most urgent work.
- (ii) The foreshore portion along blocks 3, 4, 5 and 6 should be filled in to an average width

of 300 feet seaward of the present shore line and brought up to the ground level of the reclamation. The strip should curve at both ends so as to join on with block 2 at the northern end and block 7 at the southern end. This should be done as speedily as possible.

(iii) The foreshore strip should be reclaimed with moorum filling.

(iv) A complete lay-out of the area to be reclaimed should be prepared. The foreshore strip should be developed as soon as completed and blocks 1, 2 and 7 gradually as land is taken up.

The lay-out already prepared for the complete scheme (1,145 acres) should be re-examined with the help of a Committee ; and the lay out of the area now recommended for reclamation should fit in with the lay-out approved for the complete reclamation, if ultimately undertaken.

(v) The Corporation of Bombay should share the cost of development, and Government should arrive at an understanding with the Corporation on this point.

(vi) The results of the work on the " Sir George Lloyd " and the " Colaba " during the current season should be verified. If the cost of filling by dredging approximates to that of moorum and the quality of the reclaimed land is satisfactory, they might be used for blocks 1 and 2 after block 7 is completed. If not they should be disposed of. Notices should not be given to the staff until this point is decided.

(vii) The reclamation should be removed from the control of the Development Directorate and carried out in accordance with one or other plans suggested in the report. A small committee, including one or two experienced engineers, should be constituted to advise Government on matters referred to them.

(viii) The work should in future, as far as possible, be carried out by contract agency.

(ix) Alternative estimates of the cost of the scheme now proposed are submitted. The extension of the 300-foot foreshore strip by additional strips of 400 feet and 300 feet, as need arises, is contemplated. Blocks 1 and 2 as being the most valuable in the whole project, should be completed as soon as possible. No part of them should be assigned for recreation purposes.

(x) Detailed revised estimates should be prepared at once. The form of tender issued by the Development Directorate should be revised.

(xi) Every endeavour should be made to complete the scheme proposed in three or four years. When a demand arises for completing the whole reclamation, the work may be carried out by moorum filling exclusively.

Conclusions.—Lord Lloyd left England charged by Mr. Montagu to take urgent steps to improve the housing conditions of Bombay. Whilst that did not necessarily imply the undertaking of a reclamation scheme, reclamation had nevertheless been considered for many years to be an integral part of any comprehensive scheme for the betterment of conditions. We are satisfied from the evidence that Mr. Montagu was deeply interested in the Reclamation, and wished it to be carried through. We think that Lord Lloyd and the Government of Bombay were justified in accepting Sir Ger-

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and prudent course was to treat his opinion as
final and authoritative

Lord Lloyd's letter of 25th May 1919 shows conclusively that he had no predilection for a reclamation scheme, and that he was prepared to abandon it at once had Sir George Buchanan reported adversely on it.

Though we are aware that a Governor must necessarily rely upon his advisers for the details of any particular scheme, yet having regard to the personal interest displayed by Lord Lloyd, as disclosed by his evidence and that of Sir George Buchanan, we are surprised that his acute intelligence overlooked the apparent inadequacy of Sir George Buchanan's figures, even though he held the belief that the 1912 figures of Mr. Kidd were to some extent inflated. In the Report, Sir George Buchanan himself gave 241.90 lakhs as the figure which he would have estimated in 1912, and on that basis the work could not have been done by him in 1919 for less than 605 lakhs.

To a lesser extent Mr. Lloyd, when reading the report, did not notice that the clay as described by Sir George Buchanan & Co. were putting for clay dredger.

We do not agree with Lord Lloyd that this was a technical point. The explanation may be a technical one, but the discovery of the apparent contradiction between the character of the clay as described by Sir George Buchanan and Messrs Simons & Co. needed no technical knowledge. It stood out on the document and was, unless satisfactorily explained, a contradiction in terms.

We are satisfied that Lord Lloyd acted throughout with the highest motives, anxious only to make good his undertaking to Mr. Montagu and to benefit the City of Bombay.

Sir George Curtis, who is living at Dinard, was too ill to attend. He has, however, furnished answers to certain questions which were sent to him. Although he was the Member in Charge during the inception of the scheme he has not been able at this distance of time to give us any information of value, and he cannot enlighten us at all as to the reason why no one in the Government of Bombay queried the varying descriptions of clay or compared the estimates of Mr. Kidd and Sir George Buchanan with reference to 1912 and 1919 prices.

The Estimates.—We cannot understand how Sir George Buchanan's figures found acceptance in Bombay and Delhi even with the addition of some 10 per cent. It was common knowledge that prices of plant, material and labour, when taken collectively had gone up at least 2½ times in the period between 1912 and 1919. The 1912 figure of Mr. Kidd—825.23 lakhs—had been accepted both by the Government of Bombay and the Government of India as a fair figure. If that was the belief, then 381.01 lakhs was a manifest underestimate, and proper scrutiny would infallibly have demonstrated it. When Sir George Buchanan was being questioned on these two sets of figures by the Committee, and the rise in prices and the

he was not to answer the questions.

The failure of the Government of Bombay and the Government of India, and in particular the failure of Mr. Syring Crookshank, to notice the varying descriptions of clay contained in (a) Mr. Kidd's Report, (b) Sir George Buchanan's Report, (c) Messrs. Simons & Co.'s letter of 12th September, 1919, and the "general conditions" enclosed with that letter are regrettable.

The reports of Mr. Kidd and of Sir George Buchanan were not studied with due and proper care by the Bombay Government and the Government of India respectively.

The Government of Bombay ought to have approached the Port Trust and the Royal Indian Marine for permission to dredge in the Harbour before deciding on dredging as the mode of reclamation.

We consider that Sir George Buchanan ought to have made far more extended and careful local investigations. These occupied him for less than a fortnight in May, 1919.

He knew that the Port Trust had had "difficulties" with the dredgers "Kalu" and "Jinga" built by Messrs Simons & Co. He ought to have made specific inquiries about this but he did not do so. Mr. Messent, the engineer to the Port Trust, gave him at some time the pamphlet entitled "Some results of the working of the 'Jinga' and 'Kalu'."

A table of figures in that document showed that the average of both vessels was 1,126 cubic yards per hour as compared with 2,000 cubic yards per hour guaranteed and achieved on test. So little attention did Sir George Buchanan pay to this document that at first he said he had never seen it and knew nothing of the figures. A few days later he informed the Committee that he had found a copy of the document and that, as it bore Mr. Messent's initials, he no doubt got it from him.

In his letter of 25th July, 1919, to Messrs. Simons and Company, he wanted "your guarantee that the plant will do the work required." He did not get it. He wanted also a dredger "with a minimum capacity of 2,000 cubic yards of clay per hour." He did not get it. On the contrary, he ultimately accepted a specification in which these two most necessary stipulations were omitted.

Not having studied Mr. Messent's publication, he held the unfounded belief (which a careful reading of Mr. Messent's document would have dissipated) that the results of the work of the "Kalu" and "Jinga" justified him in specifying the same output per hour on test for the "Sir George Lloyd."

The Dredger.—Messrs. Simons and Company, through their representative Mr. McAlurray, were well aware that hard clay existed in Bombay Harbour. Partly for that reason they refused a test on site. They suggested a dredger designed for soft clay but gave no guarantee that it would do the required work or give a "minimum capacity of 2,000 cubic yards per hour." The figures in the letter of 12th September were more concerned in supplying a "minimum capacity" for the purpose for which it was going to be used, accepting

Mr. McSurray's own account of the interviews of July and August 1919, we disapprove of his attitude and that of his firm, Sir George Buchanan, accepted any conditions they made, because he had the fixed belief that the harbour reclamation was in all respects the same problem as the Sewri, and because of his erroneous belief in the capacity of the "Kalu" and "Jinga."

The capacity of the dredger was much too low, and a guarantee of an output of soft clay "at the rate of" 2,000 cubic yards per hour on test meant infallibly an output under ordinary working conditions of much less. The position seems ultimately to have been appreciated by Sir George Buchanan, who, in his report of 15th December, 1924, thought it "improbable with the class of material now being taken from the harbour that the 'Sir George Lloyd' will do her estimated output of five million cubic yards per annum." In the same report he said "if we get two-thirds of the total output we shall be doing well."

Having regard to the great initial outlay and the need for speedy realisation, the time within which the work would be completed was an element of the highest importance.

We are convinced that no crew, however skilful and diligent, ever can or will get anything like five million cubic yards of material from the Harbour in any one season by the agency of the "Sir George Lloyd." In a deep bed of soft clay they probably would get from time to time material at the rate of 2,000 cubic yards per hour. The first two reasons given by Mr. Halcrow in his report and set out in the body of this document are conclusive against the possibility of any continuous happening of this kind. The material on the average is too stiff, the depth of material uncertain, the bed of the sea uneven, with uprooting rocks, stones and moorum, the capacity of the dredger too low.

Walls is of opinion that the "Sir George Lloyd" would under test conditions have delivered 2,000 cubic yards of soft clay per hour, and therefore conformed to the building contract, of we are opinion that the "Colaba" did not do so, and that she was structurally weak. In our view she ought to have been stiff enough to take any variation in load without sustaining damage by vibration.

In November, 1919, Sir George Buchanan being in ignorance of the quality and characteristics of the silt or mud and clay in the harbour, ought, as a measure of prudence, to have advised the Government of Bombay that no decision should be come to to treat the reclamation as a dredging problem until check borings had been taken to ascertain the density, depth and resistance of the silt or mud and clay in various parts of the harbour, and also that it was essential to ascertain by experiment whether the material obtained from the bed of the sea would dry out when deposited in an area under reclamation. Certainty on these points could have been arrived at by December, 1919, and the check borings were all the more necessary as Messrs. Simons had at this time definitely refused a test at Bombay.

With regard to the order of the dredger we consider Sir George Buchanan committed grave errors of judgment. The principal cause of

the failure of the dredging operations arose in our opinion, from the fact that Sir George Buchanan did not take the trouble to ascertain the working records of the "Kalu" and "Jinga," and believing that they had done "extraordinarily good work" was of opinion that vessels of a slightly increased horse-power of the same type would be adequate for the work. A most serious mistake in connection with the order of the dredger was the assumption that a machine capable of dredging 2,000 cubic yards on a short test would be capable of averaging that quantity during a whole season.

The Wall.—The building of the sea wall at both ends simultaneously was disastrous. Though the suggestion emanated from the Government of Bombay who must therefore take the greater part of the responsibility, we are of opinion that Sir George Buchanan should have advised against it, and resisted it, and should in the circumstances of the sale of Block 5 to the Military have prepared a programme for the building of the wall and the commencement of the Reclamation from the Colaba end only.

Moreover, the building of the sea wall from both ends simultaneously prevented the continuance of the original and sensible plan which was to shut in an area as soon as possible and pump into it with the least possible delay.

We are quite unable to accept the theory set up by Sir George Buchanan that the phrases "soft clay" and "stiff clay" as used by him denoted the same density of material. Also we cannot accept his explanation that where he uses the words "hard clay" or "closely compacted clay" or other equivalent phrase, he meant, not that it was hard in its position in the harbour, but that it was of a character which would become hard when pumped into the reclamation.

The firm of Messrs. Mlek and Buchanan did not prepare proper programmes of work nor adhere to any fixed programme. The reason of their indecision with regard to the dredging was due partly to the limitation of area by the Port Trust and Royal Indian Marine (for which neither the firm nor Sir George Buchanan can be held accountable), but principally to the fact that, having no certain belief in the quality of the material in the harbour, they were unable to formulate proper and precise future plans.

Sir George Buchanan did not realize that he was the expert to whom from first to last the Government looked for advice and assistance. He did not appreciate that when he found causes for complaint it was his duty to require them to be remedied, and in virtue of his responsibility for supervision to see that they were remedied. In his evidence he ascribed to himself a position of no power, weight or importance, and he allowed his opinion to be disregarded. We think that this was an entire misconception of his position, and he never ought to have allowed his advice to be set on one side. On such occasions as this happened he should at once have realised his duty to the Government of Bombay and assisted them by making the facts known to them, and we can have no doubt that Lord Lloyd and Sir Leslie Wilson would have welcomed information and would have given all help and encouragement

to Sir George Buchanan in my effort made by him and since he was

Responsibility.—The agreement of the 17th March, 1921, between the firm of Melk and Buchanan and the Secretary of State for India in Council was an unhappily framed document. Clause 3 gave Sir Lawless Hepper the opportunity of saying that as the Resident Engineer had to carry out the details of the work in accordance with the firm's instructions, that therefore the firm were responsible for the due execution of the works. On the other hand, Sir George Buchanan naturally pointed to the sentence, also in Clause 3, that the Resident Engineer should be "subject to the control of the Director of Development." From this arose a mutual misunderstanding. Thus from the outset neither Sir George Buchanan nor Sir Lawless Hepper seemed to have a very clearly defined idea of their respective duties. Later, when the disaster was threatening the enterprise, each relied upon his interpretation of the agreement. Sir Lawless Hepper, when giving evidence, insisted before us that Sir George Buchanan was entirely responsible for the due execution of the works, as if he were, in fact, a contractor who had undertaken them. On the other hand, Sir George Buchanan contended that that responsibility lay with Sir Lawless Hepper, pointing out that he it was who had control of the Resident Engineer, and that his firm has no power of dismissal over any of the staff. On the strict construction of the agreement we incline to the opinion that Sir George Buchanan is right, although there are statements of his to be found in his correspondence which would bear the interpretation that he did regard his firm as responsible for the actual carrying out of the works.

If the Government of Bombay intended to make Sir George Buchanan's firm responsible for the execution of the works, nothing was easier than to say so in plain and simple words, and as a necessary corollary to put the Resident Engineer entirely under the control of his firm, including the power of appointment and the power of dismissal. The provision that the Government of Bombay should pay the Resident Engineer would not have detracted from a provision that the firm should be responsible for the due execution of the work, nor from the legal position that the Resident Engineer would have been the servant and agent of Sir George Buchanan. In that way the position of Sir George Buchanan and Sir Lawless Hepper would have been perfectly clearly defined.

The reports of the Development Directorate, drafted by Sir Lawless Hepper, cannot be justified. They did not present a true picture of the progress of the work and concealed material circumstances.

We are of opinion that Sir Lawless Hepper had so much work in connection with the other Development Schemes that even if he had appreciated his responsibility for the execution of the works he could only have carried out that duty as regards the Reclamation by neglecting other duties relating to the other schemes.

Mr. Lewis was not a "specialist in sea works and dredging"; Sir George Buchanan ought not to have nominated him. He was however,

greatly handicapped by the necessity of preparing a detailed project estimate, and thus so absorbed his energies that he was unable to devote himself fully to supervising and pushing on the work. Very shortly after he became Resident Engineer we are satisfied that he was in ill health which became manifest and disabled him in 1922. It is most regrettable that he was allowed (contrary to Sir George Buchanan's advice) to remain in his post till July, 1924.

We are of opinion that Mr. Elgee, Mr. O'Reilly and Mr. Speers have done their best on all occasions to promote the interests of the Reclamation, and that the quarry, constructional and dredging staff have done their duty.

It has been put forward that the Reclamation of Back Bay would, by providing more land in the business and residential area, in some way relieve housing conditions of the poorer classes. That, in our opinion, is too remote for serious consideration, but, as Back Bay proved to be the financial success which was anticipated, the advantage to all classes of persons in the City and throughout the Presidency would have been that there would have been available immense sums of money to be used for any purpose pleasing the Legislative Council. The confident anticipation of profits had no doubt considerable weight in causing the reclamation of Back Bay to be accepted as an integral and necessary part of any comprehensive plan of development.

Action on the Report.—Having regard to the recommendations made by the Affairs Committee and in accordance with the wishes of the Legislative Council, Government have decided for the present to confine future operations in connection with the Back Bay Reclamation Scheme to the reclamation and development of blocks Nos. 1, 2 and 7 and reclamation of block No. 8 (undeveloped) with a marine drive along the existing foreshore connecting blocks 2 and 7. The area under reclamation has thus been reduced from 1,145 to 552 acres. A representative committee has also been constituted with a view to advise Government on all important matters connected with the reclamation. A layout plan in respect of the blocks which are proposed to be reclaimed has been prepared and is now before another committee for its approval for the purposes of a revised

October 1927. The dredging in this block will be continued up to May 1928, and resumed in October 1928, if necessary. The entire work of murrum topping on block No. 8 has been given on contract and proposals for letting out the remaining work on contract basis is under consideration. At the request of the Military authorities, an area of about 24 acres in block No. 8 has been prepared in advance of the rest of the block and was handed over in 1927. The remaining portion of block No. 8 is expected to be transferred to them by May 1928 at the latest. The programme of reclamation, as at present contemplated, is expected to be completed by 1931-1932.

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Year.	Number.	Tonnage.
1911-12	..	1,519
1912-13	..	1,566
1913-14	..	1,579
1914-15	..	1,880
1915-16	..	1,794
1916-17	..	2,112
1917-18	..	2,069
1918-19	..	2,058

19 9 20	2 64	4 8 4 820
19 0 2	2 029	5 59 63
9	2 2	4 895 4 8
19 2 - 20	1 907	4, 229 2 63
1921-21	..	2,014
1924-25	..	1,890
1925-26	..	1,894
1926-27	..	1,843

The two dry docks were occupied during the year 1926-27 by 177 vessels, the total tonnage amounting to 625,803 tons which was less than the previous year by 88,170 tons

KARACHI.

The members of the Board of Trustees of the Port of Karachi are as follows:—

Chairman.—J. B. S. Thubron, C.I.E.

Appointed by Government.—H. H. Hood, (Collector of Customs, Karachi), A. F. Lockwood, (Divisional Superintendent, North-Western Railway); Captain C. H. Peck, D.S.O., M.O. R.A. (D.A.Q.M.G., Sind Independent Brigade Area) Mr Ayub Khan, Bar-at-Law.

Elected by the Karachi Chamber of Commerce.—H. C. Whitehouse, (Strauss & Co.) E. A. Pearson, (Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd.); W. M. Peirie, (Ralli Brothers) J. J. Flockhart (Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.)

Elected by the Karachi Indian Merchants' Association.—Harchandrai Vishindas, C.I.E., M.L.A. (Vice-Chairman), Isherdas N. Malik.

Elected by the Buyers & Shippers Chamber.—Jamshed N. R. Mehta; Haridas Lalji.

Elected by the Karachi Municipality.—Tikamdas Wadhwanl, M.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law.

The principal officers of the Trust are:—

Secretary & Traffic Manager.—T. S. Downie, O.B.E.

Port Officer.—Capt J. F. Vibart, O.B.E., R.I.M.

Chief Accountant.—B. A. Inghet, B.A., O.A.

Chief Engineer.—W. P. Shepherd-Harron

M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Chief Engineer.—H. A. L. French

M. Inst. C.E.

Chief Storekeeper.—Vacant.

The Revenue receipts and expenditure of the Port of Karachi for the year 1926-27 were as under:—

Revenue receipts (excluding the Port Fund Account) Rs. 60,32,480. Revenue Expenditure Rs. 58,91,521. Surplus Rs. 3,20,909. Reserve Fund Rs. 45,20,500.

The number of vessels which entered the Port during the year 1926-27, exclusive of vessels put back and fishing boats was 3,028 with a tonnage of 2,382,713 against 3,258 with a tonnage of 2,842,865 in 1925-26. 580 steamers of all kinds entered the Port with a tonnage of 2,256,989 against 868 and 2,209,406, respectively, in the previous year. Of the above, 689 were of British nationality.

Imports including coal landed at the ship wharves during the year totalled 600,805 tons against 507,548 in the previous year. Total shipments from the ship wharves were 580,118 tons in 1926-27 against 676,089 tons in 1925-26

MADRAS.

The following gentlemen are the Trustees of the Port of Madras:—

Officials.—Sir Bradford Leslie, Kt., O.B.E., M. Inst. C.E., M.I.E.E. Chairman and Chief Engineer; T. A. Stewart, I.C.S., (Collector of Customs); and Capt. C. R. Campbell, D.S.O., M.V.O., R.I.M., (Presidency Port Officer).

Non Officials.—(1) Nominated by Government.—A. A. Biggs, M. Inst. C.E., P. Rothera, O.B.E., (2) Representing Chamber of Commerce, Madras.—H. F. P. Hearson, R.D. Denniston, G. W. Chambers, Sir James Simpson, Kt.; (3) Representing Southern India Chamber of Commerce, Madras. M. R. Ry. Diwan Bahadur Govindoss Chathoorboojadoss Garu, V. Venkateswara Sastrulu Garu; (4) Representing Madras Trades Association.—J. Mackenzie Smith; F. G. Inker; (5) Representing Southern India Skin and Hide Merchants' Association.—M. Mohamed Ismail Sahib Bahadur. Representing Madras Piece-goods Merchants' Association.—M. R. B. Rao Sahib B. Papayya Chetty Garu.

Principal Officers are:—Dy. Chief Engineer W. Fyfe, M. Inst. C.E., M. I. Stuct, E. Mechanical Engineer, T. W. Mair; Assistant Mechanical Engineer, S. W. White, Assistant Engineer, S. Nagabhushanam Executive Engineer M. E. Ry. Rao Bahadur K. Ganapati Kudwa Avargal, B.A., D.C.E.; Assistant Engineer, M. R. Ry. V. Dayananda Kamath Avargal, B.A., B.E., Traffic Manager, J. G. Lord; Assistant Traffic Managers, F. W. Stooke and James Chance; Chief Accountant, S. Narayana Iyer, M.A.; Manager and Accountant, M. R. Ry. Raj Sahib S. Seshayya Avargal; Office Manager, J. L. Pinto.

The receipts during the year of the Port Trust on Revenue account from all sources were Rs. 37,39,364 as against 35,12,861 in 1925-26 and the gross expenditure out of revenue was Rs. 33,06,674. During the year 795 vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 2,609,985 tons, called at the port against last year's figure of 770 vessels of 2,462,297 tons.

RANGOON

The personnel of the Commission of the Port of Rangoon is comprised of seventeen members.—

Appointed by Government—Mr. J. A. Cherry, C.I.E. (Chairman); Captain C.R. Goad, R.N. M., (Principal Port Officer); Messrs. W. Keay and W. T. Henry, M.L.C.

Ex-officio.—Messrs. A. B. Boyd, (Collector of Customs); J.E. Houlday, D.A., I.C.S., M.L.C. (Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust) and J.R.D. Glascock, C.I.E., M.L.C., (Agent, Burma Railways).

Elected by the Burma Chamber of Commerce.—Messrs. J. R. Turner, (Vice-Chairman), C.G. Wordehouse, R. B. Howison and A. E. Donaldson.

Elected by the Rangoon Trades Association.—Mr. J. F. Gibson.

Elected by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce.—Kheng Beng Chous, M.L.C.

Elected by the Burma Indian Chamber of Commerce.—Messrs. Ranchordas H. Gandhi and A. Chandoo.

Elected by the Small Rice Miller's Association.—U. Thwin.

Elected by the Rangoon Municipal Corporation.—U. Ba Pe, M.L.C.

Principal officers

Secretary.—Mr. H. Leonard.

Chief Accountant.—Mr. D. H. James, A.C.A.

Chief Engineer.—Mr. B.C. Niven, M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—Mr. H. N. Gilbert.

Traffic Manager.—Mr. H. Cooper.

The receipts and expenditure on revenue account for the Port of Rangoon in 1926-27 were—

Receipts .. Rs. 79,68,002

Expenditure .. Rs. 76,99,552

The capital debt of the Port at the end of the year was Rs. 4,74,00,674. The balance (including investments at cost) at the credit of the different sinking funds on 31st March 1927 was Rs. 1,46,93,175.

The total sea-borne trade of Rangoon during the year 1926-27 was 1,994,324 tons of which 1,479,873 tons were imports, 8,501 tons exports and 12,894 tons transshipment. The tonnage of goods passed over the Commissioner's premises during the year amounted to 3,182,343 tons. The total number of steamers (excluding Government vessels) entering the Port was 1,448 with a total net registered tonnage of 3,313,564 being a decrease of 66 steamers and 23,730 tons in nett tonnage below that of 1925-26.

CHITTAGONG.

Chittagong in Eastern Bengal, lying on the right bank of the river Karnafuli at a distance of 12 miles from the sea, was already an important port in the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese gave it the name of Porto Grande.

The construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway has facilitated the transport of trade with Assam and Eastern Bengal for which the Port of Chittagong is the natural outlet.

The chief exports are tea and jute and imports place-goods, salt, oil and machinery.

FOREIGN TRADE 1926-27 Rs. (in lakhs).

Imports 164.82

Exports 774.88

COASTING TRADE 1926-27 Rs. (in lakhs).

Imports 341.16

Exports 137.06

Port Commissioners.—M. C. McAlpin, C.I.E. I.C.S., Chairman; G. E. W. Davis, I.C.S., Vice Chairman; R. L. Bliss, V.D.; M. E. Rahman B.A.; F. C. Gray A. R. Leishman, V.D.; Rai Upendra Lal Ray Bahadur, B.L.; Moulvi Abdul Haq Dubash.

Port Officer and Secretary to the Port Commissioners.—Commander C. R. Blissett, R.N.M.

Port Engineer.—F. J. Green, B.Sc., A.M.I.E.E., &c.

Vessels of 25 feet draught can be accommodated during the greater part of the year at four jetties which are fitted with modern equipment and capable of quick despatch.

VIZAGAPATAM HARBOUR PROJECT

The question of creating a harbour at Vizagapatam to supply an outlet for a large area of fertile country adjacent to the East Coast of India, hitherto undeveloped, with considerable mineral resources and without suitable access to the outside world, was first formulated by the Bengal Nagpur Railway Company. That the creation of such a port would have a beneficial influence on this area was unquestioned, for it is pointed out that Vizagapatam, lying as it does in front of the only practicable gap in the barrier of the Eastern Ghats, is formed by nature to be the outlet of the Central Provinces, from which a considerable amount of trade has taken this route in the past, even with the imperfect communications hitherto available. A necessary complement of the scheme is the construction of the proposed railway from Parvatipuram to Raipur

which, with the existing coast line of the Bengal Nagpur Railway, would make a large and rich area tributary to the proposed port, and obviate the long and expensive circuit by Calcutta. A link would also be supplied in the most direct route to Rangoon from Europe by way of Bombay, while, from an imperial point of view, the possible provision of a fortified port on the long and almost unprotected stretch of coast between Colombo and Calcutta is held to be a consideration of great importance. The lofty projecting head-land of the Dolphin's Nose would, it is pointed out, offer facilities for this purpose as well as for protecting the entrance to the Port from the effects of south and south-westerly gales.

The Government of India have, with the approval of the Secretary of State and the

Legislative Assembly, sanctioned the construction of the new railway line from Raipur to Parvatipur and the work is in progress. They have also decided to develop the port of Vizagapatam under their direct control and the port has accordingly been declared to be a major port.

The scheme for the construction and development of the Harbour will be carried out in sections. At present, the first section only has been sanctioned and consists of a wharf 1,500 feet long, capable of taking 3 or 4 steamers, according to their length, with moorings for two vessels in the harbour, *plus* accommodation at the oil jetty for 1 oil tanker or oil burning steamer. The wharf will afford a depth of 30 feet below low water ordinary spring tides and the entrance channel, through the creek to the harbour, will also be dredged to the same depth. In the first section also, goods facilities are provided for in the form of 2 large transit sheds with some 170,000 square feet of floor space, with necessary railway sidings and electric cranes, and passenger traffic is provided for by means of a dharamsala, a waiting room and the necessary customs examination sheds. On the south side of the creek, away from the Harbour, an oil depot is also to be established where oil tankers can come alongside to fill storage tanks in the depot.

The estimated cost of the first section is Rs. 193 lakhs approximately and the time required to complete this will depend on the period that the dredging and reclamation work will take; but it is anticipated that it will be

possible to berth ships in the new harbour in about 4 years' time.

The work is being carried out by a staff of Engineers under the direct charge of an Engineer-in-Chief, who comes under the administrative charge of the Agent, Bengal Nagpur Railway, who is *ex-officio* administrative officer for the development scheme. An advisory committee consisting of the above-mentioned officers and representatives of the Local Government, the Vizagapatam Port Administration and the commercial interests concerned, has also been constituted to advise in the development of the Harbour.

Good progress has been made with the initial portion of the development scheme. Most of the land has been acquired. A marine survey to investigate the sand travel and formation of the bar has been completed. Detailed designs have been prepared for the wharf wall, etc., and preliminary work on the quay wall has been taken in hand. Schemes for sewage and to
in consultation
malarial survey :
completed. Arrangements have also been made with the municipality for the supply of water to the Harbour area during construction.

A rock breaker and dipper have been obtained and employed on dredging work with satisfactory results. A suction dredger was also delivered at Vizagapatam towards the end of the year 1926-27.

Education

Indian education is unintelligible except through its history. Seen thus, it affords the spectacle of a growth which, while to one it will appear as a blunder based on an initial error easily avoided, to another it stands out as a symbol of sincerity and honest endeavour on the part of a far-sighted race of rulers whose aim has been to guide a people alien in sentiments and prejudices into the channels of thought and attitude best calculated to fit them for the needs of modern life and western ideals. There is to-day no subject in the whole area of administrative activity in India which presents greater complexities and differences of opinion than education. Government, local bodies and private agencies of learning have in the past devoted their limited funds to meeting the demands of those who perceived the benefits of education, rather than to cultivating a desire for education where it did not exist. The result is that the structure has become top-heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate, while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of number, at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. There have, however, in recent years been strong movements, leading to the passing of Primary Education Acts in several Provinces, in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses.

The Introduction of Western Learning—In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings, the dominating figure of the time, was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people. Even the Act of 1813 which set apart a lakh of rupees for the introduction and promotion of knowledge of the sciences was interpreted as a scheme for the encouragement of Sanskrit and Arabic. In the following year the Court of Directors instructed the Governor-General to leave the Hindus "to the practice of usage, long established among them, of giving instruction in their own homes, and to encourage them in the exercise and cultivation of their talents by the stimulus of honorary marks of distinction and in some cases by grants of pecuniary assistance."

It was from sources other than Government that the desire for western knowledge arose in India. In 1816, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the enlightened Brahmin, Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The new institution was distrusted both by Christian missionaries and by orthodox Hindus, but its influence grew apace. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported

that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. In Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution was founded in memory of the great ruler who left India in 1837. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach "the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe." Many pronounced the failure of the undertaking to be inevitable; for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This obstacle was surmounted by Macdusdan Gupta who, with a few courageous pupils, began the dissection of a human body. From that time onward Indians of the higher castes have devoted themselves with enthusiasm and with success to the study of medicine in all its branches.

Another impetus to the introduction of western learning was the devotion of **Christian missionaries**. The humanitarian spirit, which had been kindled in England by Wesley, Burke and Wilberforce, influenced action also in India. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1818; and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India, by his insistence on teaching rather than on preaching, and by the foundation of his school and College in Calcutta. In Madras, the missionaries had been still earlier in the field; for as early as in 1787 a small group of missionary schools were being directed by Mr. Schwarz. The Madras Christian College was opened in 1837. In Bombay, the Wilson School (afterwards College) was founded in 1834.

Lord W. Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks the somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined while observing a neutrality in religious matters to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of western learning to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected; still less that the development of the vernaculars should be discouraged. Other changes powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the press was established in 1835; English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837 and in 1844 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received a western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India; and, though the Muhammadans still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Fortunately there has been of late a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need of improving the instructional level of their co-religionists; and in many of the provinces of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muhammadan community is now noticeable.

Male Scholars in Public Institutions.

In arts colleges	47,017	44,070	51,673	66,814	63,189	07 983
In high schools *	560,678	558,313	596,097	631,977	664,593	710 0 7
In primary schools	5,117,219	5,111,860	5,379,621	5,690,820	5,953,360	6,364 43
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	5.1	5.04	5.36	5.71	6.05	6

Public Institutions for Females.

Number of arts colleges	12	15	14	14	18	248
Number of high schools *	198	208	230	237	236	25 4
Number of primary schools	22,461	22,675	22,930	23,583	24,477	

Female Scholars in Public Institutions.

In arts colleges	1,158	1,263	1,487	1,622	1,807	1.8
In high schools *	28,916	26,698	40,662	44,170	47,800	51, 00
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	1.1	1.12	1.11	1.264,814	1,324,092	1,434, 1

TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. (Male .. Female .. Total ..)

	6,427,956	6,401,383	6,807,708	7,206,706	7,658,901	8,268, 47
	1,347,027	1,340,842	1,371,267	1,424,747	1,497,519	1,624, 9
	7,774,983	7,742,225	8,178,975	8,631,453	9,156,420	9,892, 03

TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions ..

Percentage of total scholars to population.	8,377,027	8,381,350	8,791,099	9,316,894	9,797,841	10,514,3 1
	6.55	6.49	6.80	6.15	6.77	6.9
	1.18	1.18	1.21	1.26	1.31	1.4
	3.42	3.39	3.48	3.77	3.96	4.2

Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).

From provincial revenues	7,72,86	9,02,30	9,30,67	9,74,76	9,98,02	Rs.
From local funds	1,66,14	1,68,23	1,89,22	1,70,29	1,80,58	1,084, 8
From municipal funds	67.78	79.05	81.62	88.54	92.08	190,0
Total expenditure from public funds	10,06,76	11,49,61	11,88,21	12,34,59	12,71,28	127, 8
From fees	8,78,47	8,90,09	8,93,61	4,33,54	4,68,69	1,314,0
From other sources	2,02,14	3,07,83	0.05	2,25,97	3,47,51	402,06
						340 29

GROWTH AND ORGANISATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION.

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instructions were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch also broke away from the practice followed since 1835 whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions. "Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection, beginning from the humblest elementary institution and ending with the university test of a liberal education would impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual but steady extension of its benefits to all classes of people." Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay three years later. The affiliating type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis; it did much, through the agency of its Colleges to develop backward places; it accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education; and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates; they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses; their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy; and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In certain important respects the recommendations in the despatch were not followed. The Directors did not intend that university tests, as such, should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts; they also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. They did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions; they recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. They were aware of the dangers of a too literary course of instruction; they hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop the vast resources of their country... and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce. The encouragement of the grant-in-aid system was

advocated to an even greater extent by the Education Commission of 1882, which favoured the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort. In theory the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in the course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the control of the schools and colleges, while the Government continued to pay the expenses of instruction. Instruction was... on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions. There can be little wonder that under such a system of neglect and short-sightedness, evils crept in which are now being removed gradually by the establishment of independent Boards of Intermediate Education charged with the administration of the high school and intermediate stages of education.

The Reforms of 1902-4.

In 1902, the Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities, and on the part of the universities over the schools and colleges. The Chancellors of the Universities were empowered to nominate 80 per cent. of the ordinary members of the Senates and to approve the election of the remainder; the Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment, and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects; but their scope was in practice limited to post-graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined, so that universities were precluded from any connexion with institutions lying outside those boundaries. Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system. They did not inquire whether the affiliating system could be replaced by any other mode of organisation, nor whether all schools might be placed under some public authority which would be representative of the universities and of the departments. They assumed the permanent validity of the existing system, in its main features, and set themselves only to improve and to strengthen it.

Recent Developments

Since the passing of the Universities Act of 1904, there has been a considerable expansion of our educational system. The two tables below afford useful comparisons with previous years and serve to illustrate the growth and expansion of education in India.

(a) STUDENTS.

Year.	In Recognised Institutions.			In All Institutions (Recognised and Unrecognised).		
	Males.	Girls.	Total.	Males.	Girls.	Total.
1898-97	3,423,376	360,006	3,783,382	3,954,712	462,158	4,416,870
1901-02	3,493,325	393,168	3,886,493	4,077,450	444,470	4,521,900
1906-07	4,164,332	579,648	4,744,450	4,743,604	643,028	5,386,632
1911-12	5,253,365	375,660	5,629,025	5,323,182	952,539	6,275,721
1915-16	5,971,184	1,113,024	7,084,208	6,421,215	1,136,281	7,557,496
1916-17	6,050,840	1,156,468	7,207,308	6,621,527	1,230,419	7,851,946
1917-18	6,119,423	1,192,369	7,311,742	6,683,673	1,264,188	7,947,861
1918-19	6,093,129	1,240,534	7,333,663	6,623,149	1,312,423	7,935,572
1919-20	6,306,128	1,306,711	7,612,839	6,829,204	1,377,021	8,206,225
1920-21	6,437,966	1,347,037	7,784,993	6,964,048	1,412,970	8,377,018
1921-22	6,404,434	1,340,812	7,745,246	6,962,979	1,418,422	8,381,401
1922-23	6,507,709	1,371,287	7,878,996	7,241,235	1,449,505	8,690,740
1923-24	7,249,256	1,424,747	8,674,003	7,807,594	1,509,060	9,316,654
1924-25	7,684,901	1,497,510	9,182,411	8,220,080	1,577,281	9,797,361
1925-26	8,283,144	1,624,559	9,907,703	8,804,377	1,709,944	10,514,321

(b) EXPENDITURE.

Year.	Direct and Indirect on education in British India.	
	Public Funds.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.
1898-97	1,67,65,650	2,52,44,900
1901-02	1,77,65,963	4,01,21,462
1906-07	2,96,34,574	5,58,08,673
1911-12	4,05,23,072	7,85,92,605
1915-16	6,21,68,404	11,06,29,248
1916-17	6,14,80,471	11,28,33,068
1917-18	6,46,01,690	11,82,09,137
1918-19	7,17,26,592	12,98,83,073
1919-20	6,44,63,472	14,88,96,950
1920-21	10,06,76,871	18,77,23,118
1921-22	11,40,61,173	18,37,52,969
1922-23	11,33,21,638	19,84,77,181
1923-24	12,31,59,353	19,91,11,191
1924-25	12,91,27,890	20,87,48,319
1925-26	14,14,06,311	22,77,92,532

Educational Expansion.

15-26. the total expenditure on in British India amounted to Rs. 52,532 of which 47.8 per cent. came from Government funds, 14.8 per cent. from Rs. 21.6 per cent. from fees and 16.8 from other sources. In spite of this advance there is much less way to make the last census report the literate of India was only 72 per thousand females per thousand 18.

and valuable comment on the state of education in India. Although the statistical shows more than 5 millions of pupils at it will be seen that over 76 per cent are in the lower primary stage; and it is safely deducted that over 50 per cent of school never become literate. Of course total number of pupils at school is no criterion of the state of education, and a standard of comparison would be that multiplied by the average period of school.

Following table provides an interesting

Age	Infants		I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	Agcs.
	A.	B.									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	1
Below 5	128,885	50,408	32,326	61	13	Below 5
5 to 6	854,203	269,377	124,716	4,443	308	..	6	5 to 6
6 to 7	431,209	380,025	221,890	33,690	4,442	217	27	6 to 7
7 to 8	312,055	377,747	374,991	97,137	26,029	2,647	218	7 to 8
8 to 9	173,104	252,540	294,759	163,585	62,949	16,216	1,280	129	4	..	8 to 9
9 to 10	99,088	204,750	261,126	18,463	104,559	40,831	8,868	633	76	..	9 to 10
10 to 11	53,423	100,667	159,260	141,769	115,686	63,728	25,610	4,583	738	30	10 to 11
11 to 12	26,020	54,568	97,066	118,716	111,013	75,065	42,614	17,100	3,735	861	11 to 12
12 to 13	12,115	26,463	55,898	76,532	87,414	67,476	60,140	27,379	13,814	3,227	12 to 13
13 to 14	6,879	14,314	28,366	42,612	56,843	60,555	41,658	31,254	21,244	10,531	13 to 14
14 to 15	3,042	8,501	13,809	20,535	32,362	30,219	32,526	28,332	23,328	10,801	14 to 15
15 to 16	2,121	6,332	6,978	9,500	16,971	16,418	20,832	21,378	20,296	16,021	15 to 16
16 to 17	1,631	4,238	3,390	4,822	7,066	7,727	10,539	13,786	14,807	19,005	16 to 17
17 to 18	1,696	3,288	2,971	2,883	3,869	3,222	5,207	7,582	8,543	8,272	17 to 18
18 to 19	1,256	3,058	2,202	1,494	1,662	1,987	2,013	3,566	4,361	4,651	18 to 19
19 to 20	1,476	2,598	2,108	1,288	742	559	765	1,577	1,894	1,995	19 to 20
Over 20	2,822	3,883	2,108	2,506	1,925	502	449	773	1,107	983	Over 20
All Ages	1,616,005	1,726,662	1,555,915	923,063	685,601	376,675	245,612	156,129	113,799	76,684	All Ages

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1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	1
Below 5	181,181	181,181	Below 5
5 to 6	758,186	758,186	5 to 6
6 to 7	1,071,590	1,071,590	6 to 7
7 to 8	1,089,826	1,089,826	7 to 8
8 to 9	905,857	905,857	8 to 9
9 to 10	838,675	838,675	9 to 10
10 to 11	689,348	689,348	10 to 11
11 to 12	547,121	547,121	11 to 12
12 to 13	421,671	421,671	12 to 13
13 to 14	305,960	305,960	13 to 14
14 to 15	213,602	213,602	14 to 15
15 to 16	157,719	157,719	15 to 16
16 to 17	109,830	109,830	16 to 17
17 to 18	69,003	69,003	17 to 18
18 to 19	42,067	42,067	18 to 19
19 to 20	25,313	25,313	19 to 20
Over 20	28,056	28,056	Over 20
All Ages	7,549,710	7,549,710	All Ages

Educational Expansion

Province.	In recognised Institutions.			In unrecognised Institutions.			In all Institutions.			Percentage of total scholars to population.	
	1926.	1925.	Increase or Decrease.	1926.	1925.	Increase or Decrease.	1926.	1925.	Increase or Decrease.		
Madras	2,266,800	2,110,269	+156,531	80,162	82,915	-2,753	2,346,962	2,193,184	+153,778	5.51	5.2
Bombay	1,037,081	972,916	64,165	37,039	*45,856	-8,817	1,074,100	1,018,772	+55,328	5.57	5.28
Bengal.. ..	2,172,177	2,107,127	+65,050	49,885	48,815	+6,020	2,222,012	2,150,942	+71,070	4.75	4.60
United Provinces ..	1,221,420	1,125,183	+96,237	72,205	67,232	+4,973	1,298,625	1,192,415	+101,210	2.85	2.62
Punjab	975,517	835,267	+140,250	87,200	84,382	+2,817	1,162,816	919,649	+243,167	5.13	4.44
Burma.. ..	411,308	364,029	+47,269	203,710	205,360	-1,650	615,108	569,389	+45,719	4.64	4.80
Bihar and Orissa ..	1,041,667	962,123	+79,544	42,712	37,264	+5,448	1,094,379	909,687	+184,692	3.18	2.93
Central Provinces ..	313,787	850,811	+17,076	9,193	11,242	-2,146	377,983	382,153	+15,880	2.72	2.60
Assam	280,256	244,413	+15,843	15,780	10,605	+5,125	275,086	255,018	+20,968	3.0	3.35
N.-W. Frontier Province..	58,416	54,568	+3,848	8,103	6,443	+1,660	66,519	61,011	+5,508	2.9	2.7
Coorg	8,341	8,337	+4	127	76	+51	8,968	8,413	+555	5.47	5.13
Delhi	21,906	20,175	+1,731	4,662	6,310	-1,648	26,598	26,485	+113	5.4	5.4
Ajmer-Merwara	12,026	11,162	+864	4,590	4,737	-147	16,616	15,809	+807	3.4	3.2
Baluchistan	5,453	5,202	+251	3,215	3,241	-26	8,668	8,448	+220	2.06	1.8
Bangalore	12,856	12,350	+506	763	12	+751	13,625	13,067	+558	11.5	11.0

The different types of institutions with the scholars in attendance at them are shown in the following table.

	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1924.	1925.	1924.	1925.
Universities	13	13	6,623	6,799
Arts colleges	215	211	63,588	58,850
Professional colleges	75	72	17,378	16,382
High schools	2,634	2,518	761,647	713,594
Middle schools	3,207	7,535	954,510	832,007
Primary schools	1,83,164	175,663	7,789,076	7,315,611
Special schools	8,306	7,735	289,841	255,198
Unrecognised Institutions	94,726	34,680	621,613	612,536
Total	2,27,836	22,378	10,514,321	9,814,272

* Revised figures.

Primary Education.—The primary schools are mainly under the direction of the local boards and municipalities. In 1911, the late Mr G. K. Gokhale pleaded in the Imperial Legislative Council for a modified system of compulsory primary education, but Government was unable to accept the proposal mainly for financial reasons. In recent years, eight provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education by local option. Bombay led the way in this matter by a private Bill which was passed into law in February 1918. The other private Bills which followed were those of Bihar and Orissa passed in February 1919, of Bengal passed in May 1919 and of the United Provinces, passed in June 1919. Of the Government measures, the Punjab Act was passed in April 1919, the Central Provinces Act in May 1920 the Madras Act in December 1920 and the Assam Act in 1925. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act of 1920 extends generally the provisions of the 1918 Act to the Bombay Corporation also enabling it to introduce free compulsory education ward by ward. Not content with this, the Bombay legislature passed a new Act in 1923 to provide for compulsory elementary education and to make better provision for the management and control of primary education in the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay and the United Provinces Acts apply only to municipalities, the Bengal Primary Education Act applies, in the first instance, to municipalities, but is capable of extension to rural areas. Above only are included within the scope of the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and Bengal Acts,

while the Central Provinces Act is capable of extension to girls, and the remaining Acts are applicable to both sexes. The United Provinces legislature passed a second Primary Education Act in 1926, *viz.*, the United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act. It allows the District Boards to introduce compulsion within their areas. All the Acts are drafted on very similar lines. If a local body at a special meeting convened for the purpose decides by a two-thirds majority in favour of the introduction of compulsion in any part of the area under its control, it may then submit to Government, for approval, a scheme to give effect to its decision. The scheme must be within the means of the local body to carry out with reasonable financial assistance from Government. Ordinarily the age limits of compulsion are from six to ten years though provision is made for prolonging the period. Provision is also made in all the Acts for the exemption of particular classes and communities and for special exemption from attendance in cases of bodily infirmity. Walking distance to a school is generally defined as one mile from the child's home. The employment of children, who should be at school, is strictly forbidden and a small fine is imposed for non-compliance with an attendance order. The Acts generally provide that, subject to the sanction of the local Government, education where compulsory shall be free. Such in brief are the ordinary provisions of the various provincial Education Acts. Local bodies have not however shown as yet any great alacrity in availing themselves of the opportunity afforded them by these Acts as is testified by the following table:—

Provinces.	Date of Act.	AREAS UNDER "COMPELSION."	
		Municipalities and Urban Areas.	District Boards and Rural Areas
1. Bombay	February 1918 (For the City of Bombay only) 1920.
2. Bihar and Orissa	February 1923	1	2
3. Punjab	February 1919	42	451
4. Bengal	April 1919
5. United Provinces	May 1919	23	..
6. Central Provinces	June 1919 & 1926	3	65
7. Madras	May 1920	20	4
8. Delhi	December 1920 (Punjab Act applied) 1925	In certain wards of the Delhi Municipality	..

N.B.—The above table does not include areas for which schemes of compulsory primary education are under consideration or have been sanctioned but not yet introduced. It includes, on the other hand, areas in which such schemes have been partially introduced.

* In school

Education in Madras

Total Population		41,405,404	42,219,985	42,518,985	42,318,985	44,318	85
Public Institutions for Males.							
Number of arts colleges	..	47	47	51*	53	44,318	85
Number of high schools	..	265	292	302	310	57	6
Number of primary schools	..	32,495	33,635	35,113	37,713	324	6
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.							
In arts colleges	..	7,533	8,081	8,821	9,120	40,853	43 6 0
In high schools	..	122,245	124,362	127,423	129,293	19,019	11 085
In primary schools	..	1,153,940	1,199,500	1,277,484	1,379,759	181,554	13, 88
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	..	6.5	8.6	6.9	7.5	1,475,240	1,587,
Public Institutions for Females.							
Number of arts colleges	..	3	4	4*	4	5	5
Number of high schools	..	48	51	53	55	50	5
Number of primary schools	..	2,411	2,640	2,785	2,872	2,938	5,243
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.							
In arts colleges	..	302	384	429	447	477	4
In high schools	..	9,101	10,320	10,981	11,859	12,004	12,556
In primary schools	..	340,175	347,285	366,163	392,539	423,190	462,998
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	..	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions							
{ Male		1,333,878	1,378,159	1,460,335	1,565,615	1,664,220	1,779,728
{ Female.		358,402	367,359	367,500	411,990	410,019	480,66
Total		1,692,280	1,745,518	1,827,833	1,977,605	2,110,269	2,260,390
Percentage of total scholars in all institutions.		1,799,350	1,837,023	1,915,117	2,070,588	2,193,184	2,346,55
{ Males		6.9	7.0	7.2	7.9	8.3	8.8
{ Females		1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.3

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schools are very remote from the general sys-
tem of education in India.

March 1920, there were 183,164
ary schools in British India con-
n-scholars. (The latter figure does
holars reading in the primary
dary schools). The total direct
primary schools, during the
mounted to Rs. 6,35,58,298.

and High School Education
f Government is to maintain a
f high schools which are to be re-
s for private enterprise, and to
stitutions. In 1911-12 there were
ools for boys in India and in
amber had risen to 2,396, the
nars in the former year being
the latter year 714,655. Some
been made to give a greater
more practical form of instruc-
ools. The Commission of 1882

there should be two sides in
als, 'one leading to the entrance
the universities, the other of a
character, intended to fit youths
and other non-literary pursuits.'
er, what were called B and C
rted in some schools in Bengal,
i not lead to a university course,
been successful. In more recent
ment of India have advocated
of a school final examination
ore practical subjects may be
rts have also been made to
nduct of the matriculation and
e importance of oral tests and
s. In Madras, this examination,
under the direction of a Board
of the University and of
proved somewhat cumbersome
fications were made. In the
ices, and the Central Provinces
secondary education has been
cial Boards created for this pu-
the Administration of Delhi has
ard of Secondary Education for

In the Punjab and in Som-
leaving examination is conduct-
But the main difficulty has
ouched. The University which
schools has no money where-
e them; and the Department of
on, which allots the Government
responsibility for the recogni-
and no connexion whatever
to unaided schools. This dual
this division of responsibility
appy effects. The standard of
is very low so that the matricu-
nools is to benefit by the col-
some provinces an endeavour
to raise the standard of the
drawing from the University
e classes and by placing them
the better schools in the State.

ools for Europeans and Anglo-
re placed under the control of
for European Schools. The
domiciled community has pro-
vexing problem, and in 1912 a

Medium of instruction in public schools
—The position of English as a foreign language
and as a medium of instruction in public
schools was discussed by a representative con-
ference which met at Simla in 1917 under the
Chairmanship of Sir Sankaran Nair, the then
Education Member. Although it was generally
conceded that the teaching of school subjects
through a medium which was imperfectly under-
stood led to cramming and memorising of
text-books, the use of English medium was
defended by some on the ground that it improved
the knowledge of English. The result of the
conference was therefore inconclusive. Some
local authorities have since then approved of
schemes providing for the recognition of local
vernaculars as media of instruction and examina-
tion in certain subjects.

Boy Scout Movement.—A happy develop-
ment in recent years has been the spread of
the boy scout movement in public schools.

Medical Inspection.—Arrangements have
been made for medical inspection of scholars.

Intermediate Colleges.—One important
part of the Calcutta University Commission's
recommendations has been accepted by the
Government of the United Provinces and the
Government of India and incorporated in the
Acts establishing the Lucknow, Dacca and Ali-
garh Muslim Universities, and reconstituting
that of Allahabad, namely, the separation of
the intermediate classes from the sphere of
university work and of the two top classes of
high schools from the rest of the school classes.
The separated classes have been combined
together and the control over them has been
transferred from the University to a Board of
Secondary and Intermediate Education. Such
a Board was constituted for the Dacca University
area by a notification of the Government of
Bengal in 1921. It contains twenty-two
members of whom seven are elected by the
University. The United Provinces Board was
constituted by an Act passed in the same year.
It consists of some forty members of whom
approximately one-quarter represent the Univer-
sities in the Province. The Intermediate
Examination Board of the Aligarh Muslim
University was brought into existence by an
Ordinance framed in 1922. It is composed of
eight members.

Professional and Technical Education.
—There are 40 Medical Colleges and schools
with 9,116 students, 14 Law Colleges and
schools with 8,555 students, and twenty
Agricultural Colleges and schools containing
1,094 students. A research institute in agricul-
ture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in
Bihar, which has done valuable work. Confer-
ences have been held at Pusa, Simla and
Poona, with the object of providing a suitable
training in agriculture. There are twenty-one
training colleges for secondary teachers in va-
rious parts of India with about 1,094 scholars
and normal schools for the training of
vernacular teachers. There are 153 commercia

Educator in Bombay

Public Institutions for Males.		Public Institutions for Females.	
Number of arts colleges	Number of high schools	Number of arts colleges	Number of high schools
Number of primary schools	Number of primary schools	Number of primary schools	Number of primary schools
11	144	43	1505
11,513	11,513	168	7,472
4,853	40,478	167,459	2.0
40,478	439,577	7.5	2.1
439,577	7.1	180,901	905,000
7.1	4,853	949,827	7.5
4,853	40,478	2.1	7.5
40,478	439,577	180,901	905,000
439,577	7.1	949,827	7.5
7.1	4,853	2.1	7.5
4,853	40,478	180,901	905,000
40,478	439,577	949,827	7.5
439,577	7.1	7.5	2.1
7.1	4,853	180,901	905,000
4,853	40,478	949,827	7.5
40,478	439,577	7.5	2.1
439,577	7.1	180,901	905,000
7.1	4,853	949,827	7.5
4,853	40,478	2.1	7.5
40,478	439,577	180,901	905,000
439,577	7.1	949,827	7.5
7.1	4,853	2.1	7.5
4,853	40,478	180,901	905,000
40,478	439,577	949,827	7.5
439,577	7.1	7.5	2.1
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7.1	4,853	2.1	7.5
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40,478	439,577	949,827	7.5
439,577	7.1	7.5	2.1
7.1	4,853	180,901	905,000
4,853	40,478	949,827	7.5
40,478	439,577	2.1	7.5
439,577	7.1	180,901	905,000</

and schools with 8,357 scholars. The prominent among them is the Sydenham College of Commerce in Bombay. Institutions are dotted about India, some aided by Government, others by municipal local boards, and others by private.

The most important are the Bombay Technical Institute in Bombay, the Institute of Science at Bangalore, and the Institute of Technology at Madras. The tendency in recent years has been to place these institutions under the control of the Government of India. In addition to these, there are several other institutions, such as the Poona School of Architecture, the Poona School of Engineering, and the Poona School of Medicine.

which except that at Roorkee, is affiliated to a university. There are also several technical schools. They have on the 31st March 1925 maintained a high standard and great pressure for admission is reported from several provinces. There are schools of art in the larger towns where not only architecture and the fine arts are studied, but also practical crafts like pottery and iron work. There are two forest colleges at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore with 110 scholars in all. A Technical Institute is in existence at Cawnpore and a Mining School at Dhanbad. There are three colleges for veterinary training containing 272 students.

Universities.

There are sixteen universities in India, namely:—

University.	Dates of Acts.	Territorial Jurisdiction.
CALCUTTA	1857, 1904, 1905 & 1921.	Bengal and Assam and certain adjacent Indian States.
MADRAS	1857, 1904, 1905 and 1923.	The Presidency of Madras excluding the Telugu country and Coorg and certain Indian States.
BOMBAY	1857, 1904 & 1905 ..	The Presidency of Bombay and certain Indian States (Baroda, &c.).
PUNJAB	1882, 1904 & 1905 ..	The Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and adjacent Indian States (Kashmir, Patna, &c.).
ALLAHABAD	1887, 1904, 1905 and 1921.	The United Provinces, Ajmere, Marwar and adjacent States.
BENARES HINDU	Oct. 1915	Benares District.
MYSORE	July 1916	Mysore State.
PATNA	Sept. 1917 and 1923..	Bihar & Orissa and adjacent Indian States.
OSMANIA	1918	Hyderabad.
DACCA	April 1920	Radius of 5 miles.
ALIGARH MUSLIM	Sept. 1920	Radius of 10 miles.
RANGOON	Oct. 1920 and 1924 ..	Burma.
LUCKNOW	Nov. 1920	Local.
DELHI	March 1922	Delhi.
NAGPUR	June 1923	The Central Provinces and Berar.
ANDHRA *	Jan. 1926	The Telugu Country of the Madras Presidency.

* Actually established after 1925-26.

going statement mentions the universities incorporated by law for the time being. The first University in India, that of Calcutta, was founded in 1857. Between 1857 and 1925 four new Universities, at Bombay, Lahore and Allahabad were added. These universities were all of the affiliated type. They consisted of groups of colleges, each more or less several hundred miles apart,

and bound together by a legally constituted central organisation, which determined the qualifications for admission, prescribed the courses of study, conducted the examinations and exercised a mild form of control over the affiliated colleges. There was nothing under the system to limit the number of institutions affiliated to a University; and for thirty years, i.e. from 1857 to 1925, the growing demand for

university. In 1917 this institution had been carried on so far that the composition of the original five universities stood as follows:—

University.	Colleges.	Scholars.
Calcutta	38	28,418
Bombay	17	8,001
Madras	53	10,216
Punjab	24	6,558
Allahabad	39	7,807

It had become obvious that further expansion on the same lines was no longer possible without a serious loss of efficiency and the Government of India had recognised in their resolution of 1913 the necessity of creating new local teaching and residential universities in addition to the existing affiliating universities. The development of this policy was accelerated by the strength of communal feeling and the growth of local and provincial patriotism, leading to the establishment of a number of teaching universities. The new type of universities has since been strongly advocated by the Calcutta University Commission which has offered constructive proposals as to the lines to be followed in university reform. A detailed account of the old and new Universities is given below.

The Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and the Punjab.—These three Universities alone still retain their old form, as measures for their reorganisation are still under consideration. On the 27th March 1921 an amending Act was passed by which the Governor-General ceased to be the Chancellor of the Calcutta University and now the head of the provincial government is the Chancellor of each of the older universities. The Vice-Chancellor is nominated by the Government concerned. The executive body is the Syndicate which is now organised so as to include a larger educational element. Over this body the Vice-Chancellor presides, all other members being elected by the Faculties, except the Director of Public Instruction who is a member *ex-officio*. The secretarial work is under the direction of the Registrar. The legislative body is the Senate which consists of from 75 to 100 members, 80 per cent. of whom are nominated by the Chancellor, the rest being elected by the Senate, or by its Faculties, or by the body of registered graduates. The Senate is divided into Faculties, which are in most cases those of arts, science, law, medicine, and engineering. There is an oriental faculty in the Punjab University alone. There are also Boards of Studies, whose duties are to recommend textbooks or books which represent the standard of knowledge required in the various examinations. The newer universities differ considerably from the older universities in constitution.

Apart from the general tightening up of university control over its colleges, the chief fea-

ture only, a Council of Associated Colleges or by the universities in post-graduate teaching and research. In Madras a small number of university professors have been appointed in the Punjab the services of a certain number of temporary professors from overseas have been engaged. In Bombay a certain number of college professors and others have delivered lectures to post-graduate students under the auspices of the University. But the most notable advance has been made in Calcutta owing to the energy of the late Sir Asutosh Mukherjee and to the liberality of Sir Tara Nath Palit and of Sir Basu Bapat Ghosh. In 1916, a committee was appointed to investigate the matter. In accordance with its report, new regulations have been passed by the Senate, whereby all post-graduate teaching and research in arts and science in Calcutta is now conducted directly by the University, though many of the college teachers have been invited to take part in the work. Post-graduate councils in arts and science have also been constituted, which comprise all the teachers engaged in the work and a very small number of additional numbers appointed by the Senate.

The University of Madras.—This is one of the older universities. It has recently been reconstituted. The reconstituted University while functioning as teaching and residential University in so far as the city of Madras is concerned, continues to exercise its jurisdiction over its colonial colleges which remain affiliated to it. The administration of the University is in the hands of a Senate which has been so constituted as to include both those who are educationists and those who are connected with the actual business and commercial life. A large elective element has been introduced in its composition. Government control over the details of administration has been decentralised. The affairs of the University are managed by the Senate through a body called the Syndicate, while the Academic Council, another new body, has charge of the academic matters. The affiliated colleges have been entrusted to the care of a *University Council* with the recommendation of the University Commission. The Intermediate Examination Certificate has been made the admission test to the courses of the University. The Governor-General of India has been associated with the University as its Visitor with certain emergency powers. The Governor of Madras continues a Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is an elected whole-time officer.

The University of Allahabad.—This is another old University which has undergone reorganisation. In 1921 an Act was passed with a view to establishing a unitary, teaching and residential University at Allahabad while enabling the University to continue to exercise due control over the quality and character of the teaching given in its name by colleges affiliated to the University at Allahabad. The Governor-General is Visitor, and the Governor of the United Provinces Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is a whole-time officer. There is a Court, an Executive Council, an Academic Council, a Committee of Reference dealing with expenditure only, a Council of Associated Colleges or

The Mysore University was constituted under Regulation V of 1916, for the better encouragement and organisation of education in the State. His Highness the Maharaja is the Chancellor. The University is very similar in its constitution to the older Indian universities, having a Senate of not less than fifty and not more than sixty members; but, unlike the older universities, it gives seats on the Senate to the university professors *ex-officio*. It departs from existing practice by centralising university instruction in Mysore and Bangalore, and by conducting the work of the first year of the old college course in a few specially selected high schools. The University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say, its examinations have the status of the examinations of the universities in British India.

The Patna University.—Much thought has also been given to the evolution of a new type of university which will run abreast of the old. Patna university, which was constituted in 1917, is in most of its features a university of the old type, but certain innovations have been made. The Chancellor, who is the Governor of the province, may annul any proceeding of the University which is not in conformity with the Act and the Regulations. In the Senate the application of the elective principle has been extended, by increasing both the proportion of the elected Fellows and the categories of electing bodies, and the Senate includes representatives of the teaching staff and of the graduate teachers of recognised schools. Further, all colleges are given statutory representation on the Senate in the persons or their principals. The Syndicate is the ultimate authority in academic matters, subject to the proviso that any six of its members have the power to refer such matters to the Senate for review. The Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the local Government. In addition to other duties, he has the power to inspect all colleges of the University. The colleges affiliated to the University are of two kinds; colleges of the University whose buildings are situated within a specified area, and external colleges, whose buildings are situated in one of the four following towns: Munshifpur, Bhagalpur, Cuttack and Hazaribagh.

The Osmania University, Hyderabad.—The Osmania University was established under a Charter promulgated with a *Piraman* of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, dated the 22nd September 1913. The fundamental principle underlying the working of the University is that Urdu forms the medium of education, although a knowledge of English as a language is compulsory in the case of all students. There is a Bureau of Translation attached to the University which produces text books required for college classes. The constitution of the University consists of a Council, a Senate, a Syndicate, Faculties and Boards of Studies. There is a Chancellor and a Vice-Chancellor both *ex-officio* officers. The executive government of the University including general supervision and control over colleges is vested in the Council which is the highest authority and which performs the function assigned to Government

in the case of British Indian Universities. The University possesses at present only one constituent college, viz., the Osmania University College, which was opened in 1910. The Osmania University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say, its examination and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations and degrees of a University established by law in British India.

The Hindu University, Benares.—The creation of the Hindu University, Benares, forms a landmark in the history of the Indian university system. The university is not designed to meet the needs of one province alone, but to draw students from all parts of India.

It has no monopoly, no privilege. Its energies are not diffused by the necessity of supervising distant colleges nor is its vitality impaired by the embarrassment of administrative duties other than those of organising its own teaching. It is therefore the first Indian university which is primarily a seat of learning and not an administrative organisation. Its constitution is therefore very different from those of the other Indian universities. A dividing line is made between administrative matters, entrusted to a large body called the Court, with an executive committee called the Council, and academy matters, entrusted primarily to a Senate, with an executive body called the Syndicate. The Court has the right to elect the members of the Senate, except where the Senate has acted in accordance with the Act, statutes and regulations. With a solitary exception it is composed entirely of Hindus. The Senate has the entire charge of the organisation of instruction in the University and the colleges, the courses of study, and the examination and discipline of students, and the conferment of ordinary and honorary degrees. This university can recognise schools all over India.

The University of Dacca.—With the modification of the Partition of Bengal in 1911, Dacca ceased to be the capital of the separate province of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Shortly afterwards, the Government of India decided to establish a university of Dacca and the Government of Bengal appointed a committee to frame a scheme for the new University. The committee was instructed that the University should be of the teaching and residential and not of the federal type, and that it should be a self-contained organism unconnected with any colleges outside the limits of the city of Dacca. The committee which was presided over by the late Mr. R. (afterwards Sir Robert) Nathan presented its report later in the year. The report is of great value and in it certain new principles are enunciated. Great emphasis was attached to physical training and education and also to the tutorial guidance of the students. The University was to be very largely a State institution, and practically all its teachers and those of its colleges were to be Government servants. Though the colleges were to be separate units, each with its separate staff and buildings, they were to be linked together and with the University by a

Education in Bengal

Total Population		4,484,077	46,695,036	46,695,536	46,695,536	46,695,536	46,695,536
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>							
Number of arts colleges	..	33	33	36*	38	39	38
Number of high schools	..	883	887	896	918	958	99
Number of primary schools	..	35,703	35,621	35,373	36,583	37,079	37,13
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>							
In arts colleges	..	19,572	16,738	21,106	22,629	23,846	21,718
In high schools	..	210,179	193,751	202,625	211,208	219,691	233,12
In primary schools	..	1,127,111	1,112,812	1,139,900	1,206,853	1,209,130	1,281,317
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	..	6.6	6.19	6.47	6.84	7.18	7.4
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>							
Number of arts colleges	..	3	3	4*	4	4	4
Number of high schools	..	25	25	37	37	38	39
Number of primary schools	..	12,069	12,163	12,313	12,842	13,371	13,739
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>							
In arts colleges	..	216	204	243	260	274	303
In high schools	..	4,876	4,582	6,872	7,160	7,818	8,218
In primary schools	..	329,754	323,004	325,207	340,014	355,294	369,243
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	..	1.6	1.61	1.62	1.68	1.65	1.7
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions</i> { Male .. Female ..							
		1,543,466	1,496,439	1,564,612	1,702,679	1,731,110	1,783,548
		345,014	338,578	341,613	367,145	373,011	388,629
<i>Total ..</i>							
		1,888,510	1,835,017	1,906,225	2,069,827	2,107,127	2,172,17
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.</i>							
		1,945,145	1,890,454	1,950,929	2,057,062	2,150,942	2,222,012
<i>Percentage of total scholars to population</i> { Male .. Female ..							
		6.8	6.38	6.63	7.01	7.33	7.56
		1.6	1.51	1.74	1.61	1.63	1.76

close form of the entire Board, to be called the Council, was to have very considerable powers, subject to the sanction of Government. The Council, which was to be a large and representative body, was to be the legislative authority, subject to the control of Government, and in other respects an advisory authority. The total cost of the full scheme was estimated at 53 lakhs, but deducting certain sums which were available from other sources the net cost was put down at nearly 40 lakhs, exclusive of recurring charges. These were expected to involve a net total of about 61 lakhs annually. Before the scheme thus elaborated (which had received the Secretary of State's sanction) could be taken in hand, the war broke out. The Act constituting the University was passed in April 1920 and Mr L. (now Sir) P. J. Hartog, C.B.E., was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor.

The Aligarh Muslim University.—It was the aim of Sir Syed Ahmed Khan years ago to place the benefits of a liberal education within the reach of the Muhammadan community; and in 1875 a school was opened which three years later was converted into the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College, Aligarh. The movement in favour of transforming this college into a teaching and residential university started, as early as the end of the last century. In 1911, during the visit of His Majesty the King-Emperor to India, His Highness the Aga Khan made an appeal which resulted in the collection of large subscriptions. A draft constitution was drawn up and a consultative committee was formed. But the draft constitution was not approved by the Secretary of State, and on the question of the right of affiliating colleges outside Aligarh in particular, there was a sharp difference of opinion. Government laid down, as in the case of the Hindu University, that the university should not have the power of affiliating Moslem institutions in other parts of India.

On October 15th, 1915, a meeting of the Moslem University Association was held at Aligarh, under the presidency of the Raja (now Maharaja) of Mahmudabad, when it was proposed that the meeting recommends the Moslem University Foundation Committee the acceptance of the Moslem University on the lines of the Hindu University. It was evident at the meeting that a large number of Indian Moslems were not prepared to accept a constitution for their university similar to that of the Hindu University.

In April, 1917, at a meeting of the Foundation Committee the following resolution was passed:—

“That this meeting of the Moslem University Foundation Committee hereby resolves with reference to the letter of the Government of India, Education Department, dated Delhi, 17th February 1917, D. O. No. 66, that the Committee is prepared to accept the best University on the lines of the Hindu University. It further authorises the Regulation Committee appointed at its Lucknow meeting, with the President and Honorary Secretary of the Moslem University Association as its *ex-officio* to take steps in its name with the Hon. the Education Member for

the introduction of the Moslem University Bill in the Imperial Legislative Council.”

The bill referred to above was ultimately introduced into the Council and was passed in September 1920. The Act came into force on December 1st, 1920.

The University of Pongson.—Plans for a university in Pongson were first introduced in 1900.

Butler thought that, on general grounds and with some reference to the needs of the province the Rangoon University might usefully be of a more practical type than any yet attempted in India with courses in arts and science, pure and applied, technology, medicine, engineering, agriculture, law, forestry, veterinary, science and training, commerce and architecture. It might perhaps combine with university instruction practical studies at the Chief Court, the Pasteur Institute and the hospitals; and also at the Museum which the local Government was committed to build as soon as funds were available. It is possible in Burma to a greater extent than in any of the older and more advanced provinces in India to concentrate the intellectual energies of the province in one institution.

The Act to develop a really high standard of education at Rangoon was passed in 1920. This Act however did not find favour with a section of Burmese and was consequently amended in 1923. The amending Act introduced greater popular and representative elements in the composition of the Council and invested the reformed Council with greater discretionary powers in matters affecting public interest, such as the question of admitting affiliation of *mofussil* colleges or of admitting more colleges to the status of constituent colleges. In short it rendered the University more suited to the needs and aspirations of the province. The University authorities are the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Council (with an executive committee) and the Senate. The Council is the supreme administrative body while the Senate is an academic body with entire control of studies, examination and discipline. The Governor-General, as Visitor, has the right to cause inspection to be made.

The Lucknow University.—The foundation of this University may primarily be ascribed to the patriotism of the people of Oudh. It is a unitary teaching and residential University incorporated by an Act passed in 1920. The University authorities are (1) the Court, with powers of making statutes, (2) the Executive Council, which administers the property of the University and appoints examiners, (3) the Academic Council, which controls the teaching and advises the Executive Council on all academic matters, (4) a Committee of Reference (a Sub-Committee of the Court) deals with items of new expenditure only. The Governor-General, as Visitor, has the same power as in the case of the Rangoon University and other new, or reorganised, universities.

The Delhi University.—The Delhi University was created by an Act passed in 1920. The University depends for its existence mainly on the grant of the Government of India who occupies the position of a local Government.

Education in the United Provinces

TOTAL POPULATION		40,375,687	43,373,187	4,976,787	45,375,767	15,377,737	47,737	47,737
<i>Public Institutions for Males</i>								
Number of arts colleges	..	17	21	33*	36	37*	37*	3
Number of high schools	..	178	184	154†	162	162†	162†	168
Number of primary schools	..	15,099	15,496	15,903	16,514	17,351	17,351	18,22
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>								
In arts colleges	..	5,415	5,449	5,925	7,166	8,040	8,040	9,08
In high schools	..	45,850	46,359	48,367	51,040	58,038	58,038	56,644
In primary schools	..	772,811	754,851	798,683	853,643	890,710	890,710	962,314
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	..	3.7	3.68	3.9	4.18	4.31	4.31	4.6
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>								
Number of arts colleges	..	8	5	5*	4	4*	4*	5
Number of high schools	..	26	26	12†	28	28†	28†	20
Number of primary schools	..	1,269	1,344	1,348	1,406	1,413	1,413	1,57
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>								
In arts colleges	..	52	73	73	87	102	102	113
In high schools	..	2,988	2,870	3,366	3,177	3,396	3,396	3,45
In primary schools	..	75,516	78,089	80,114	80,138	78,636	78,636	80,300
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	..	.42	.43	.45	.46	.40	.40	.5
TOTAL SCHOLARS in { Males	..	890,735	871,750	920,274	959,591	1,026,089	1,026,089	1,110,47
Public institutions. { Females	..	90,959	93,809	96,568	99,168	99,094	99,094	110,913
TOTAL	..	981,744	965,559	1,016,842	1,057,749	1,125,183	1,125,183	1,221,42
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male & female) in all institutions</i>								
..	..	1,047,761	1,029,565	1,089,951	1,150,762	1,192,415	1,192,415	1,293,62
Percentage of total scholars to { Males	..	4.0	3.96	4.1	4.40	4.37	4.37	4.64
population { Females	..	44	47	47	48	48	48	5
TOTAL	..	2.3	2.27	2.33	2.53	2.62	2.62	2.85

No.	Name of University	Examination	Remarks.
8.	PATNA	The Matriculation Examination of the Patna University.	
9.	OSMANIA	The Matriculation Examination of the Osmania University.	
10.	ALIGARH MUSLIM ..	An Intermediate Examination.	
11.	BANGALORE	The Anglo-Vernacular or English or European High School Examination.	This is approximately equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University.
12.	LUCKNOW	The Intermediate Examination of an Indian University.	
13.	DACCA	Do.	
14.	DELHI	The Matriculation Examination of an Indian University at present: ultimately an Intermediate Examination.	
15.	NAGPUR	The Final Examination held under the Central Provinces High School Education Act, 1922.	Do.
16.	ANDHRA UNIVERSITY ..	The School-leaving Certificate Examination.	

University Training Corps.—An interesting development in the corporated life of the Universities has been the foundation of University Corps attached to the Indian Defence Force. Such Corps are now in existence at the various University centres in British India.

Education of Indian Women and Girls.—The comparative statement below shows the state of women's education during 1925-26:—

	Institutions.			Scholars.			Percentage of scholars in each class of institution.
	1926.	1925.	Increase or decrease.	1926.	1925.	Increase or decrease.	
* For Females.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Recognized institutions—							
Arts Colleges	19	18	+1	1,231	1,214	+17	0.12
Professional Colleges	7	7	—	181	178	+3	0.02
High Schools	283	284	+2	46,932	44,051	+2,881	4.43
Middle Schools	732	708	+24	34,073	29,805	+4,268	8.12
Primary Schools	23,814	24,708	+1,108	914,290	859,020	+55,270	86.24
Special Schools	300	305	-5	11,317	11,331	-14	1.07
Unrecognized institutions ..	2,696	2,579	+117	57,139	55,514	+1,625	..
Totals	27,806	28,554	+1,252	1,117,243	1,050,108	+67,135	100.0

There is still a leeway to be made good. All the influences which operate against the spread of education amongst the boys are reinforced in the case of women by the *pardah* system and the custom of early marriage.

Arts colleges, medical colleges, and the like admit students of both sexes, and a few girls attend them. The Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women at Delhi gives a full medical course for medical students. The Shreebati Nathibai Damodhar Thackersey Indian Women's University was started some nine years ago by Professor Karve. It is a private institution and is doing good pioneer work.

Education in the Army.—The Army in India undertakes the responsibility of the education of certain sections of the community. Its activities are directed into various channels with certain definite objects, which may be summarised as follows:—

(i) The education of the soldier, British and Indian, in order to:—

(a) develop his training facilities;

(b) improve him as a subject for military training and as a citizen of the Empire;

(c) enhance the prospects of remunerative employment on his return to civil life.

(ii) The fulfilment of the obligations of the State to the children of soldiers, serving and at-service (British and Indian).

(iii) The provision, as far as possible, of training for the children of soldiers, who have died in the service of their country.

(iv) The creation of a body of Indian gentlemen educated according to English public school traditions, which should provide suitable candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

Education in the P ngab

<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>									
Number of arts colleges ..	16	16	10	17	21	286			
Number of high schools ..	167	203	216	237	264	5714			
Number of primary schools ..	5,369	5,627	5,738	5,679	5,692				
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>									
In arts colleges ..	4,266	4,472	4,855	5,622	6,710	7,878			
In high schools ..	71,908	75,972	83,634	95,914	101,987	111,441			
In primary schools ..	234,674	270,153	310,053	360,293	382,005	376,88			
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	3.9	4.38	5.54	6.1	6.78	7.94			
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>									
Number of arts colleges ..	1	1	2	2	2	2			
Number of high schools ..	18	10	17	18	19	2			
Number of primary schools ..	1,017	1,048	1,048	4,016	1,039	1 62			
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>									
In arts colleges ..	33	36	72*	10	175	5			
In high schools ..	2,441	2,870	2,238	2,845	2,571	3,438			
In primary schools ..	47,212	48,184	52,345	61,579	62,405	67,825			
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	.06	.67	.71	.60	.72	.82			
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male .. Female ..									
	438,698	489,765	525,916	635,203	780,285	80,40			
	62,244	62,867	60,855	65,392	68,982	77,6 2			
	500,897	552,622	602,771	700,595	835,267	975,1 7			
	556,989	630,690	77,978	841,986	919,449	1,002,8 9			
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.									
Percentage of total scholars to population.	4.2	4.77	6.04	6.6	7.28	8.41			
	.80	.92	1.0	1.01	1.02	1.5			
	2.2	3.08	3.75	4.07	4.44	5.12			
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>									
From provincial revenues ..	Rs. 86,020	Rs. 86,78	Rs. 1,13,36	Rs. 1,13,18	Rs. 1,13,34	Rs. 1,34,05			
From local funds ..	23,67	26,40	23,17	21,41	22,7	22,7			
From municipal funds ..	9,31	9,76	9,57	9,11	9,26	10 6			

The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College, Dohra Dun.—A Royal Military College has been established at Dohra Dun. The aim of this institution is to provide education on the lines of an English public school for the sons of Indian gentlemen, both civil and military, up to the standard required for the passing of the entrance examination of the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

Administration.—The educational services are divided into (a) the Indian Educational Service, (b) the Provincial Educational Service, (c) the Subordinate Educational Service.

(a) **The Indian Educational Service** which comprises officers performing inspection and tutorial work, is subdivided into two branches—one for men and the other for women. Appointments to both branches were originally made by the Secretary of State for India in Council, but since May 1924 recruitment has been suspended and no further appointments will be made to this service. Each local Government will find its own recruits. All officers belonging to this service come under the special leave and pension rules. Under the recommendations made by the Lee Commission, members of non-Asiatic domicile are entitled to four free passages, 1st class B., P. & O., during their service and to overseas pay in sterling.

(b) **Indian Educational Service (Men's Branch).**—There is a time-scale of pay rising from Rs. 400 by annual increments of Rs. 50 to Rs. 1,250 a month. There are two selection grades—one for 15 per cent. of the cadre on Rs. 1,250-50-1,500 a month and the other for 5 per cent. on Rs. 1,550-100-1,750 a month. Officers of non-Indian domicile receive overseas pay in addition ranging from Rs. 150 to Rs. 250 a month. The principals of first grade colleges receive duty allowances of Rs. 150 or Rs. 50 a month. Allowances of Rs. 150 a month are also granted to the Assistant Directors of Public Instruction and to other officers holding similar administrative appointments. There is one Director of Public Instruction in each province. The posts of Director are treated as prize posts for the members of the I.E.S. Their pay varies from Rs. 1,500-50-1,750 a month in the North-West Frontier Province to Rs. 2,500-100-3,000 in the Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal. In some provinces the Directors have been made *ex-officio* Secretary, Deputy Secretary or Under-Secretary, in the local Education Departments.

(c) **Indian Educational Service (Women's Branch).**—The organisation and conditions of service are similar to those in the Men's Branch. The pay is Rs. 400-25-850 a month, with a selection grade of Rs. 900-25-950-50-1,050 a month for 20 per cent. of the cadre. In cases where the provincial cadre is very small, one member of the service is eligible for a selection grade post, irrespective of the percentage maximum. Officers of non-Indian domicile are in addition granted overseas pay ranging from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 a month. The principals of first grade colleges for women and ladies holding such administrative posts as the Deputy Directresses of Public Instruction are eligible for a duty allowance of Rs. 100 a month.

(d) **Stoppage of Recruitment to the I.E.S.**—As a result of the Report of the Royal Com-

mission on the Superior Civil Services in India 1924, further recruitment to the I.E.S. was stopped with effect from May 1924. Under the scheme of the organisation of the new superior educational services, all the existing posts in the Indian Educational Service will be merged into new provincial cadres which will contain special appointments not less in number than those in existence on the 9th March 1926. On the constitution by local Governments of their new superior services, on particular appointments will be reserved for members of the Indian Educational Service as at present.

(e) **The Provincial Educational Service**—This service also consists of two branches, one intended for men and the other for women. The service comprises posts more or less similar to those borne on the cadre of the Indian Educational Service, but of secondary importance. Candidates are recruited in India by local Governments. They are invariably graduates of Indian universities and natives of the province concerned.

(f) **Provincial Educational Service (Men's Branch).**—The minimum and maximum pay has been fixed at Rs. 250 and Rs. 800 a month respectively, and local Governments have been empowered to settle grading within these limits.

(g) **Provincial Educational Service (Women's Branch).**—The minimum pay is Rs. 200 a month and the maximum pay Rs. 500 a month. As in the case of the Men's Branch local Governments are competent to fix grading within these figures.

(h) **The Subordinate Educational Service**—This service is meant for posts of minor importance. Each province has its own rate of pay. For example, in the Punjab the maximum pay of S.E.S. officers is Rs. 250 a month.

Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Government of India—In 1910 a Department of Education was established in the Government of India with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council. The first Member was Sir Harcourt Butler. In 1923, the activities of the Department were widened, in the interests of economy, by absorption in it of the Departments of Agriculture and Health. The Department has since been designated the Department of Education, Health and Lands. Sir Muhammad Habibullah and Mr. J. W. Bore are the present Member and Secretary, respectively. The Department possesses an educational adviser styled Educational Commissioner. The present Educational Commissioner is Mr. R. Littlehales, C.I.E., M.A.

Calcutta University Commission.—The Report of the Calcutta University Commission was published in August 1919 and in the following January the Government of India issued a Resolution summarising the main features of the Report and the recommendations of the Commissioners.

The Government of India drew special attention to the following points in the Report:—

(1) High schools fail to give that breadth of training which the developments of the country and new avenues of employment demand.

(ii) The intermediate section of University education should be recognized as part of school education and should be separated from the University organisation.

(iii) The defects of the present system of affiliated colleges may be mitigated by the establishment of a strong central teaching body, the incorporation of unitary universities (as occasion arises), a modification of the administrative machinery which will admit of fuller representation of local interests, and supervision of different classes of institutions by several appropriately constituted bodies.

The Commission gave detailed suggestions for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University, for the control of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal and for the establishment of a unitary teaching University in Dacca. The measures concerned only Bengal; but it was generally recognised that some of the criticism made by the Commissioners admit of a wider application. Committees were consequently appointed by the Universities of Madras, Bombay, Patna and the Punjab to consider the findings of the Commission. In the United Provinces two committees were appointed, one to prepare a scheme for a unitary teaching University at Lucknow, the second to consider measures for the reorganisation of the Allahabad University and the creation of a Board to control secondary and intermediate education.

In Bengal the first outcome of the Commission's Report was the passing of the Dacca University Act in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920 mentioned in detail elsewhere. A scheme for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University is under consideration.

The Reforms Act.—The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject in the Governors' provinces and is, in each such Province, under the charge of a Minister. There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things. The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, i.e., it is not within the charge of the Minister of Education; and to the Government of India are still reserved matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Benares and Delhi and all such new universities as may be declared by the Governor-General in Council to be central subjects. The Government of India are also in charge of the Chiefs' Colleges and of all institutions maintained by the Governor-General in Council for the benefit of members of His Majesty's Forces or of other public servants or of the children of such members or servants.

Chiefs' Colleges.—For the education of the sons and relatives of the Chiefs and Princes of India, whose families rule over one-third of the Indian continent, five Chiefs' Colleges are maintained, viz.—

- (i) Mayo College, Ajmer, for Rajputana Chiefs;
- (ii) Doly College, Indore, for Central India Chiefs;
- (iii) Aitchison College, Lahore, for Punjab Chiefs;
- (iv) Rajkumar College, Rajkote, for Kathiawar Chiefs; and

(v) Rajkumar College, Raipur, for Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa Chiefs.

In point of buildings, staffs and organisation these institutions approach English Public Schools. Students are prepared for a diploma examination conducted by the Government of India. The diploma is regarded as equivalent to the matriculation certificate of an Indian University. A further course of University standard called the Higher Diploma is conducted at the Mayo College. The examination for this Diploma is also held by the Government of India. Its standard is roughly equivalent to that of the B.A. diploma of an Indian University.

Inter-University Board.—The idea put forward by the Indian Universities Conference in May 1924 for the constitution of a central agency in India took practical shape and an Inter-University Board came into being during 1925. Twelve out of fifteen universities joined the Board. Its functions are:—

- (a) to act as an inter-university organisation and a bureau of information;
- (b) to facilitate the exchange of professors;
- (c) to serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination or university work;
- (d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;
- (e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International conferences on higher education;
- (f) to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities;
- (g) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian Universities.

Each member University has to make a fixed annual contribution towards the expenses of the Board.

The meetings of the Board are held yearly. The Board consists of one representative of each of the member Universities and one representative of the Government of India.

Indigenous Education.—Of the 1,05,14,321 scholars being educated in India 8,21,818 are classed as attending 'private' or 'un-recognised' institutions. Some of these institutions are of importance: The Gurukula near Hardwar and Sir Rabintra Nath Tagore's school at Bolpur have attained some fame, Mr. Gandhi's school at Ahmedabad has attracted attentions and the numerous monastery schools of Burma are well-known. Connected with every big Mosque in northern India there is some educational organisation and the schools attached to the Fatehpuri and Golden Mosques at Delhi and the Dar-ul-Ulm, Deoband, are noted.

These institutions generally have a religious or 'national' atmosphere and are possibly destined to play an important part in the future of India.

Indian students in the United Kingdom. There were about 1,500 Indians studying in the United Kingdom in 1925-26. Of these 390 were at the Inns of Court, 356 at the London University, 187 at Edinburgh, 119 at Cambridge and 88 at Oxford, the rest were studying at provincial Universities or receiving technical training.

Education in Burma

	1920, 584	1921, 192	1922, 192	1923, 192	1924, 192	1925, 192
Public Institutions for males						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools (vernacular included) ..	84	80	117	142	149	149
Number of primary schools	5,014	4,371	3,977	3,400	3,564	3,564
Male scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	233	459	732	979	942	942
In high schools	15,302	16,774	26,716	32,216	34,507	34,507
In primary schools	189,776	127,103	117,199	104,156	117,518	117,518
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	3.5	3.39	3.32	3.47	3.79	3.79
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges
Number of high schools	10	18	26	24	23	23
Number of primary schools	783	679	634	635	67	67
Female scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	48	56	89	103	12	12
In high schools	5,062	5,114	7,571	9,191	10,27	10,27
In primary schools	75,461	73,456	70,715	71,984	84,860	84,860
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	1.3	1.81	1.87	2.002	2.27	2.27
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male .. Female.						
Total	239,751	228,951	224,138	234,806	256,11	256,11
	316,329	116,714	121,603	129,223	147,925	147,925
	356,080	345,665	346,741	361,029	402,113	402,113
	557,281	502,625	555,959	569,389	615,10	615,10
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.						
Percentage of totalscholars to popu- { Males .. Female	6.5	6.50	6.32	6.42	6.80	6.80
lation {	1.9	1.91	1.84	2.09	2.4	2.4
Total	4.3	4.20	4.20	4.30	4.64	4.64

Statement of Educational Progress in BIHAR and ORISSA

	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26
Area in square miles	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,286	83,286	83,286
Population	16,763,569	16,763,566	16,763,566	16,765,163	16,765,163	16,765,163
.. .. { Male	17,239,330	17,239,323	17,239,323	17,239,383	17,239,383	17,239,383
.. .. { Female	34,002,189	34,002,189	34,002,189	34,004,516	34,004,516	34,004,516
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	9	9	7	9	9	9
Number of high schools	118	119	125	125	127	180
Number of primary schools	22,591	22,448	23,084	24,186	26,560	27,689
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	2,268	2,083	2,304	2,000	2,804	3,230
In high schools	26,245	24,642	27,557	30,048	30,918	36,103
In primary schools	590,720	686,616	622,548	670,616	750,435	819,155
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	4.0	3.92	4.13	4.77	6.08	6.52
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	4	4	4	4	4	4
Number of primary schools	2,649	2,508	2,558	2,650	2,807	2,967
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	6	12	10	8	10	0
In high schools	885	650	714	758	741	741
In primary schools	107,026	101,578	90,485	98,028	104,716	111,230
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	84	81	80	87	82	87
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male	674,084	667,506	700,110	705,530	852,830	925,594
.. .. { Female	110,776	105,771	103,926	100,061	109,587	110,073
Total	784,860	773,277	804,036	805,591	962,417	1,041,887
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	828,010	810,382	844,026	805,780	900,787	1,054,370
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	4.3	4.16	4.1	5.01	6.24	6.75
.. .. { Female	65	62	61	39	61	69
Total	2.4	2.38	3.18	2.96	3.93	3.18
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	50,75	Rs. 49,19	Rs. 44,83	Rs. 46,72	Rs. 49,92	Rs. 57,84
From local funds	21,00	(a) 2,65	(a) 2,11	25,08	26,83	26,83
From municipal funds	1,65	(b) 1,75	(c) 1,85	2,23	2,23	2,23
Total Expenditure from public funds	73,40	78,59	69,79	74,61	84,80	1,01,63
From fees	24 10	22,33	23,40	25,80	26,38	26,53
From other sources	16,61	19,24	17,84	20,20	23,31	23,61
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,14 11	1,17,16	1,11,01	1,20,73	1,33,90	1,51,92

Education in the Central Provinces and Berar

Area in square miles	Population	Male	Female	Total Population
Public Institutions for Males.	99,523	6,930,892	6,985,916	13,916,808
Number of arts colleges
Number of high schools
Number of primary schools
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.
In arts colleges	4	43	3,980	744
In high schools
In primary schools
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.
Public Institutions for Females.
Number of arts colleges
Number of high schools
Number of primary schools
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.
In arts colleges
In high schools
In primary schools
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions.
Percentage of total scholars to population.

Statement of Educational Progress in ASSAM

	1901	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
Area in square miles ..	58,015	58,015	58,015	58,015	58,015	58,015
Population .. { Male ..	3,955,665	3,961,109	3,961,109	3,961,109	3,961,109	3,961,109
.. { Female ..	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121
TOTAL POPULATION ..	7,598,861	7,606,230	7,606,230	7,606,230	7,606,230	7,606,230
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges ..	2	3	3	3	3	3
Number of high schools ..	39	41	40	42	43	44
Number of primary schools ..	4,049	3,955	4,019	4,120	4,221	4,277
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges ..	846	767	943	1,027	1,108	1,144
In high schools ..	12,578	11,154	11,997	12,975	13,475	14,648
In primary schools ..	155,466	145,967	150,290	159,750	169,286	179,022
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population ..	4.9	4.57	4.9	5.25	5.39	5.73
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges ..	3	3	3	3	4	5
Number of high schools ..	353	343	352	360	378	397
Number of primary schools ..						
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges ..	594	576	543	577	798	953
In high schools ..	24,288	23,184	24,050	25,292	26,502	28,664
In primary schools ..						
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population ..	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.8	8.5	9.1
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male ..	195,514	181,200	194,290	208,128	218,504	227,072
.. { Female ..	28,068	26,808	27,622	29,330	30,009	33,184
TOTAL ..	223,523	208,014	221,882	237,353	244,413	260,256
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	231,591	216,318	229,776	246,826	255,019	275,986
Percentage of total scholars to populations. { Male ..	5.1	4.7	5.07	5.46	6.67	8.1
.. { Female ..	7.8	7.6	7.3	8.3	8.9	9.5
TOTAL ..	8.0	7.24	7.02	7.2	7.35	7.6
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues ..	Rs. 13.19	Rs. 21.35	Rs. 23.74	Rs. 22.36	Rs. 22.62	Rs. 23.50
From local funds ..	4.02	3.86	4.45	4.38	4.45	4.60
From municipal funds ..	39	38	35	42	41	45
TOTAL Expenditure from public funds ..	23.36	26.09	28.57	27.16	27.48	28.55
From fees ..	5.95	5.48	4.16	5.37	6.39	6.79
From other sources ..	3.10	3.27	3.10	2.70	4.2	5.19
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	32.71	34.84	35.83	37.23	38.16	40.53

Education in Coorg

TOTAL POPULATION .		174,976	162,838	163,838	163,838	163,838	163,838
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>							
Number of arts colleges	2
Number of high schools	98
Number of primary schools	98
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>							
In arts colleges	670
In high schools	5,124
In primary schools	6.48
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	713
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>							
Number of arts colleges	1
Number of high schools	9
Number of primary schools	9
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>							
In arts colleges	178
In high schools	2,175
In primary schools	3.17
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	192
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male ..							
.. { Female.							
Total ..							
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.							
Percentage of total scholars to population	6.96
.. { Male	3.42
.. { Female	3.54

In arts colleges	132	193	269	309	373	401
In high schools	6,242	6,762	7,139	7,708	8,881	9,258
In primary schools	25,336	25,989	24,069	24,022	26,575	28,211
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.22
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges
Number of high schools
Number of primary schools	56	63	60	60	58	68
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges
In high schools
In primary schools	3,516	3,821	3,647	3,893	3,512	4,210
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.63
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male .. Female ..	41,414 4,358	44,748 4,647	46,051 5,107	46,018 5,172	49,108 5,400	51,890 6,520
Total ..	45,770	49,395	50,158	50,190	54,508	58,416
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	49,717	58,914	60,403	67,897	61,011	68,519
Percentage of total scholars to population { Males .. Females ..	3.7 .5	3.9 .5	4.1 .5	4.2 .6	4.6 .6	4.9 .6
Total ..	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>						
From provincial revenues	Rs. (a) 9.45	Rs. (a) 11.79	Rs. 1,131	Rs. 10.47	Rs. 10.77	Rs. 11.57
From local funds	84	1,01	94	58	96	1,11
From municipal funds	1.34	1.49	1.34	1.44	1.39	1.42
Total Expenditure from public funds	11.03	14.29	13.49	12.49	13.09	14.10
from fees	1.09	1.17	1.39	1.62	1.58	1.80
from other sources	1.88	1.93	3.22	2.49	2.90	2.4

Statement of Educational Progress in DELHI.

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25
Area in square miles	575	575	593	593
Population .. { Male	281,047	281,047	281,633	281,633
.. { Female	206,044	206,044	206,555	206,555
TOTAL POPULATION ..	487,091	487,091	488,188	488,188
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>				
Number of arts colleges	3	3	3	5
Number of high schools	10	10	12	11
Number of primary schools	132	117	131	131
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions</i>				
In arts colleges	581	705	848	1,015
In high schools	2,811	3,042	3,552	3,012
In primary schools	5,438	5,434	6,847	7,067
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population ..	4.5	4.8	5.4	6.0
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>				
Number of arts colleges	1
Number of high schools	3	3	3	2
Number of primary schools	21	20	21	24
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>				
In arts colleges	83	85	42
In high schools	473	488	497	497
In primary schools	1,012	760	740	1,176
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population ..	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.5
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions</i>				
.. { Male ..	12,551	13,420	15,180	17,119
.. { Female ..	2,435	2,523	2,570	3,056
TOTAL ..	14,986	15,943	17,750	20,175
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female in all institutions)	19,525	20,563	23,721	26,480
<i>Percentage of total scholars to population.</i>				
{ Male ..	5.9	6.2	7.1	7.9
{ Female ..	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.9
Total ..	4.0	4.2	4.8	5.4
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>				
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
From provincial revenues	5.79	6.45	7.28	7.30
From local funds	40	20	23	39
From Municipal funds	1.12	1.14	1.12	1.29
TOTAL EXPENDITURE from public funds.	7.31	7.79	8.63	8.93
From fees	1.62	1.77	2.02	2.68
From other sources	3.85	6.24	3.92	5.58
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	12.78	15.80	14.57	17.22

Education in Baluchistan

Public Institutions for Males									
Number of arts colleges	..	3	3	3	4
Number of high schools	..	67	67	67	68
Number of primary schools
Male scholars in Public Institutions.									
In arts colleges
In high schools	..	1,167	1,628	1,545
In primary schools	..	2,643	1,773	1,929
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population.	..	1.4	..	1.67	1.71	1.73
Public Institutions for Females.									
Number of arts colleges
Number of high schools
Number of primary schools	..	4	..	4	4	3
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.									
In arts colleges
In high schools
In primary schools	..	675	..	40	52	14
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population	..	.84	..	.43	.5053
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public Institutions.									
Male	..	3,848	..	4,167	4,872	4,568
Female	..	580	..	822	835	890
TOTAL	..	3,938	..	4,989	5,107	5,458
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all Institutions.									
Male	..	7,102	..	7,825	8,448	8,668
Female	..	2.6	..	2.7	2.1	3.03
TOTAL	..	.50	..	.4	.52	0.56
Percentage of total scholars to population	..	1.7	..	1.9	2.0	2.06
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees.)									
From provincial revenues	Rs.	1,97	Rs.	2,01	Rs.	2,06	Rs.	2,48	2,48
From local funds	..	14	..	27	..	20	..	25	25
From municipal funds	..	19	..	51	..	23	..	51	51

Education in Bangalore

Public Institutions for Males.									
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Number of primary schools	63	46	50	47	49	49	49	49	49
Male scholars in Public Institutions.									
In arts colleges	459	473	452	77	113	113	113	113	113
In high schools	1,413	1,468	1,496	1,877	1,967	1,967	1,967	1,967	1,967
In primary schools	4,529	4,729	3,934	3,933	4,403	4,403	4,403	4,403	4,403
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population	12.8	12.7	11.4	11.8	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.70
Public Institutions for Females.									
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Number of primary schools	20	20	21	21	22	22	22	22	24
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.									
In arts colleges	328	317	317	311	312	312	312	312	310
In high schools	721	751	734	814	755	755	755	755	758
In primary schools	2,186	2,412	2,493	2,435	2,649	2,649	2,649	2,649	2,882
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population	7.2	7.7	7.8	7.5	8.06	8.06	8.06	8.06	8.00
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions									
Male	7,532	7,717	6,977	6,961	7,873	7,873	7,873	7,873	7,870
Female	1,135	4,437	4,502	4,543	4,982	4,982	4,982	4,982	4,980
TOTAL	11,667	12,154	11,479	11,504	12,855	12,855	12,855	12,855	12,856
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions									
Male	12,078	12,307	12,398	12,392	13,067	13,067	13,067	13,067	13,025
Female	12.7	2.7	12.7	13.05	13.5	13.5	13.5	13.5	13.8
TOTAL	7.5	7.9	8.1	7.7	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.9
to population.	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.5	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.5
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees.)									
From provincial revenues	Rs. 2.38	Rs. 2,504	Rs. 2.22	Rs. 3.0	Rs. 3.02	Rs. 3.02	Rs. 3.02	Rs. 3.02	Rs. 3.08
From local funds									
From municipal funds	32	304	40	32	32	32	32	32	31

The Co-operative Movement.

The Need.—More than seventy per cent. of the vast population of India subsist on agriculture and the majority of these millions generally live, under present conditions, from hand to mouth. The ryot's occupation is healthy and productive, and he is proverbially honest and straightforward in his dealings, except when years of famine and hardship make him at times crafty and recalcitrant. Owing to his poverty, combined with want of education and consequent lack of foresight, he has to incur heavy debts to meet occasional expenses for current seasonal purposes, the improvement of his land, or for ceremonial objects, and he has therefore to seek the assistance of the local money-lender, known as the Sowkar or the Mahajan. The rates of interest on such advances, though varying from province to province and even in different parts of a province, are generally very high. In addition to charging excessive rates the Sowkar extorts money under various pretexts and oftentimes from the needy borrower bonds for amounts in excess of those actually advanced. One of the chief causes of the ryot's poverty is, that owing to the absence of security and his short-sightedness due to want of education, he did not as a rule collect and lay by his savings but frittered away his small earnings in extravagant and unproductive expenditure, on the purchase of trinkets and ornaments, and on marriage and other ceremonies. Tradition says that he hoarded coins under the ground with the likelihood that on his death the money was lost to his family for good. This absence of thrift and the habit of dependence, in case of difficulty, on the Government or on the Sowkar are the bane of his life. There is besides a general absence of ideals or desire for progress. A co-operative society changes all this, inasmuch as it provides him with a suitable institution in which to lay by his savings and teaches him the valuable lesson of self-help through the sense of responsibility he feels in being its member. Thus the chronic poverty and indebtedness of the Indian agriculturist afford a very good field for the introduction of co-operative methods, especially as his work is of a productive character likely to enable him to earn a better living under circumstances more favourable than they are at present.

Genesis of the Movement.—The question of improving rural credit by the establishment of agricultural banks was first taken up in the early nineties when Sir W. Wedderburn, with the assistance of the late Mr. Justice N. G. Ranao, prepared a scheme of agricultural banks which was approved of by Lord Ripon's Government but was not sanctioned by the Secretary of State. The matter was not again taken up until about fifteen years later when Lord Wenlock's Government in Madras deputed Mr. F. A. (now Sir Frederick) Nicholson, to report on the advisability of starting agricultural banks in the Presidency and the Madras Government. The Madras Government had an indigenous system of banking available for persons of small means. This institution,

called the Nidhi, corresponded in some respects to the provident funds and friendly societies in European countries. Though these Nidhis provided cheap capital to agriculturists the spirit of co-operation was lacking in them. Sir Frederick submitted an exhaustive report to Government suggesting first the formation of co-operative societies afforded an excellent means for relieving rural indebtedness. Unfortunately, the report was not received favourably either by the non-official public or by the Government of Madras, and no action was taken on the recommendations made in it. The next few years saw two of the worst famines from which India had ever suffered, and in 1901 Lord Curzon appointed a Commission to report on the measures to be adopted in future to protect the ryot from the ravages of famines and to relieve distress. The Commission laid stress on the proper working of the Agriculturalists' Loans and the Land Improvement Loans Acts under which *takavi* advances are made by Government to cultivators. This system was given a long trial in the years previous to the great famines as well as during the years succeeding the 1899-1900 famines. But it is acknowledged on all hands that the system has not been successful in solving the problem of rural stagnation, as it is clear that it is not facility for raising loans which will raise the ryot from his debts, but the introduction of habits of thrift and self-help. This Commission also recommended that the principal means of resisting famines was by strengthening the moral backbone of the agriculturist and it expressed the view that the introduction of co-operation in rural areas might be useful in securing this end.

Co-operative Credit Societies' Act.—These recommendations induced Lord Curzon to appoint a Committee with Sir Edward Law at its head to investigate the question and a report was submitted to Government recommending that co-operative societies were worthy of every encouragement and of a prolonged trial. Sir Anthony (now Lord) Macdonell and others were at the same time making experiments on similar lines in the United Provinces and the Punjab with satisfactory results. All these activities, however, took an organized shape only when Lord Curzon's Government introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council a Bill to provide for the constitution and control of co-operative credit societies. The main provisions of the Bill which became the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act (Act X of 1904) were:—

(1) That any ten persons living in the same village or town or belonging to the same class or caste might be registered as a co-operative society for the encouragement of thrift and self-help among the members.

(2) The main business of a society was to raise funds by deposits from members and loans from non-members, Government and other co-operative societies, and to distribute the money thus obtained in loans to members, or with the special permission of the Registrar, to other co-operative credit societies.

ization and control of co-operative societies in every Presidency the charge of a special Government Registrar of Co-operative

units of every society were to be the Registrar or by a member of his charge.

ity of a member of a rural co-operative unlimited

ends were to be paid from the society, but the profits were to be set aside at the end of the year to the fund, though when this fund had certain limits fixed under the Act, the profits might be distributed to the

a society no dividend was to be paid out of the profits in a year but a reserve fund.

the passing of the Act, the local Registrar in all the Presidencies and major districts was to be the Registrar with full powers to register, and supervise societies, and to see that the working of this Act was carried out freely given, and the organizing work of the Registrars was to be steady throughout most parts

Societies' Act.—As co-operative societies in the country, defects were noticed in the Credit Societies' Act and the attention of Government was drawn to the Registrar of Societies which were held annually. In two years the need for improved legislation was felt. In the first place, the societies had led to the introduction of co-operative societies for distribution of credit for purposes other than credit for the purpose of protection could be seen in the existing law. And, secondly, for a free supply of capital and a proved system of supervision and formation of various central societies and supervise primary societies and these central agencies ran on a status unprotected. The Government of India was desirous of removing these defects to amend the old Act, and a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislature and after a few amendments the Council as the Co-operative Societies' Act of 1912 replacing Act X of 1902 and the new Act.

the formation of societies other than credit, which was the old Act only with the special provision for Local Government. (This provision for the purpose of other societies is an important stage in its history.)

in precise terms, the objects of co-operative societies could be organized

the arbitrary division of rural and urban and substituted

a more scientific division in accordance with the form of liability adopted.

(d) It facilitated the growth of central agencies by insisting on limited liability by means of a special clause about the registration of a society one of whose members is a registered society.

(e) It empowered Local Governments to frame rules and alter bye-laws so as to put restrictions on the dividends to be declared by societies and allowed to societies, with unlimited liability the discretion to sanction distribution of profits to their members according to principles laid down by the Local Governments.

(f) It allowed societies with the permission of the Registrar to contribute from their net profits, after the reserve fund was provided for amounts up to 10 per cent. of their remaining profits to any charitable purpose as defined in the Charitable Endowments' Act. (This kept the movement in touch with local life by permitting societies to lend assistance to local educational and charitable institutions.)

(g) It prohibited the use of the word 'co-operative' as part of the title of any business concern except a registered society.

Composition of the Capital of Agricultural Societies.—On the organization of agricultural credit was necessarily concentrated the attention of the promoters, for it presented a far more important and far more difficult problem than urban credit. There was a great variety of types among the agricultural societies started in different provinces, and some Registrars adopted the "Raiffeisen," and some the "Luzzatti" methods in their entirety. The commonest type, as prevailing in the Punjab, Burma, and the United Provinces, and now extended practically all over India—is the unlimited liability society with a small fee for membership and a share capital the share payments to be made in annual instalments. In some places, the bye-laws

privileges of members and some parts of the Central Provinces is different, there being no share-capital but only an admission fee. Part of the working capital is raised by deposits from members and other local sympathisers, but the bulk of it in all provinces is obtained by loans from central and other co-operative societies. In all the Provinces, the Government set apart in the initial stages every year a certain sum to be advanced as loans to newly started co-operative societies, usually up to an amount equal to the deposits from members raised by a society. State aid in the form of direct money loans to agricultural credit societies has now become an exception rather than the rule, and this withdrawal in no way hampers the development of the movement on account of the rapid increase of co-operative financing agencies and the growth of public confidence in the primary societies. Out of a total working capital of 23 crores, 21 crores were shares, 2 crores reserves, 1½ crores deposits of members, 1½ crores deposits from non-members and societies and 14 crores loans from central societies. In Bombay, since 1923, Government placed at the disposal of the Provincial Bank an allotment

for distribution as advances to agriculturists under the Land Improvement Loans Act, such advances to be made through the primary societies and the central banks to which these are affiliated.

Constitution of Agricultural Credit Societies.—The typical agricultural credit society in India corresponds to the "Raiffeisen society," the management being gratuitous, the profits indivisible, and the area of work limited. In the Punjab, the United Provinces and Bihar where shares form an integral part of the system, the distribution as dividend of a portion of the profits after ten years' working is permitted under certain restrictions, although in the Punjab the tendency now is to make the profits wholly indivisible and the shares non-withdrawable. In several parts of the country there are villages where a few literate agriculturists may be found, but many of these are hardly fit enough to undertake the responsible work of a secretary, being practically ignorant of account-keeping. In such villages either the village school-master or the village accountant is appointed secretary. In some places, where a suitable person is not available on the low pay a single society is formed, and in others they are grouped well paid secretary. In the Central Provinces, especially and to a certain extent in Bihar and Orissa, Bengal and the United Provinces, the accounts are written up by group secretaries, clerks or Moharrirs controlled more or less by the inspecting staff of central banks to which societies are affiliated. As the work of societies develops, the need for trained secretaries is being felt more keenly, for it is now realized that the function of a secretary does not consist merely in writing the accounts correctly. With a view to meet the demand for trained secretaries, training classes have been organized in Bombay, in the Punjab, in Burma and elsewhere during the last few years, and efforts have been made to provide education in co-operation through the new educational and propagandist associations which have been started in some of the major provinces. Arrangements have also been devised in some provinces to educate the members or managing committees in the principles of the movement through pamphlet instructors and courses of simple lectures delivered at central villages. In Burma, the system of guarantee unions has been utilized to promote co-operative education among rural workers.

Internal Management of Societies.—The managing committee of a society consists of five to nine members, the chairman being usually one of the leading persons in the village. The daily work is carried on by the secretary, but the managing committee supervises this and has alone the power to admit new members, to receive deposits, to arrange for outside loans, to grant loans to members and to take notice of defaulters. The practice is now growing of fixing the normal profit of every member once or twice in the year at a general meeting and the committee can sanction loans only within the limits so fixed. The accounts of the society are kept by the secretary and the necessary forms, papers, and books are

usually supplied from the Registrar's office or the central organizations referred to above to simplify the work of the secretary. The books are kept according to the rules framed by the local Government, and are open to inspection by important local officials and the Registrar and his staff. The accounts are audited, at least once a year, by the auditors, working under the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, and the societies are inspected from time to time by honorary or paid inspectors. In Burma and Madras, the inspection is carried out by visitors, while in the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Ameer-Merwara and Bengal the responsibility for supervision rests mainly with the central banks. In the Central Provinces, the inspection is controlled by the Provincial Federation working through the central banks, in Bombay supervision is exercised partly by unions, partly by central banks and partly by honorary organizers. In the Punjab, while paid for by societies, the inspecting staff works under the direct orders of the Provincial Union with the Registrar as its president.

The supreme seat of authority in co-operative societies is the entire body of members assembled in general meetings at which every member has one vote and one only. At the annual general meeting held at the close of the co-operative year the accounts are submitted, the balance-sheet passed, and the managing committees with the chairmen and secretaries are elected. The general meeting fixes in some provinces the borrowing limit of individual members, lays down the maximum amount up to which the managing committee may borrow during the ensuing year, dismisses members for misconduct or serious default, and settles the rates of interest for loans and deposits. All the net profits of a society are annually carried to the reserve fund, which is indivisible, that is, incapable of distribution as dividend or bonus, which cannot be drawn upon without the sanction of the Registrar, and which must be invested in such a manner as the rules framed under the Act may prescribe. It is intended to meet unforeseen losses and to serve as an asset or security in borrowings. Except in the Central Provinces and Madras, and to some extent in a few other provinces, the reserve funds of primary societies are generally utilized as an addition to their working capital, unless they have considerable outside deposits and have to make special arrangements in respect of fluid resource to cover such borrowings.

Main defects.—The main defects of primary societies may be summarized. The most prominent is the evil of unpunctuality. The percentage of over dues to total outstanding was a little over 18 for all the provinces and States, but was as high as 30 in one province. These arrears are due more to easy going ways of life and the narrowness of margin between income and expenditure than to recalcitrancy. Next is the frequent apathy of the members in the work of the societies owing to their lack of education and an absence of higher ideals. The general body very often leaves affairs wholly to the discretion of the committee and the committee transfers its powers to the chairman, secretary or some other member. Then there is the

objectionable practice of making book adjustments and taking *benami* loans. A grave defect is the inability of the societies to act as real banks, accepting for deposit money when presented, meeting withdrawals of such savings deposits or temporary surplus funds without delay, and granting loans on demand according to actual requirements. In many a society, activity is displayed only twice in the year, once during the cultivating season when loans are advanced, and again after harvest time when recoveries are made. In several provinces, members have to wait for weeks before they can get funds for agricultural operations, and as such operations must be proceeded with, resort to the money-lender is not uncommon. With the approval of normal credits in advance and the provision of banking facilities through the opening of branches of district banks or the starting of central banks for smaller areas this defect is now being gradually remedied. To provide for members who want large loans on the security of land for clearance of debt or agricultural improvement, separate land mortgage societies have been started in the Punjab, and may be found necessary in other Provinces where large amounts are required by agriculturists on the security of their landed property. To provide finance the Punjab Provincial Bank, after entering into an agreement has issued long term debentures bearing interest 6 per cent. to the extent of Rs. 5 lakhs. A similar scheme for land mortgage banks for a group of villages has also been accepted in Madras where the local Government have agreed to the subscribe to half the capital required if the other half is raised locally. Few banks have already commenced working. But the system does not seem to have found favour and the revision of the scheme is under consideration. It is proposed in Burma to have for the work of land mortgage credit a separate organization, distinct from the organization for co-operative credit. In Bombay, the assistance asked for from the State for the scheme of co-operative land mortgage banks is the recognition of the land mortgage bank's debentures as trustee securities, and a Government guarantee for payment of interest. The Government of Bombay have approved of the starting of three societies for land mortgage credit, but in the initial stages or finance will be provided for these bodies by the existing Bombay Provincial Bank. The debentures issued by which, in accordance with its agreement with the Secretary of State, will be purchased by Government to the extent of Rs. 5 lakhs. As the bye-laws in many provinces, place a limitation on the amount of loan that can be advanced to an individual and financing agencies are often unable to make long term advances, societies cannot be said everywhere to have supplanted the money-lender.

Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.—Non-agricultural credit societies have grown up in towns and cities as part of a movement for improving the economic condition of persons engaged in handicrafts and cottage industries, of artisans and small traders, members of particular castes and employees of big firms and Government departments. These societies have usually a limited liability. This is due partly to the absence

of any assets in real property among their members, but mainly to the field of their work not being compact as is the case with agricultural societies, where every member may be expected to know every other member. Their constitution is based on the 'Schulze-Deitzsch' model. In most societies the management is honorary, though sometimes, when the sphere of a society's work is extended, a paid staff is employed. There is in all societies a substantial share capital, payments being made in monthly instalments, and the rest of the working capital is obtained by local deposits from members and others. Loans from co-operative banks and societies usually form only a meagre proportion of the capital. At the end of the year 1925-26 out of a total working capital of nearly nine crores, only 80 lakhs were held from central banks.

At the end of every year, one-fourth of the net profits must be carried to the reserve fund and the balance may be distributed as dividend or bonus. There are a few drawbacks in the working of these societies. The most serious of these complaints are that the spirit of co-operation is lacking in many non-agricultural societies, that there is too great a desire to go in for profit-making and dividends, and a growing tendency to make the societies close reserves once they have started running on profitable lines. The rates of interest on loans are at times higher than they ought to be, and the men at the head of the societies are loth to admit new members who are in need of loans for fear of the latter cutting down the profits.

Included in this group are communal societies, and societies of employees of firms, railway companies and Government offices. There are again, in Bombay and Burma, a few societies organized on the lines of the People's Banks of Italy to assist small traders and artisans in towns and there are also some societies comprising members of particular communities. The larger banks in Bombay and Burma open current accounts, grant cash credits and overdrafts and issue or discount local bills of exchange. In Bombay during the last few years some of the urban people's banks have also begun to finance traders on the security of goods, including agricultural produce, and this line of work is expected to develop considerably in course of time. These banks give promise of developing a truly non-capitalist system of banking run for the people and by the people, providing for the person of small means those modern banking facilities which have so largely assisted in developing trade and industries in other countries. Some of the larger non-agricultural societies, after meeting the needs of their members, have large balances on hand, which they were allowed, with the previous sanction of the Registrar, to advance to smaller primary societies. This practice is however, being now discontinued, and the surpluses of all primary societies are being concentrated in their central banks through which all finance is provided.

With the growth of industries and the development of cities, an important labouring class has grown up in big industrial towns, and this class is as deeply indebted and as badly remunerated as the agriculturists

ultimately are. Co-operation, if introduced, among people of this class, provides opportunities of organization for common ends, besides being the means of their economic regeneration. Systematic efforts have been made, however, only in a few centres; elsewhere urban co-operation has so far been confined more or less to middle class people. The first experiment among backward classes was initiated in Bombay under the auspices of an organization known as the Debt Redemption Committee. Considerable work in this direction has also been done in Madras, through social workers and the Labour Department, particularly among the depressed classes and among the low-paid employees of municipal bodies. The Social Service League of Bombay and the Y. M. C. A. in several other centres have lately started a large number of credit societies among factory workers, and the formation of co-operative credit societies for workers in factories has come to be recognized as an essential feature of every well-considered scheme of industrial welfare work.

Loans advanced.—The total amount of loans advanced by agricultural societies in 1925-26 were Rs. 1,10,000. The majority of these were for the purchase of land, and of two co-ops. are allowed, subject to certain conditions, to advance loans on the hypothecation of moveable or immovable property, and there is nothing unco-operative in this so long as personal security, which is the central principle of co-operation, is given and the borrower's property is recognized as only a secondary or collateral protection. Mortgages are taken occasionally, especially as security for long-term loans or loans for large amounts. Agricultural credit societies are not permitted to advance loans on the security of land without the special sanction of the Government. This is a difficulty likely to be experienced in valuing such property and keeping it in safe custody. Recently, however, in Madras, Bombay and Burma the practice has grown up of granting short-term advances against agricultural produce to be kept in possession by the societies or by some other trustworthy person. The system of advances on the security of crops in the provinces. Loans for agricultural purposes are made repayable at harvest time, while two or three annual instalments are allowed for repayment of advances taken for purchase of bullocks, carts, implements or for ceremonial or domestic expenses. The repayment of loans for liquidation of previous debt or for land purchase or purchase and installation of machinery is spread over a longer period, ranging from five to ten years.

It is impossible to insist on the restriction of loans to productive objects and there are circumstances under which unproductive loans are permissible and even advisable. What should be and generally is borne in mind is that precautions are taken by societies that the expenditure is inevitable and that it is not excessive in amount. The chief objects of the loans advanced are cultivation expenses, purchase of live-stock, fodder, seed, manure and agricultural implements,

payment of rent, revenue or irrigation dues, land improvement and sinking of wells, purchase of new lands, repayment of debt or redemption of mortgaged land and personal maintenance in times of scarcity in agricultural societies; and for purchase of raw materials for industries, or trade, for house-building, for education or medical relief and for food and other necessities of life in non-agricultural societies. The rates of interest vary from 9½ per cent. in Madras and Bombay to 12½ in the Punjab, and 15 in almost all the other major provinces, both for agricultural and non-agricultural societies. Rates of lending by central banks vary from about 7 or 8 per cent. in Madras and Bombay to 9 in the Punjab, 10 in Burma and about 12 in all the other major provinces. An unsatisfactory feature of the co-operative system in some of the provinces is the laxity and unpunctuality in the matter of repayment of loans by members and a general apathy in the matter on the part of societies. As co-operation is both financially and educationally a failure unless punctuality in repayment is ensured, no efforts are spared by organizers to educate societies in this respect. The Co-operative Societies' Act grants to societies priority of claim over other creditors (except the State or the landlord) to enforce any outstanding demand due to the societies from members or past members upon the crops or other agricultural produce, and upon the cattle, fodder or agricultural implements, in cases where loans have been advanced for the purposes specified. Law courts have ruled that the claim is not valid unless a decree is obtained by a society in its favour in advance. To carry out the intention of the framers of the legislation it is proposed to convert this claim into a lien and thus get over the legal difficulty, and this has already been done under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act, 1925. Most local Government have also framed rules under the Act enabling the Registrar to refer disputed claims to arbitration and to enforce the awards of the arbitrator in the same manner as decrees of the Civil Court. Under the rules in some provinces, and according to the new Act in Bombay, sums due under awards of arbitrators are, under certain conditions, made recoverable according to the procedure allowed for the recovery of arrears of land revenue. The Local Governments of Bengal, and Bihar and Orissa were the first to adopt enactments enabling the contributions levied by the liquidator of a cancelled society to be collected in the same manner as arrears of land revenue on an application being made in that behalf by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies. Legislation on similar lines has been adopted in almost all

The Financing of Agricultural Societies.—As soon as the initial stage of the movement passed, a very urgent problem had to be faced. This was to finance agricultural societies the number of which was growing rapidly. And the problem was solved in different provinces according to the special conditions and the stages of development the movement had attained. In Madras, a central bank, which lent to co-operative societies all over the Presidency, was started without Government aid as early as in 1907. This was followed by the starting of banks at district head-quarters.

ters. In other Presidencies, district and taluka banks were established making good the deficiency in the local capital of the societies within their respective areas of operations and in some places joint stock banks were persuaded or through the medium of local central banks. A large number of prosperous non-agricultural societies, as stated above, could afford to make temporary advances to agricultural societies out of their surplus funds. Government aid was also freely given in a few Provinces, although with the progress of the movement, this aid was discontinued. In Bombay, there was no movement to start local financing agencies and the slow increase in the number of societies made it difficult for central banks with a restricted area of operations to work successfully. Accordingly, the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank was founded in 1911, with the object of financing co-operative societies throughout the Presidency. Later on, local central banks came to be started, and have taken over from the central bank at Bombay the work of financing societies in the various districts. The bank at Bombay has, therefore, assumed the functions and even the name of a Provincial Bank. It confines its dealings with primary societies to those areas where central banks are not likely to be established in the near future or where special local circumstances favour direct relations with a strong financial organization. For areas served by it, the Provincial Bank has opened fifteen branches, and district branches have been started by five of the

above, Assam has a Provincial Bank as also the Indian States of Mysore and Hyderabad.

The constitution of central banks is not uniform, but the existing banks may be classified under three general heads:—(1) banks of which the membership is confined to individuals or where societies are admitted as members on exactly the same footing as individuals, (2) banks of which the membership is confined to societies, and (3) banks which include societies and individuals as their members and secure to societies separate representation on the board of directors. The majority of the central banks are of the mixed type and there are hardly any of them which now adhere to the old capitalistic constitution. The federal type is theoretically the best, but the paucity of the resources of the constituent primary societies, the lack of personnel and the need for enlistment, the support of the urban middle classes have all combined to make the mixed type the most popular in almost all provinces. In Bengal and the Punjab, as also to a smaller degree in the United Provinces and Bihar and Orissa there has recently been an increase in the number of federal central banks, which are found to work well, provided their area of operation is much smaller than a revenue district and they serve a compact group of well-established societies. Branches of banks, central and provincial, have been tried with success only in Bombay.

Functions of Central Banks.—The functions of central banks are to balance the funds of societies and to supply capital. But their duties are not limited to the provision of banking facilities only, but often include the organization and supervision of societies. Hence in all the major provinces with the exception of the Punjab, Madras and Burma, central banks perform the functions of supervision and guidance of the societies affiliated to them, and in some they also organise new societies and even take up the work of training and propaganda. Usually, the unit of area for a central bank is fixed as co-terminous with the whole of a revenue district, as the personnel necessary for its successful working may be difficult to secure in a smaller area. However, in most of the provinces of Upper India and Bengal there are in existence central societies for talukas and occasionally for smaller tracts. An important class of institutions included under the statistics of central societies are unions. These may be described as federations of societies which are maintained for supervision, either combined or not with the assessment or guarantee of loans to primary societies. They do not, however, undertake banking business, except in the Punjab, the unions in which save for the smallness of the area they cover, in no way differ from the pure type of central bank referred to above. These supervising unions have a very restricted area of operations, within a radius of five to eight miles from a central village. They are accepted as integral parts of the provincial organization in Burma and originally in the Central Provinces, also in one province serving as a link between primary societies and the provincial bank and in the other between primary societies and local banks. The system has also been extended to Madras

The Madras Central Bank referred to above has also been converted into a Provincial Bank working through the district and societies affiliated to it is in existence in Upper Burma, and this Bank finances primary societies either through the affiliated local banks of which, however, the majority are new and with resources undeveloped, or through the guaranteeing unions composed of societies. An Apex Bank was started in the Central Provinces in 1913 to form a link between the district banks in the Province and provinces. It led to the establishment of a Provincial Bank with a similar constitution in Bihar and Orissa. A Provincial Bank composed of central banks as shareholders has been started in Bengal, where, as also in Bihar and Orissa, primary societies are at present financed by central banks at district or taluka headquarters. In the United Provinces, primary societies are financed on the same system, and there, too, the starting of a Provincial Apex Bank under which central banks will be federated has long since been under contemplation, but the proposal has been finally abandoned by the Local Government. The Punjab has a local central banking system and an Apex Bank with central banks, and societies as shareholders has been started, with power to issue debentures, as in Bombay, with interest guaranteed by Government. Debentures of the value of Rs. 5 lakhs have already been issued with interest at 6 per cent. guaranteed by Government. In addition to the Provincial Banks mentioned

though in that province no guarantee is undertaken by the unions. In Bombay, guaranteeing unions were introduced as local agencies for supervision and assessment of credit, but the policy now is to have new unions which eschew the guarantee and work as supervising and local controlling bodies with a fairly wide area of operations and engage competent well-trained supervisors. In Burma and Madras, some progress has been made in federating the unions into district councils intended to co-ordinate local activities and represent local co-operative interests.

Organization and Propaganda.—It may be mentioned that in most of the provinces, the work of organizing and looking after the societies is done by the Registrar with the help of a staff of assistant registrars, auditors and other officers and a few honorary non-official workers. In Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and the United Provinces where the central bank system has developed properly, the directors of the central banks, either themselves or through a paid agency, organise societies and, as stated above, supervise their working. Apart from these, the number of honorary workers is steadily increasing and in some provinces there is a staff of specially appointed honorary organizers who regularly assist the Registrars. The activities of the honorary workers are often, however, spasmodic and unorganized, and in most of the major provinces the need has been felt for some co-operative institution which will co-ordinate and systematize the efforts of non-official workers, and place their activities on a responsible basis. The objective is to have the movement directed and controlled through self-governing representative bodies like organisation societies or federations existing in Germany, England, Ireland and elsewhere, such institutions carry on active educational propaganda, and through the agency of local committees and groups of workers, assist in the organization of new societies and attend to their supervision. Arrangements are made for carrying on the audit of societies—for which Government cannot continue to increase the official staff to an unlimited extent—on payment of some fixed contributions. Finally, such federations gradually manage to have the ultimate voice in the determination of policy, and subject to the statutory powers of the Registrar may hope to take over, in course of time, the entire control of the co-operative organization in a province. In the Central Provinces, there functioned as a controlling body a Federation of Co-operative Banks and Societies which provided a regular and efficient system of supervision audit and control, arranged for the training of the federation staff, attempted to secure uniformity of practice among co-operative institutions and to promote their interest and foster the spread of co-operation by active propaganda. The working of this Federation was adversely criticised in the report of a Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Local Government in 1922, and it was proposed that this body should be dissolved and replaced by separate educational institutes for the Central Provinces and Berar. Though this step has not yet been taken, institutes for education and propaganda have already been started in Berar and the Subulpoore and Nerbudda Divisions. A Provincial Union is also in existence in Madras, whose objects are mainly educational and propagan-

dist. Its activities are at present confined to the issuing of co-operative journals and the holding of conferences. Its constitution and its lines of work have now been revised so as to make it the central self-governing organization in the movement but its working has been considerably hampered by lack of funds and want of support from societies. Its relations both with societies, unions, district federations and the local organizations for Andhradesa Malabar and Kanara are still undefined. A Central Institute to focus the efforts of co-operative workers and to carry on propagandist work was established in Bombay in 1918. The objects of this institution are to develop the co-operative movement in the Presidency, by promoting the study of co-operation and by co-ordinating the activities of several existing propagandist and organization agencies. The Institute has no powers of control, though it is expected to ascertain and represent the views of co-operators on questions affecting the movement. The activities of the Institute in the mofussil are carried on through its divisional branches formed on a linguistic basis and local branches in most revenue districts. This is the most active among non-official central organizations in India, and has established international relations. The Provincial Co-operative Institute as well as similar organizations in other parts of India, join in the celebration of the International Co-operators' Day on the first Saturday in July.

The constitution has recently been revised with a view to give to societies a larger representation and a pre-dominant share in the working. The Institute receives a handsome grant from Government but will be in a position to increase its income from within the movement under its revised bye-laws. In Bengal, a similar propagandist organization has been started with identical aims. The Society has taken over some of the educational and propagandist work hitherto performed by the Co-operative Department, and has assisted in the organization of various non-credit activities, among which prominent mention may be made of the starting of Co-operative Societies for the sale of jute and paddy and the supply of agricultural requisites. It has projected a scheme for the training of members of village societies and their secretaries. A federation with a constitution more or less similar to that of the Central Provinces Federation but having divisional boards to decentralize control is also in existence in Bihar and Orissa, and has appointed a special officer for Propaganda and development. In the Punjab, a provincial union, with the Registrar as President, has been organized to conduct the audit and inspection of primary societies and to undertake propaganda. In Burma, the movement is conducted by a Provincial Union of Co-operative Societies. This also assists in the provincial conference and acts as an advisory body to the Registrar. In the United Provinces, propaganda are conducted by the Provincial Unions of Co-operative Societies and the Provincial Propaganda Committees. In Bombay, the Provincial Union of Co-operative Societies has been started in the States of Hyderabad.

had Mysore, and Travancore. These are all recent developments and it is still too early to forecast on what lines the transfer of work to representative co-operative agencies will be carried out. In the beginning of the year 1926, an informal Conference of all these institutes and federations was held in Bombay at which it was decided to convene an All-India Conference periodically and to establish closer contact among these bodies by the starting, if necessary, of an All-India Confederation of these bodies. Along with this Conference was also held another Conference of Provincial Co-operative Banks in different provinces and Indian States, the most important subject for the consideration of which was the proposal for the formation of an All-India Bank. To secure co-ordination in the working of existing provincial banks to bring about closer touch and to convene periodical Conferences, an association of the provincial banks has been started to which has been referred for consideration the proposal for an All-India Co-operative Bank. This Association has made a good beginning by educating public opinion on the place of co-operative banking in the proposed scheme of a central bank and co-ordination of banking through the agency of a Reserve Bank of India.

Provision on the part of the provincial co-operative banks and also for the negotiation of certain types of bills and securities presented by such banks.

Other forms of Co-operation.—After the passing of the amended Co-operative Societies' Act in 1912, the application of co-operation to purposes other than credit was greatly extended, but it is only during the last few years that a general demand for producers and consumers' societies has arisen. The total number of non-agricultural non-credit societies was 3,036: 688 for purchase and sale, 12 for production 370 for production and sales and the remaining 1,684 for other forms of co-operation. Before the year 1915-16, there were only a few store societies all over the country. In all provinces, particularly in Madras, a beginning had been made in the direction of distributive co-operation among the middle classes, while in Bengal and the United Provinces some attention had been devoted to the starting of stores for students living in hostels attached to colleges. The movement obtained popular favour in view of the increasing prices of the daily necessities of life, and the which assumed serious proportions at the end of the War. Supply unions, store societies, distributive departments attached to credit societies were organized in some provinces, while arrangements were contemplated for obtaining cheap, wholesale supplies for the various distributive organizations. The work of organizing co-operative distribution in rural areas was pushed ahead with a fair amount of success under official auspices in the Punjab and Madras, but in both provinces a setback is now evident. Neither the supply unions nor the primary purchase and sale societies are in a flourishing condition. The consumers' movement in urban areas received particular attention in Bombay, Madras, Benga

Burma, and a few other provinces, but with the disappearance of the special conditions which generated enthusiasm in the years immediately succeeding the close of the War stagnation has set in, and only a few among the numerous store societies started in these provinces have finally established their position and continue to enjoy the loyal support of their members. Attempts have been made in two or three provinces to revive the movement by the starting of central organizations for joint wholesale purchase, but the proposals have not yet taken definite shape. Apart from the Triplicane Stores in Madras which stands in a class by itself, the only successful consumers' societies are stores for college students, some communal hostels or boarding houses and a few agencies for supply of special requisites.

In some Provinces, efforts have been made to revive the ancient handicrafts of the country and cottage industries by organising co-operative societies for the cottage workers. Many of these societies merely provide cheap credit, but in some places they undertake the supply of raw materials and the sale of manufactured goods. An important industry which flourished in India before the introduction of machinery was handloom weaving and efforts have been made to revive it by the formation of co-operative societies of handloom weavers. Most of the weavers' societies are merely credit societies, but some undertake the purchase of yarn for members, and others have store branches to sell the cloth produced by members. They have also been instrumental in introducing improved looms and methods among the conservative weaving classes. In Bengal and the Punjab, much success has attended the organization of central unions among weavers' societies, and similar intensive work in Bihar and Orissa and Bombay has also met with good results. Other industrial societies, to be found in very small numbers here and there are those for "ganlees" or milkmen, dyers, basket and brass workers in the Central Provinces, "Chammars" and "Dhows" in Bombay and the Punjab, lacquerware workers, carpenters, wood-carvers, blacksmiths and potters in Mysore, where the State provides special facilities in the shape of loans and technical assistance for the development of artisans' societies. In Bombay, the producers movement has extended to communities of workers like copper-smiths, dyers, and other

craftsmen, based on self-help and self-government. Another off-shoot of this movement is the starting of co-operative societies among skilled or unskilled labourers on the lines of the labour societies of Italy. The initiative came from Kashmir, while experimental societies were also started in Madras, and in Bombay. The object of these is to organize labourers to tender for contracts for public or private works, to eliminate the middle man contractor, and to utilize the profits for the economic and social betterment of the labouring community. The Indian Industrial Commission in the course of their inquiries devoted attention to the

development of small and cottage industries and the possibility of reviving them by the introduction of co-operation. Their recommendations on this subject were, however, not very definite and no action appears to have been taken on these. The development of subsidiary occupations in rural areas is also likely to come up for consideration by the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India.

An interesting development during recent years is the provision of housing through co-operative societies. A good number of housing societies have been started in Bombay City and suburbs and also in a few other centres in the Presidency like Ahmedabad and Karachi. They are generally organized on the co-partnership system, under which the society owns the houses and lets them to members at fixed rents. The scheme is feasible for such sections of the middle classes as can provide a certain proportion of the initial capital. Tenant-ownership societies have also been started. There are some building societies in Madras and a few more in Mysore, but their activities are confined mainly to the provision of capital for building schemes and only occasionally extend to the joint purchase of land or of building materials. The Punjab has only one society for co-operative housing and town planning. The Local Governments of Bombay and Madras as also the State of Mysore set apart annually some funds to be advanced to housing societies at fair rates of interest and with repayments spread over a number of years.

The province of Burma was a pioneer in the matter of cattle insurance, and to support the village insurance societies which have been started in the province, there has been organized a central re-insurance society, which receives some financial backing from Government. In the other provinces where it has been introduced co-operative insurance for cattle has made only slight progress, and in Burma, as also in the Punjab where the movement had advanced so far as to necessitate the starting of a re-insurance society there has been a setback recently.

Agricultural Co-operation.—Co-operative societies have, until recently, been organized only to supply cheap credit to their members, but there are various other fields of work to which they may extend their activities. The total number of agricultural non-credit societies is 1,923 of which 345 were societies for purchase and sale, 565 for production, 328 for production and sale and 381 for other forms of co-operation. Grain banks have, in some provinces, been started with advantage, receiving deposits in kind and allowing these to accumulate to be sold at profitable rates or distributed to the members in times of scarcity. Such banks have been started in Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Mysore and Coorg. Societies on a similar basis for the storage of fodder have been started in Baroda. Another direction in which the co-operative principle is being applied is the starting of societies for purchase of and distribution among members of pure and selected seed. A number of small societies for supply of seed, and seed unions have been organized in the Bombay

and in the Central Provinces and

Berar. Societies for the co-operative purchase and sale of manure will also prove a great boon and a few such stores have been established in Madras, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and Bombay. In the Punjab and in Madras, the supply of agricultural requisites has been undertaken either by the credit societies on the commission-indent system or special supply unions are organized for bulking orders, making contracts, distributing goods, and collecting payments.

Joint sale of produce gets popular as co-operative credit thrives and agriculturists become less dependent on local traders. While Burma led the way by starting societies for the joint sale of paddy the most interesting developments in the direction have taken place in Bombay. Societies for the sale of agricultural commodities, chiefly cotton and jaggery, have been started, in several districts all over the Presidency. Co-operative marketing of cotton has recently made much progress in the Dharwar, Bhojpur and Surat districts where these have led to the starting of a few co-operative ginning factories controlled by cotton-growers. This aspect of co-operation has lately attracted considerable attention and attempts similar to those made in Bombay have been made in Madras and the Punjab, in the latter province with considerable success at Lyallpur and Montgomery. In Bengal, there has been a move recently to organize the sale of jute on co-operative lines. A vigorous propaganda has been undertaken for the purpose and the starting of some central depot in Calcutta is contemplated. It will indeed be a great achievement if these efforts are successful and the cultivator obtains adequate returns for his produce. At present he buys in the dearest market and sells in the cheapest. But if co-operative purchase and sale show good progress, his economic position will be much improved. Apart from separate societies for the purpose, credit societies and central banks, in a few parts of the country, arrange for the joint supply of agricultural requisites. In some places, credit societies undertake the joint purchase of agricultural implements for members, while in others separate registered societies are started for the purpose of selling implements or supplying these on hire. In some provinces in Upper India this work is performed by central banks for the societies affiliated to them. Apart from separately registered societies in Bombay, the branches of the Provincial Bank have helped considerably in the distribution of seeds, manures and fertilizers, the supply agricultural implements, and the sale of produce, particularly jaggery.

Efforts have been made in various parts of the country to solve the problem of milk-supply—to reduce the price and increase the purity—by starting co-operative dairies, composed either wholly of gaois or milkmen or the producers and the consumers together. The most successful of these efforts has been the group of milk supply societies started in the neighbourhood of Calcutta which have federated themselves into a union. The union has, with the help of the Calcutta Municipality and the expert officers of Government erected a well equipped modern

plant for pasteurizing milk, and while the milk supply it controls has been satisfactory to consumers it is interesting to note that by co-operation the producers have also considerably improved their economic position, having paid off debts, bought more cattle, put up decent cattle sheds and accumulated substantial sums in their local societies in the shape of shares and reserves. Co-operative creameries and ghee producing societies have also been started in one or two provinces. Another interesting development is the starting of cattle-breeding societies in the Punjab and elsewhere. It is anticipated that these societies will assist in supplying the keen demand that exists for bulls of good stock. In a few provinces there are societies for rice-hulling, the manufacture of jaggery and for joint irrigation. The latter is an interesting development of co-operation which though tried also in Bombay appears to have established itself in popular favour especially in the Burdwan Division of Bengal. This tract, once very flourishing, has been ravaged in recent years by frequent floods and famines, and the population had lost all initiative and sunk into poverty, while their lands deteriorated and malaria claimed a heavy toll. The starting of irrigation societies has opened a new chapter in the history of the tract and has revived the energy of the people and brought them together for common economic endeavour. Ginning on co-operative lines has also been attempted. An interesting experiment in agricultural co-operation is the starting in the Punjab of societies for the consolidation of small and scattered holdings. These propose to regroup and re-plot the small and scattered holdings of members and in this voluntary action proves sufficient for the purpose. One of the graves

After t
in the central parts of the Madras Presidency co-operative societies were started to enable agriculturists to reclaim their land by clearing away the layers of sand and replacing the soil. These societies received assistance from Government, both in the shape of long term capital and facilities for transport of material. The Punjab has in canal areas some societies for silt clearance, and reclamation of waste lands, and Burma has led the way in the colonization of newly developed lands on co-operative lines. A number of societies have recently been started in the Punjab to promote better farming, some of which merely call upon members to undertake certain improvements and introduce approved method of agriculture while others go a stage farther and employ a staff for local experiment, research or demonstration work. In Bombay, a beginning was made in the direction of starting co-operative societies for joint farming and the movement may lead to the evolution of a system of co-operative cultivation of land, such as has been extremely successful in Italy, in undeveloped tracts like those to be irrigated under the Sukkur Barrage Scheme. Proposals to encourage this form of co-operation have been submitted to the Government of Bombay by the Sind Co-operative Institute.

Co-operation has already been successful to some extent in relieving the chronic

indebtedness of the agriculturist, but if the improvement in his economic condition is to be permanent it is essential that he should be prevailed upon to adopt improved methods of production. The Agricultural Departments in various provinces do under take propagandist work with this object but their efforts have not proved as successful as they ought to be. A co-operative society provides an effective agency for reaching the agriculturist, and in many places societies have been the means of bringing home to him the need for improved methods and have been made the centres for conducting the propagandist activities of the Agricultural Department and district Agricultural Associations. As a result, a few societies have been enterprising enough to purchase modern agricultural implements, and the machinery recommended by the Department and to use the proper manures and the certified varieties of seeds. "Wherever agriculture and co-operation have experienced the assistance which each can derive from association with the other they are fast developing a truly organic connection." To this end, joint efforts are being promoted in almost all provinces as both the Departments are in charge of one Minister. This co-ordination is secured by joint conferences, and joint boards of co-operation and agriculture and the starting of local societies registered under the Societies Act. Several of these have been started in Bihar and Orissa and in Bombay. In Bombay the taluka development associations undertake active propagandist work, hold demonstrations, and assist in the work of general economic improvement of the agriculturists. The subject of agricultural co-operation and even of agricultural credit will come under enquiry by the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India which was appointed during the year. In the terms of reference of the Commission mention is made, among the subjects for investigation, of the methods by which agricultural operations are financed and credit afforded to agriculturists, the existing methods of marketing agricultural produce, and the main lines of development of agriculture and the welfare of the agriculturist, and all of which may be said to be the future of the co-operative movement in India.

Committee on Co-operation in India —

In July 1914, the Government of India issued a lengthy Resolution on Co-operation in India, surveying its progress in the country during the previous ten years. In October Government appointed a Committee under Sir Edward Macdonald to examine whether the movement, especially in its higher stages and in its financial aspect was progressing on sound lines and to suggest any measures of improvement which seemed to be required. The enquiry was to be directed primarily to an examination of such matters as the constitution and working of central and provincial banks, the financial connection between the various parts of the co-operative organization, the audit, inspection, and management of all classes of societies, and the utilization of the reserve funds. In its Report, which was issued in September 1915, the Committee stated that it had not

confined its enquiries to the subjects referred to it, for it had to recognise that the financial welfare of the higher stages of the co-operative system was largely based on the soundness of the foundation. The Government of India passed orders in 1918 on the recommendations in the light of the opinions of the Local Governments. With a view further to elicit opinion on the recommendations, a special conference of the Registrars was convened in August 1918, to which all the Registrars and a few selected non official co-operators were invited. The Conference was also asked to consider the suggestion made by the Committee on Co-operation that as the financing of the movement involved grave difficulties which baffled solution unless the discounting of promissory notes was arranged through an Imperial State Bank or the several Presidency Banks, a careful examination of the question was immediately called for. A proposal was made for the appointment of an expert committee, but the Government of India shelved it by stating that they would assemble the committee at some date convenient to them. The question has again assumed some importance in view of the proposal for an all-India Co-operative bank referred to above and also in view of the fact that the Report of the External Capital Committee issued in 1925 makes prominent mention of the value of the co-operative organisation in developing the banking resources of the country. Pursuant to the recommendations of the External Capital Committee, the Chambers of Commerce, both Indian and European, have urged the appointment of a committee to enquire into the best methods of developing banking in India.

Provincial Legislation.—Under the Reforms co-operation has been made a provincial subject and also a transferred subject. The control of Co-operative Departments has been entrusted to Ministers and in Bombay the United Provinces, and the Central Provinces, Bills have been drawn up for enactment by the local Legislative Councils to take the place of the Co-operative Societies Act. The Bombay Co-operative Societies Bill was introduced in the Bombay Legislative Council in July 1924. It reproduces, in the main, the framework of the Act of 1912 but introduces the following important modifications:—

- (i) The adoption of a scientific system of classifying societies.
- (ii) The improvement of the procedure for liquidation of cancelled societies.
- (iii) The extension of summary powers of recovery to the awards of arbitrators.
- (iv) The provision of penalties against specified offences.

After undergoing some further modifications, the Bill was finally passed into law by the Bombay Legislative Council in July 1925, and now replaces the Co-operative Societies Act in the Bombay Presidency. No other provincial Council has yet enacted legislation on similar lines.

Provincial Inquiries.—In the Central Provinces, owing to the drying up of recoveries

and the issue of large advances to agriculturists to tide over the bad season of 1920-21 the fund resources of the movement were seriously depleted and the Apex Bank was able to meet its liabilities only with the financial assistance of Government. The fund resources of the Provincial Bank were replenished and the Local Government, with the concurrence of the Government of India, placed credits at the disposal of the Provincial Bank and made advances direct to primary societies in the form of Tagavi loans. A Committee of Inquiry was appointed which made sweeping recommendations, the most important of which was a proposal to liquidate the Provincial Bank and to place central banks in direct touch with commercial banks. This recommendation was however, subsequently turned down by the Local Government although some other recommendations such as the division of agricultural finance into short-term crop loans and long-term non-crop loans met with a considerable measure of public support. In Bengal and the Punjab, the return of favourable seasons averted any breakdown of the system, which threatened to overtake the local co-operative organizations when agricultural scarcity on a wide scale caused serious difficulties some years ago. The same may now be asserted of the United Provinces, where there appeared to be some danger of the strain not being quite successfully withstood. The problem there is now that of pushing ahead, and a Committee was appointed in 1925 to hold a comprehensive inquiry and to suggest the lines of future development. The Report of the Committee which was published last year contains numerous recommendations on matters of detailed administration and proposals for strengthening the official staff of the Co-operative Department. The Committee recommend that central banks should be relieved of the work of supervision and inspection which should be entrusted to a staff working under the directions of the Standing Committees of Co-operators. The Committee further suggested that a beginning might be made in the direction of constituting an apex bank for the province but their proposal has not found favour with the local Government. Committees of Inquiry were also appointed in Bihar and Orissa and Mysore, in the former to advise about financial organization and official control and in the latter to lay down a policy of development particularly in relation to higher finance, non credit co-operation, agricultural improvement and the relief of indebtedness. In September 1927, on the recommendation of the Madras Legislative Council, the Government of Madras appointed a Committee of seven members to enquire into the progress of the Co-operative movement in the Presidency and to suggest suitable measures for effecting necessary improvements. The Committee has been directed to examine and make recommendations regarding the practice and organization of the financial system, the arrangements for propaganda and supervision, and the development of Co-operative production, distribution and sale. The Committee issued a detailed questionnaire and has taken evidence and visited Co-operative institutions in various parts of the Presidency. Its report is expected to be issued early in the year 1928.

Effect of Crises on Co-operation.—It is hardly possible without any close and scientific inquiry, such as has not yet been carried out, to appreciate accurately the effects of the co-operative movement in enabling agriculturists to resist the rigours of a famine or also to judge the reaction of the latter on the co-operative organisation as there is an interplay of various economic forces affecting the life and industry of agriculturists, the proportionate value of which cannot be estimated easily. The agricultural season of 1918-19, however, put the co-operative organisation in most provinces to a very severe test and the reports for the succeeding years afford some indication of the resisting power of the co-operative organization.

With a better appreciation of the dependence of the agricultural finance on the vagaries of seasons, and a more systematic management of the funds of central societies it is anticipated that in future the situation arising out of a failure of rains will be satisfactorily met. In 1913 and the following months, practically the whole of the country was subjected to a banking crisis of considerable magnitude, but a marked feature of this crisis was a tendency to withdraw deposits from commercial institutions and to place them in co-operative banks. The outbreak of the War brought another set of influences into play and there was a temporary tendency to withdraw deposits and a temporary cessation of new deposits. The disturbance was not serious except in two or three provinces and by the end of the year 1914-15, the situation became practically normal. In two of the provinces where the situation caused some anxiety owing to the cessation of fresh deposits in central banks, the Government sanctioned advances to the extent of Rs. 5,00,000 to central societies to be utilized in the grant of urgent loans to agricultural societies or to meet withdrawals of deposits. The floods that overtook practically the whole of North Gujarat and one district of Sind in the earlier part of the monsoon of 1927 have affected the working of Co-operative societies in the flood areas, but on the whole, the movement has risen to the occasion. Early arrangements were made for helping agriculturists to sow and to replenish their stocks of grain or fodder and replace lost cattle, implements or domestic necessaries of life. Advances were made for these purposes at the special rate of 5 per cent. interest and, later on, demands were investigated for rebuilding or repairing houses and either funds were provided through Co-operative agency or suitable recommendations were made to the local officials of Government. A charitable fund was also started for relief of distress among members and contributions to this were received from all parts of India and also from Russia.

Social Reform.—Co-operation has, in some places stimulated the desire for education and members of rural societies have been known, even at advanced ages, to receive the elements of education to enable them to put their signatures on their societies' papers, and to take a lively interest in the internal work of their institutions. In Bombay, night schools for adults were started with the aid of

Vithaldas D Thackersey, while in the Punjab, Bihar, Bengal and elsewhere such expenditure on education is incurred by co-operative institutions themselves. In the Punjab separate rural societies have been registered to conduct night schools and also to insist on compulsory education for the children of members. The Punjab also possesses a number of societies for promotion of better living, the members of which societies lay down a social Code for themselves. Breach of this Code involves punishment by fines. In Bengal, attempts have been made to fight the scourge of malaria and to promote village sanitation by starting anti-malarial Co-operative societies. The societies are federated into a Central union in Calcutta which supplements the local funds, co-ordinating the working of the societies, issues literature on hygiene and sanitation, and arranges with local doctors for provision of free medical relief to members. There are not a few cases where a society has set its face against drunkenness, expelled members notorious for their intemperate habits and has insisted on good moral conduct and attempted to improve the standard of life. Societies have occasionally condemned excessive expenditure on marriages, and have thus indirectly trained members to habits of thrift. The liquidation of old debts again has been rendered possible to a great extent and many an agriculturist who was formerly in a state of chronic indebtedness has been relieved of all his debts and freed from the necessity of incurring new ones. Credit has been much cheapened and it is now possible for the agriculturist to borrow at 9 to 13 per cent. what he could not borrow at less than 20 to 75 per cent. formerly. It has been calculated that in interest alone the agriculturists of India, by taking loans from co-operative credit societies instead of from the village money-lenders, are even now saving themselves from an unnecessary burden of over a crore of rupees. The village rates of interest have naturally gone down considerably. And the Sowkar is, in most places, not the terror and the force that he was. Business habits have been inculcated with the beneficial result that the agriculturist has learnt to conduct his own work more efficiently. Thrift has been encouraged and the value of savings better appreciated. Special societies are started in the Punjab to promote thrift, while in Bombay, Bengal and Bihar & Orissa savings of members are attracted to the village credit societies and, either special facilities are provided or special propaganda is conducted to induce members to save and deposit voluntarily. Association in a public institution for common good has brought home to the people the blessings of unity and litigation has often decreased in villages with Co-operative societies. In the Punjab a number of societies were started in rural areas whose members agreed to refer all disputes to arbitration by their elected committees and to abide by the awards of arbitrators. Participation in the management of societies has instilled among members

made by the late Sir

the important lessons of self-help and self-reliance; but the most important achievement of co-operation has been the development of a sense of communal life—a feeling of “all for each and each for all” village societies and the corporate instincts which organization famous in

The following statements show the progress of the co-operative provinces, and contain some information about their detailed working official year 1925-26:—

Number of Societies for all India, showing the increase since

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years 1910-11 to 1914
I	II	III
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	17	
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies).		
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	1,713	
Non-Agricultural	196	
Total ..	1,926	

	Average for 5 years from 1924-25.
	5
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	506
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies.)	1,302
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	51,716
Non-Agricultural	4,183
Total ..	57,707

Statistics of Co-operation

Province.	Population in millions.	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies).	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	Non-Agricultural.	Total number of Societies.	Number of Societies per 100,000 inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras ..	42.3	32	365	10,178	1,396	11,071	28.3
Bombay ..	19.3	20	87	3,877	671	4,655	24.1
Bengal ..	46.7	90	4	11,639	1,632	12,776	27.4
Bihar and Orissa ..	34.0	59	199	6,608	354	7,220	21.2
United Provinces ..	45.4	72	..	5,899	263	6,286	13.1
Punjab ..	20.7	112	..	12,617	1,737	14,520	70.1
Punjab ..	11.7	24	..	4,516	218	5,383	46.0
Central Provinces and Berar ..	13.9	37	..	4,090	50	4,251	30.6
Assam ..	7.6	17	..	883	47	947	12.4
North-West Frontier Province ..	2.3	1	..	9	6	16	0.7
Coorg ..	0.2	1	11	103	13	218	109.0
Almer-Merwara ..	0.5	7	2	486	95	500	118.0
Hyderabad Administered Area ..	0.1	8	8	8.0
Delhi ..	0.5	1	..	109	13	213	42.6
Total (British India) ..	245.2	482	1,377	61,164	5,962	69,016	28.1
Mysore ..	6.0	17	..	1,278	308	1,003	50.7
Baroda ..	2.1	5	..	658	48	731	34.8
Hyderabad ..	12.5	22	..	1,587	317	1,926	15.4
Blopal ..	0.7	24	11	451	..	986	140.9
Gwalior ..	3.2	2,402	39	2,551	79.1
Indore ..	1.1	5	..	138	28	271	26.5
Kashmir ..	3.3	10	..	1,547	81	1,635	19.6
Travancore ..	4.0	1	18	1,071	229	1,337	33.1
Cochin ..	1.0	1	..	106	32	139	13.0

Statistics of Coöperation

	I					1925-26
	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25.		
	2	3	4	5	9	
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).						
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies).	1,087	23,677	89,925	183,822	197,930	
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	107,642	459,096	10,971	24,487	81,20	
Non-Agricultural	54,267	89,157	902,920*	1,661,093	2,327,899	
				226,031	493,509	730,126

Statistics of Co-operation.

Provinces.	Population in millions.	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Co-insurance Societies).	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	Non-Agricultural.	Total number of Members of primary Societies.	Number of Members of primary Societies per 1,000 inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras ..	42.3	13,042	9,617	518,568	197,121	745,450	17.6
Bombay ..	19.3	10,075	500	271,785	168,169	439,954	22.7
Bihar ..	46.7	15,231	212	316,780	129,831	446,611	9.6
United Provinces ..	34.0	9,551	8,464	177,136	21,282	198,418	6.8
Punjab ..	45.4	11,670	41	241,354	14,836	256,190	8.6
Burma ..	20.7	80,509	..	344,965	54,501	399,466	19.8
Central Provinces and Berar ..	11.7	6,420	..	103,936	31,260	135,196	11.6
Assam ..	13.9	78,410	..	61,017	7,516	69,224	5.0
North-West Frontier Province ..	7.6	1,200	..	30,927	8,480	45,387	6.0
Coorg ..	2.3	27	..	212	126	338	0.1
Ajmer-Merwara ..	0.2	209	116	9,125	1,618	10,643	53.2
Hyderabad Administered Area ..	0.1	1,651	137	10,020	5,280	15,309	30.6
Delhi ..	0.5	1,889	1,889	13.0
Total (British India) ..	245.2	178,374	30,039	2,029,259	639,329	2,668,587	8.0
Mysore ..	6.0	2,358	..	51,160	40,773	92,933	15.5
Baroda ..	2.1	1,129	..	17,806	5,873	23,679	11.3
Hyderabad ..	12.6	3,902	..	84,353	13,270	97,623	9.8
Rajput ..	0.7	2,108	271	13,446	..	15,446	19.2
Indore ..	3.2	6,860	..	42,636	641	43,177	13.3
Kashmir ..	1.1	1,283	..	6,267	1,675	7,942	6.3
Travancore ..	3.4	2,289	..	29,489	1,307	30,796	6.4
Cochin ..	4.0	726	845	95,030	19,065	114,095	28.8
..	1.0	9,505	5,763	15,268	15.3

	1	Average for 5 years from				Average for 3 years from	
		2	3	4	5	6	1925-26.
		Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 6 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25		
		Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs.	Rs. (1,000)
Share capital paid up	13,19	88,87	2,51,97	5,25,00	7,80,05	7,80,05
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Members	14,12	83,28	96,35	2,54,45	8,88,61	8,88,61
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies	18,59	1,08,42*	47,81	1,49,98	2,02,18	2,02,18
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Provincial or Central Banks	5,03,19	12,29,88	19,21,90	19,21,90
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Government	5,86	10,87	25,58	67,69	1,38,04	1,38,04
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Non-Members and other sources	19,69	1,41,98	4,70,25	10,96,22	18,16,00	18,16,00
Reserve and other funds	1,67	25,00	1,23,32	3,12,38	5,13,01	5,13,01

Statistics of Co-operation

Province	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Share Capital paid up	Members.	Societies.	Treasure or Central Banks.	Government.	Non Members and other sources.	Reserve and other Funds.	Total.			Number of annuals per head of population
	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	AN
Madras ..	1,53,32	42.8	47.07	48,52	17,69	2,90,40	51,73	11,36,35	48		
Bombay ..	1,03,06	19.3	1,81,08	48,71	36,14	2,40,93	50,61	8,74,09	78		
Bengal ..	99,01	46.7	54,99	12,52	52	2,68,19	61,34	7,48,29	20		
Bihar and Orissa ..	32,09	34.0	10,32	2,52	34	1,51,47	27,23	4,10,24	10		
United Provinces ..	17,00	45.4	3,23	54,30	27	50,04	29,91	1,48,16			
Punjab ..	8,10	20.7	43,83	30,10	17,37	3,05,98	1,08,48	9,22,97	72		
Burma ..	95,93	11.7	12,76	10,98	12,55	1,42,89	65,52	4,73,01	66		
Central Provinces and Berar ..	29,20	12.9	4,74	1,92,39	10	1,82,00	47,80	4,32,06	50		
Assam ..	4,28	7.6	6,14	0,02	20	12,91	4,88	30,10	6		
North West Frontier Province..	10	2.3	..	8	20	39	..		
Coorg ..	1,87	0.2	16	1,13	5	1,86	1,19	5,87	47		
Ajmer-Merwara ..	5,89	0.5	1,00	12,01	41	16,22	6,03	42,37	130		
Hyderabad Administered Area..	1,18	0.1	1,00	41	8	2,77	44		
Delhi ..	77	0.5	9	4,17	..	7,85	36	18,17	4		
Total (British India) ..	6,71,85	245.3	8,05,34	1,91,49	85,96	17,21,71	4,60,15	53,00,07	30		
Mysore ..	85,32	6.0	10,92	1,32	1,68	23,49	16,18	98,60	20		
Baroda ..	2,86	2.1	5,49	1,32	1,71	12,13	5,42	37,98	29		
Hyderabad ..	32,60	12.5	1,05	50,40	7,04	31,68	16,85	1,41,05	1		
Bhopal ..	1,02	0.7	..	4,99	3,37	1	2,60	12,72	20		
Gwalior ..	9,53	3.2	69	..	27,99	1,70	6,98	50,69	26		
Indore ..	2,00	1.1	2,08	11,03	2,10	8,07	9,04	32,85	4		
Kashmir ..	12,22	3.3	18	15,72	5,03	8,68	5,97	48,28	3		
Travancore ..	11,34	4.0	1,07	4,79	1,83	2,1	1,10	23,80	1		
Cochin ..	1,91	1.0	1,79	2,12	34	4,11	1,00	13,09	1		

Indians Overseas.

NUMBERS.—The total Indian population resident in the countries to emigrate for purposes of settlement, according to the latest available re-

Name of Country.	Indian population.
<i>British Empire.</i>	
1. Ceylon	750,000 (according to the census of 1921 the Indian population on estates in Ceylon consisted of— Males 257,808 Females ... 239,300.)
2. Straits Settlements	101,628
3. Federated Malay States ..	305,270
4. British Malaya	61,810
5. Hong Kong	2,555
6. Mauritius	264,527
7. Seychelles	332
8. Gibraltar	50 (approximately)
9. Nigeria	100 (")
10. Kenya	22,822
11. Uganda	5,074 (Asiatic)
12. Nyasaland	516
13. Zanzibar	12,841
14. Tanganyika Territory ..	9,411
15. Jamaica	18,401
16. Trinidad	121,420
17. British Guiana	124,933
18. Fiji Islands	80,531
19. Basutoland	179
20. Swaziland	7
21. Northern Rhodesia	58 (Asiatics)
22. Southern Rhodesia	1,250 (")
23. Canada	1,300
24. Australia—	
Western Australia .. 300	2,000 (approximately)
Southern Australia .. 200	
Victoria 400	
New South Wales .. 700	
Queensland 300	
Tasmania 100	
25. New Zealand	808
26. Natal	141,336
27. Transvaal	13,405
28. Cape Colony	6,498
29. Orange Free State	100
30. Newfoundland	
Total for British Empire ..	2,030,241
<i>Foreign Countries.</i>	
31. United States of America ..	3,175 (Asiatics)
32. Madagascar	5,372 (Indians)
33. Reunion	2,194
34. Dutch East Indies	332,667 (Orientals, chiefly Chinese & Arabs) (say) 50,000 Indians.
35. Surinam	34,957
36. Mozambique	1,100 (Asiatics and half- castes)
37. Persia	3,527
Total for Foreign Countries ..	100,525
Grand Total of Indians Overseas ..	2,130,766

Origin of Indian Emigration.

Emigration is prohibited by the Hindu Shastras, and there is little evidence of any settlement of Indians overseas in early times except in Sumatra, Java and Ceylon. Emigration for purposes of labour dates from the beginning of the 19th century. From 1800 A. D. onwards Indians crossed the Bay to the Straits Settlements to work on the sugar, spice, tapioca, and coconut plantations of Penang, and this intercourse was allowed to continue for long without regulation. The first officially recorded instance of genuine recruitment for labour emigration occurred in 1830, when a French merchant, named Joseph Argand, carried some 150 artisans to Bourbon. The abolition of slavery in British colonies in 1834 gave the first great impetus to the movement. The sugar planters of Mauritius at once turned to India as their best recruiting ground, and between 1834 and 1837 obtained at least 7,000 recruits from Calcutta. The Government of India at a very early stage realised the necessity of bringing such emigration under regulation. The Law Commission was asked to investigate the case and to make recommendations for securing the well-being of emigrants. They advised that no legislation was required except in order to prevent undue advantage being taken of the simplicity and ignorance of emigrants by providing that a magistrate should satisfy himself that all contracts were entered into freely and understood by them, and in order to secure that sufficient provision was made for their accommodation and sustenance during the voyage. A copy of every engagement was also to be transmitted to the Government under which the emigrants were to live. These recommendations were embodied in the first Emigration Act (V of 1837), which also provided that contracts should be determinable after 3 years.

History of Emigration.—Under the above Act emigration during 1837 was permitted to Mauritius, British Guiana and Australia (89 men, the first and last direct emigrants to Australia). In 1838 emigration was suspended owing to agitation in England regarding the abuses to which the system was liable, and a committee of enquiry reported in 1840 that emigrants were being entrapped by force or fraud, robbed of their wages and treated with brutality. In consequence, emigration was prohibited (Act XV of 1842) except to Mauritius, and there control was tightened. In Act XXI of 1844 emigration under still stricter regulation was allowed to Jamaica, British Guiana and Trinidad. Act XIII of 1847 removed the restrictions on emigration to Ceylon. The emancipation of slaves in the French colonies in 1849 gave rise to a system of emigration from French Indian ports to Réunion and Bourbon, which was largely based on crimping in British territory. This practice was checked by Act XXIV of 1852. In 1858 emigration was opened to St. Lucia, and in 1860 to St. Vincent, Natal and St. Kitts. In the latter year a more elaborate Act, based on a convention with the French Government was passed, legalising and regulating emigration to Réunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe, and French Guiana. Act XIII of 1864 marks an important stage in the history of emigration, since it elaborated

and consolidated the whole system of control. It was itself amended in 1869 and 1870 in important respects with the object of preventing epidemics on emigrant vessels and improving sanitary conditions in settlements. In 1869 emigration was permitted to Grenada, and in 1872 to Surinam. Owing to the removal of the Straits Settlements from the control of the Government of India in 1867, emigration to that colony came under all the restrictions imposed by the Emigration Act and was only permitted from the port of Negapatam. Owing to the injury caused to the agricultural industries of the colony, these restrictions were removed in 1872, subject only to magisterial control of recruitment in India. In 1870 of gross abuses in the treatment of emigrants in British Guiana. A commission of enquiry was appointed, and their report led to important legislation in the colony for the protection of Indian immigrants, which was subsequently extended to Trinidad. Owing to similar complaints from Natal and Mauritius, commissions of enquiry were also instituted in both these colonies, and their reports in 1873 brought to light a number of points requiring amendment.

Recent Legislation.—In 1871 a fresh consolidating Act was passed (Act VII of 1871) by which the Acts regulating emigration to the French Colonies and two amending Acts to Act XIII of 1864 were incorporated in the general law. The question of revision of the law again came up for consideration in 1882, when several cases of kidnapping and other objectionable practices were reported to the Government of India. The opportunity was taken to depute two officials (Major Fletcher and Mr. Grierson) to ascertain, in the N. W. P. and in Bengal respectively, the way in which the system of recruitment actually worked, the respects in which it was open to improvement, and the attitude of the people towards emigration. Their reports were reviewed by the Government of India, and finally in 1883 the law was again recast and consolidated by Act XXI of that year. This Act specifies the countries to which emigration is lawful, but empowers the Governor General in Council to add to the list by notification, and also to prohibit emigration to any of the countries in the list on the ground of epidemic disease or excessive mortality among emigrants in such country, or on the ground that proper measures have not been taken for the protection of emigrants, or that the agreements made with them in India are not duly enforced. This Act with certain amendments of no importance to the system of indentured emigration remained in force until 1908, when a fresh revision of the law was undertaken.

Under the Act of 1908 (XVII of 1908) the countries to which emigration was lawful were the British Colonies of Mauritius, Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, Natal, St. Kitts, Nevis, N. Z., the Seychelles, the Netherlands Colony of Dutch Guiana and the Danish Colony of St. Croix. Emigration to St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, Nevis, the Seychelles and St. Croix ceased soon after the passing of the Act, the

demand for fresh labour has gone out. Emigration to Natal was discontinued on the 1st July 1911 as the Government of India were satisfied that it was unable to continue to send Indian labour to that country. Emigration to the French Colonies of Réunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe had been suspended prior to the passing of the Act of 1908 on account of repeated complaints of the inadequate precautions taken for the proper treatment and repatriation of the immigrants.

The labour laws of the several Colonies provide for the protection and welfare of resident Indian labourers. The Government of India also occasionally depute to the colonies their officers to report on the condition of Indian labourers. Deputations from India visited Fiji and British Guiana in 1921. In spite of all precautions certain social and moral evils had grown up in connection with the indentured system of emigration and Indian public opinion has during the last decade been strongly opposed to it. The whole system was exhaustively examined by the Government of India in 1915 in the light of the report received from Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal, and they arrived at the conclusion that the time has come when contract labour should be abolished. The Secretary of State for India accepted this policy and authorised the Government of India to announce the abolition of the indentured system and the announcement to this effect was made in 1916.

In 1922 a further step forward was taken in Act VII of 1922 which prohibited indentured emigration and all unskilled emigration, except to countries specially approved by the Legislature. Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya was brought under control, and the definition of "Emigrant" was extended to cover all persons "assisted" to depart from India.

References.—The following is a list of the most important reports on questions connected with Indian Emigration that have been published during recent years:—

1. Report of the International Commission appointed to enquire into the condition and treatment of British India immigrants in Réunion 1879.
2. Report on the system of recruiting coolies in the North Western Provinces and Oudh for the Colonies, 1883.
3. Major Pither and Mr. Grierson's report on the system of recruiting labourers in the North Western Provinces and Bengal for the Colonies, 1883.
4. Report of the Natal Indian Immigrants Commission, 1895-97.
5. Dr. Comin's report on the proposed resumption of Emigration to Réunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe, 1892.
6. Dr. Comin's report on Emigration from the East Indies to Surinam, 1893.
7. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on Emigration to Réunion, 1894.
8. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on the condition of Indian labour in the Colonies, 1895.

9. Report of the Commission appointed to enquire into the condition of Indian immigrants in 1896.

10. Lord Sanderson's Commission's Report on Emigration from India to the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, 1910.

11. Report of the Indian Enquiry Commission South Africa, 1914.

12. Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal's report on the condition of Indian Emigrants in the four British Colonies: Trinidad, British Guiana or Demerara, Jamaica and Fiji, and in the Dutch Colony of Surinam, 1914-15.

13. Marjoribanks' and Marakkayar's report on Indian labour emigrating to Ceylon and Malaya, 1917.

14. South Africa Asiatic Enquiry Commission report, 1921.

15. Report by Right Hon. V. S. Shastri regarding his Dominion tour, 1923.

16. India and the Imperial Conference of 1923 compiled by Director of Public Information, Government of India.

17. Reports on the scheme for Indian emigration to British Guiana.

18. Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to Mauritius, 1925.

19. Annual Report of the Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon, 1925.

20. Annual Report of the Agent of the Government of India in British Malaya for the year 1925.

21. Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to British Guiana, 1926.

Present Position.—Indian emigration questions have recently taken on a wider aspect. The status of Indians in the Empire generally is one in which the Indian public now take keen interest. It is no longer possible to deal with the treatment of Indian labour apart from other classes of Indian emigrants and travellers. In several colonies and dominions considerable Indian communities have sprung up, which although composed largely of the descendants of indentured labourers, are themselves free and lawfully domiciled citizens of the countries in which they are settled, but have not yet been placed on a footing of legal, social, political and economic equality with the rest of the population. The issues round which public interest at present centres are three:—

- (a) Control of emigration.
- (b) Rights of Indians to admission to other parts of the Empire.
- (c) Rights and disabilities of Indians domiciled overseas.

These questions may be considered separately.

Control of Emigration.—So far as unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute powers of control. The terms of section 10 of the Emigration Act of 1922 are as follows:—

"10. (1) Emigration, for the purpose of unskilled work, shall not be lawful except to such countries and on such terms and conditions as the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, may specify in this behalf.

"(2) No Notification shall be made under sub-section (1) unless it has been laid in draft before both Chambers of the Indian Legislature and has been approved by a resolution of each Chamber, either without modification or addition, or with modifications and additions to which both Chambers agree, but, upon such approval being given, the notification may be issued in the form in which it has been so approved."

Under this law emigration has been legalized to Ceylon on the following conditions:

(1) The emigrant shall—

(a) have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of Ceylon, or

(b) have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(2) The emigrant shall not, before leaving British India, have entered into a contract of service for a period exceeding one month.

(3) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that any contract of service for a period exceeding one month entered into by an emigrant shall be void.

(4) No part of the cost of his recruitment, subsistence during transport, or transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be defrayed from a common fund to be raised in such manner and managed by such agency as may appear suitable to the Colonial Government.

(5) The Government of Ceylon shall at any time when so desired by the Governor-General in Council admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(6) Within one year of his arrival in Ceylon any emigrant who has been assisted to emigrate at the cost of the common fund referred to in clause (4) shall, on satisfying the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity, or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer, or for any other sufficient reason, be repatriated free of cost to the place of recruitment, and the costs of such repatriation shall be defrayed by the Government of Ceylon or the Ceylon Planters' Association.

(7) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, the Government of Ceylon shall appoint a person to perform the duties of the Agent as set forth in clause (6).

(8) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period

as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that no payment made in India by a recruiter to an emigrant to enable him to pay off debts before emigrating shall be recoverable.

(9) The Government of Ceylon shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of persons emigrating to Ceylon in accordance with this Notification.

Similar conditions have been imposed in the case of Malaya. Emigration was also permitted to Mauritius for a period of 1 year only with effect from May 1st, 1923, and limited to a number not exceeding 1,500 labourers. The terms were more onerous than in the case of nearer Colonies and the arrangement has now lapsed.

Admission of Indians to Other Parts of the Empire.—On the motion of the Government of India this question was discussed at the Imperial War Conferences, 1917 and 1918, and the policy accepted by the self-governing dominions and the British Government was embodied in the following resolutions:—

"(1) It is an inherent function of the Governments of the British Commonwealth that each should enjoy the right to determine the composition of its own community, and means of restriction on the entry of persons of other communities.

"(2) British citizens domiciled in any British country, including India, should be admitted into any other British country for visits, for the purpose of pleasure or commerce, including temporary residence for the purpose of education; such right shall not extend to a visit or temporary residence for labour purposes or to permanent settlement.

"(3) Indians already permanently domiciled in the other British countries should be allowed to bring in their wives and minor children on condition: (a) That not more than one wife and her children shall be admitted for each such Indian; and (b) that each individual so admitted shall be certified by the Government of India as being the lawful wife or child of such Indian."

The first paragraph of this resolution has regularized the various restrictions on immigration which the self-governing dominions have, from time to time, adopted and which, without expressly differentiating against Indians, are in practice used in order to check Indian immigration, the objections to which are stated to be not racial or political but economic. Australia prohibits the entry of any person who fails to pass a dictation test of not less than 50 words in any prescribed language. New Zealand prohibits the entry of any person who has not received in advance a permit from the Dominion Government which is refused to any person regarded as unsuitable to settle in the country. South Africa prohibits the entry of any person deemed by the Minister of the Interior on economic grounds or on account of his standard or habits of life to be unsuitable to the requirements of the

Under a Canada passport and a few years ago who has come on the Dominion of the world than by on our journey on the country of which he is a native and who has possessions in his own right 250 dollars. Newfoundland and the Irish Free State impose no restrictions. All the self-governing Dominions have adopted special exemptions in favour of students, tourists and merchants visiting the countries for the temporary purposes of commerce, pleasure, or education. India on its side has assumed power to regulate the admission of immigrants from any other part of the Empire or foreign countries, by means of passports. A bill has also been passed by the Indian Legislature empowering the Government of India to make rules "for the purpose of securing that persons not being of Indian origin, domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British territories than persons of Indian origin."

... to the Crown colonies and protectorates, the attitude of the Indian Government is that there is no justification for placing any restrictions on the immigration of British Indians, which are not placed on other classes of British subjects, and this principle has in practice been observed by the Colonial Office except in the case of Kenya colony where, as stated hereafter, the British Government has reserved to itself the right to impose restrictions on the immigration of classes of people whose entry into the colony may have an adverse effect on the economic evolution of the indigenous population.

Rights and Disabilities of Indians Lawfully Domiciled Overseas.—The policy of the Empire is summed up in the resolution of the Imperial Conference, 1921, which was recorded in the following terms:—

"This Conference reaffirms that each Community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control over the composition of its own population by restricting immigration from any of the other communities, but recognises that there is incongruity between the position of India, as an equal member of the Empire, and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some parts of the Empire, and this Conference, therefore, is of opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised."

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India while appreciating the acceptance of this resolution, nevertheless feel bound to record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa and hope that by negotiations between India and South Africa a way can be found as soon as may be to reach a more satisfactory position."

The Right Hon'ble Srinivasa Sastri visited the Dominions of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the course of 1922 as the emissary of the Government of India to assist them in giving effect to this resolution. The main

object of his mission was to appeal to the Governments and public of Canada and Australia to open an Indian franchise in Queensland and Western Australia have neither the privilege nor the federal franchise. In Canada Indians resident in British Columbia are excluded from the Dominion as well as the provincial franchise. While successful in securing a more sympathetic atmosphere towards Indians, he failed to bring about any modification in the existing electoral laws.

The question of giving effect to this resolution of 1921 was raised by the Indian representatives at the Imperial Conference, 1923. Their proposal was as follows:—

"Let the Dominion Governments who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Government in the areas under their direct control such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India and explore the avenues of how best and how soon the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 Resolution may be implemented."

This proposal was favourably received by the Dominion Premiers, excluding General Smuts; and by the Secretary of State for the Colonies who cordially agreed that there should be full consultation and discussions between him and a Committee appointed by the Government of India upon all questions affecting British Indians domiciled in British Colonies and protectorates and mandated territories. In pursuance of the proposal, the Government of India appointed a Committee in March 1924 composed of Mr. J. Hope Simpson, M.P., Chairman, H. H. the Aga Khan, Sir B. Robertson, Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, M.L.A., and Mr. K. C. Roy with Mr. R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.O.S. as Secretary to make representations to the Colonial Office on certain outstanding questions affecting Indians in Kenya and Fiji. The Committee assembled in London early in April 1924 and dispersed towards the end of July. During this period they had several interviews with the Secretary of State for the Colonies and the officials of the Colonial Office, in which they made representations upon a variety of important matters affecting Indians in Kenya, in Fiji and in the mandated territory of Tanganyika. In regard to Kenya, the representations covered all questions of interest to India dealt with in the decision of His Majesty's Government. The result of these representations was announced by Mr. J. H. Thomas in the House of Commons on August 7th, 1924. The situation in Kenya has also been improved as a result of the work of the Committee by the decision of the Indian community to relinquish their former attitude of non-co-operation and to accept an arrangement by which they will select five members to be nominated by the Governor to the Legislative Council. The result of the representations which the Committee made on certain outstanding questions relating to Indians in Fiji is expected to be announced shortly.

Summary of Present Position.—Outside Australia, N. Zealand and Canada the position stands as follows:—

(1) **South Africa.**—The main grievances of Indians, which led to a passive resistance

movement headed by Mr. Gandhi were secured by the up and down movement of the Indian Repeal Act, 1914, and by the guarantee known as the Simla-Gandhi agreement. The substance of this agreement is embodied in the following extracts from letters:

(i) Mr. Gorges, Secretary for the Interior, to Mr. Gandhi, June 30th, 1914: "With regard to the administration of existing laws, the Minister desires me to say that it always has been, and will continue to be, the desire of the Government to see that they are administered in a just manner and with due regard to vested rights."

(ii) Mr. Gandhi to Mr. Gorges, July 7th, 1914: "By vested rights I understand the right of an Indian and his successors to live and trade in the township in which he was living and trading, no matter how often he shifts his residence or business from place to place in the same township."

This has been officially interpreted to mean that the vested rights of those Indians who were then living and trading in townships, whether in contravention of the law or not, should be respected."

In 1920 an Asiatic Enquiry Commission was appointed to investigate the grievances of Indians regarding their rights to trade and hold land in the Union. Their main recommendations were as follows:—

(1) Law 3 of 1885 (Transvaal), the Gold Law of the Transvaal (Act No. 35 of 1908) and Act No. 37 of 1919 should not be repealed.

(2) There should be no compulsory repatriation of Asiatics; but

(3) Voluntary repatriation should be encouraged.

(4) There should be no compulsory segregation of Asiatics; but

(5) A system of voluntary separation should be introduced under which municipalities should have the right, subject to certain conditions—

(a) to lay out residential areas for Asiatics;

(b) to set aside certain streets or portions of the town for Asiatic traders to which existing license holders should gradually be attracted.

(6) These areas should be selected and allocated by a board of independent persons, in consultation with the Municipal Council and Asiatic community.

(7) In Natal the right of Asiatics to acquire and own land for farming or agricultural purposes, outside townships, should be confined to the coast belt, say, 20 to 30 miles inland.

(8) A uniform "License Law" applicable to all the Provinces of the Union should, be possible, be enacted. If that is impracticable, the law relating to the issue of Trade Licenses in the Cape Province, the Transvaal and Natal should be assimilated in a comprehensive consolidating Act of Parliament providing, *inter alia*—

(a) That the granting of all licenses to trade (not being liquor licenses) shall be entrusted

to a person appointed by the Governor in the Cape Province, and in the other Provinces to special Licensing Officers appointed by the Administrator.

(b) The grounds upon which an application for the grant of a new license may be refused

(c) That the reasons for the refusal to grant any license shall be recorded, together with any evidence tendered for or against the application.

(d) That, in the case of the refusal of a license on the ground that the applicant is not a fit and proper person to hold the same or to carry on the proposed business, there shall be a final appeal to a Special Appeal Board, appointed by the Administrator.

(e) That municipal bodies shall have the right to prohibit the license holder, or any other person, from residing in any shop, store or other place of business.

(9) There should be no relaxation in the enforcement of the Immigration Laws, and more active steps should be taken to deal with prohibited immigrants who have evaded the provisions of those laws.

(10) The administration of the Asiatic policy of the Government should be placed in the hands of one official, under whose charge would come all administrative functions, together with the official records relating to Asiatics. This officer should also be entrusted with the duty of securing full statistics regarding Asiatics in the Union and of the arrivals in and departures from South Africa. Details of all applications for trade licenses, and transactions in connection with the purchase of land and property made by Asiatics throughout the Union, should be sent to him in order to ensure the enforcement of the provisions of Section 8 of Act 22 of 1913.

On the other hand, he should keep in close touch with the various sections of the Indian community, see that the laws are applied in a just manner, give a ready ear to any complaints or grievances and generally safeguard their interests.

No action has been taken by the Union Government to give effect to these proposals except with regard to voluntary repatriation 6,080 Indians have returned to India from South Africa during the last 4 years of whom probably a large proportion have abandoned their South African domicile and accepted free repatriation under the official scheme.

Present Position.—Indians enjoy both the political and municipal franchise only in the Cape Province and the municipal franchise only in Natal. In the remaining two provinces they are not enfranchised. They are subjected to differential treatment in the matter of trading licenses, specially in the Transvaal. Their immigration into the Union is barred and severe restrictions exist on inter-provincial migration. In the Transvaal they are not allowed to acquire immovable property outside locations and on the Witwatersrand they are subject to the restrictions of the Gold Law.

The anti-Asiatic policy has been made effective by the efforts of the Natal Government. The regulations forbidding Asiatics from travelling in any other carriages except those reserved for them, and similar rules restricting their use of tramways at Durban, and excluding them from race courses and betting club rooms. Examples of recent anti-Asiatic legislation of major importance are:

(a) The Natal Rural Dealers Licensing Ordinance, transferring the power of granting trading licenses from the Licensing Officer to an elected Licensing Board, on which Indians may not sit.

(b) The Durban Land Alienation Ordinance. This Ordinance, which enables Municipalities in selling land to assign it for particular communities, and to that extent to secure segregation, has been allowed on condition that Asiatics are given reasonable opportunity for acquiring adequate residential sites.

Anti-Asiatic feeling in South Africa does not appear to be diminishing, and a bill for the segregation of Asiatics known as the Class Areas Bill was introduced in the Union Assembly in March 1924, which though not specifically directed against Indians, contained provisions which could be used for the compulsory segregation of all Asiatics in certain areas. Indian opinion was deeply agitated over the prospect of this legislation which it was apprehended might in the existing state of public opinion in South Africa result in the economic ruin of a large number of Indian traders in the Union. In response to the vigorous protests made by the Government of India the Union Government gave an assurance that it was their desire and intention to apply the measure if it became law in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of resident Indians. The Government of India whilst welcoming the assurance were unable to rest satisfied with this position and made every effort to persuade the Union Government to abandon the project. For the moment they have succeeded, as in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African Parliament the bill has lapsed.

In Natal an Ordinance was introduced in the Provincial Council in 1921 dealing with the township franchise to the detriment of the Indian community. It was again introduced in 1922 and in a modified form in 1923 but in each instance the Union Government withheld its approval. In 1923, the Union Government itself introduced a measure entitled "The Class Areas Bill," containing provisions which could be used in urban areas for the compulsory segregation of Asiatics. Indian opinion was deeply exercised over the prospects of this legislation, despite the assurance of the Union Government that it desired to apply the measure in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of Indian residents. But in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African House of Assembly in April, 1924, the Bill lapsed. Towards the end of December 1924, news was received that the Government of South Africa had given its consent to the Natal

Booth Ordinance. This measure which was during the gifts of Indian lady on the 1st of the month. Booth Ordinance was passed by the Natal Township Franchise Ordinance (No. 3 of 1923) was passed to or to render Indians ineligible for Township Franchise in future. Further, towards the end of January 1925, news was received that the Union Government had gazetted a Bill to amend the Mines and Works Act in order to take powers to refuse certificates of competency to natives or Asiatics in certain occupations. The Government of India made suitable representations in the matter to the Union Government and the Select Committee to which the measure was referred altered the wording so as not to refer to Asiatics and natives directly. The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was passed by the Union Assembly but rejected by the Senate. In January 1926 it was reintroduced and in May it was adopted at a joint Session of the Senate and the Assembly by eighty-three votes to sixty-seven. In reply to representations made by the Government of India they were informed that there was present intention on the part of the Union Government of extending regulations beyond the position as it existed prior to the judgment of the Transvaal Provincial Division of the Supreme Court in the case *Rox versus Hilda Smith* when it was held that certain regulations with reference to mines and works which had actually been in force in the Union of South Africa since 1911 and in certain provinces many years before that date were not valid under sections of the Act in terms of which they were promulgated. The Government of India had also been assured that should any such extension of the scope of these regulations be contemplated in future every reasonable opportunity will be given to all the parties in the Union interested in the matter to make representations.

In July 1926, a more comprehensive Bill known as the Areas Reservation and Immigration and Registration (Further Provisions) Bill, was introduced in the Union Assembly. The Government of India made effective representations against the provisions of the Bill both on grounds of principle as well as detail.

Deputation to S. Africa.

Towards the end of November 1925, the Government of India, with the concurrence of the Government of South Africa, sent a deputation to South Africa, the personnel of which was as follows:—

G. K. Paddison, Esq., C.S.I., I.C.S., Commissioner of Labour, Madras—*Leader*
Hon'ble Syed Raza Ali, M.C.S.—*Member*
Sir Deva Prasad Sarvadhikary, Kt., C.I.E.—*Member*
G. S. Bajpai, Esq., C.B.E., I.C.S.—*Secretary*

The main purpose of the deputation was to collect as soon as possible first-hand information regarding the economic condition and general position of the resident Indian community in South Africa and to form an appreciation of the wishes and requirements of the Indian community in South Africa. A preliminary report was received in India early in January. On the basis of the facts disclosed

in that report the Government of India felt justified in renewing their proposal for a round table conference and pressed that, if that proposal was still unacceptable, there was a case for a fresh enquiry before the proposed legislation was proceeded with. Neither of these suggestions commended themselves to the Union Government who, however, expressed their willingness to give the Indian Community in South Africa an opportunity of making their views known to them by offering to take the course of proposing the reference of the Areas Reservation Bill to a Select Committee before, instead of after, the second reading, in order that the Indian objections to the Bill might be heard in respect of its principles as well as of its details. This offer the Government of India accepted, and their deputation appeared before the Select Committee on 14th October and presented the Bill. Their advice was further correspondence with the Union Government the Government of India method of arriving at the opinion of the Indian Community in South Africa. They suggested that the Union Ministers might confer informally with the Leader of the Indian deputation in order to ascertain whether the obstacles in the way of a conference could not be overcome. The suggested conversations took place at Capetown early in April and resulted in a better understanding and appreciation of the respective points of view and difficulties of the two Governments. The Union Government impressed upon the Government of India that public opinion in South Africa would not view with favour any settlement which did not hold out a reasonable prospect of safeguarding the maintenance of western standards of life by just and legitimate means and on this basis agreed to enter a conference the recommendations of which would be subject to confirmation by the Governments of both countries. They also agreed, subject to the approval of the Union Parliament, to postpone further progress with the Areas Reservation Bill until the results of the conference were available. The following formula was accepted by both Governments as the basis on which the conference should be held: "The Government of the Union of South Africa and the Government of India have been further in communication with each other regarding the best method of arriving at an amicable solution of the Indian problem. The Government of the Union have impressed upon the Government of India that public opinion in South Africa will not view with favour any settlement which does not hold out a reasonable prospect of safeguarding the maintenance of Western standard of life by just and legitimate means. The Government of India are prepared to assist in exploring all possible methods of settling the Asiatic question and have offered to enter into a Conference with the Union Government for the purpose. Any proposal that the Conference might make would be subject to confirmation by the Governments of the two countries. The Union Government have accepted the offer of the Government of India and in order to ensure that the Conference should meet under the best auspices, have decided, subject to the approval of the Select Committee and Parliament, not to proceed further with the Areas Reservation and Immigration and Registration (Further Provision) Bill until the results of the Conference are available."

The reception accorded by Indian opinion to the decision to hold such a conference augured well for its success. At the same time, in order to enable representatives of the various political parties in South Africa to appreciate India's point of view and to strengthen the better understanding created by the visit of the Government of India Deputation to South Africa, the Government of India extended and the Union Government accepted an invitation to send a representative deputation to this country. The deputation arrived in India on the 18th September 1926. They visited almost all the principal towns of India including the Khyber Pass and Landi Kotal and returned to South Africa on the 13th October 1926.

On the 16th October 1926, it was announced that the conference between the representatives of the Union Government and those of the Government of India would take place at Cape Town on the 20th of December. The Government of India Delegation to South Africa consisted of the following:—

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|---|------------|
| (1) Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Habibullah, K.C.I.E., K.T., Member of Governor General's Council | Leader |
| (2) Hon'ble Mr. G. L. Corbett, C.I.E., I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of India in the Commerce Department | Dy. Leader |
| (3) Right Hon'ble V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, P. C. | Member |
| (4) Sir D'Arcy Lindsay, K.T., C.B.E., M.L.A. | " |
| (5) Hon'ble Sir Phiroze C. Serhna, K.T., C.B.E. | " |
| (6) Sir George Paddison, K.B.E., C.S.I., I.C.S., M.L.A. | " |
| (7) G. S. Bajpai, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S., Dy. Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Education, Health and Lands | Secretary. |

The members of the Indian Delegation left India on the 24th November and reached Cape Town on the 16th December 1926. The conference was formally opened by the Prime Minister-General Hertzog, on the following day.

(2) **Kenya Colony.**—The grievances of Indians domiciled in this Colony are fully set forth in the published despatch of the Government of India, dated October 21st, 1926. The controversy centred round the following points:—

(a) **FRANCHISE.**—Indians have not the elective franchise. The Government of India proposed that there should be a common electoral roll and a common franchise on a reasonable property basis plus an educational test, without racial discrimination, for all British subjects.

(b) **SEGREGATION.**—Professor Simpson who was sent to East Africa to report on Sanitary matters, recommended segregation on sanitary grounds. The Government of India objected, firstly, that it was impracticable, secondly, that it was commercially inconvenient, and thirdly, that Indians are in practice unfairly treated in the allocation of sites.

THE HIGLAND Bill had decided in 1923 that as a matter of administrative convenience grants of land in the upland area should not be made to Indians. The whole area has now been given out, and the Government of India claim that there is no land left to which Lord Elgin's decision applies. This decision has now, however, been extended so as to prohibit the transfer of land in the uplands to non-Europeans.

... have been put ... immigration of India claim that there is no case for restricting Indian immigration and that such restrictions would be in principle indefensible.

THE SETTLEMENT.—The decisions of the British Government were contained in a White Paper presented to Parliament in July 1923. It was held that the guiding principle should be that "the interests of the African native must be paramount," and in light of this it was decided:—

(a) **FRANCHISE.**—A communal franchise was adopted with 11 seats for elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, one nominated Arab, one missionary representing the Africans, and a nominated official majority. One Indian is also appointed on the Governor's Executive Council.

(b) **SEGREGATION.**—The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asiatics is abandoned.

(c) **THE HIGHLANDS.**—The existing practice is maintained both as regards initial grants of land and transfers. A similar reservation in the low lands is offered to Indians.

(d) **IMMIGRATION.**—Racial discrimination in immigration regulations is rejected. But in the economic interests of the Africans, further control over immigration is necessary. Some arrangement is required for securing a strictly impartial examination of applications for entry into Kenya. The Governors of Kenya and Uganda have been instructed to submit joint proposals for legislation.

The Government of India reviewed their decisions in a resolution published on August 18th, 1923, and recorded "their deep regret that His Majesty's Government did not feel justified in giving greater effect to the recommendations made by them" and reserved liberty to reopen the case on a suitable opportunity. They stated their intention of making representations regarding the action to be taken to implement these decisions, particularly in the matter of the Immigration regulations.

Following upon the Kenya award statutory action was taken by the local administration on the franchise question. Adult suffrage on communal lines was conferred upon Indians. As regards immigration, the Government of India took the opportunity to urge the postponement of the Bill giving effect to the decision of His Majesty's Government until such time as the Committee proposed by their representatives at the Imperial conference in 1923 had an opportunity of examining the question of the restrictions

odu no the bill was postponed at the ... of the Colonial Secretary. The Government of Kenya was also asked by His Majesty's Government for an explanatory statement regarding the method proposed for the administration of immigration measures. The Government of India received an assurance from the Colonial Secretary that ample opportunities would be afforded for the expression of their views; and that earnest attention would be given to any representation which their Committee desired to make. As has already been stated such a Committee was appointed in March 1924. The following statement made by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on 7th August 1924 shows the result of the representation made by the Colonies Committee:—

"(1) **IMMIGRATION.**—My position is that if danger ever arises of such an influx of immigrants, of whatever class, race, nationality or character, as may likely be prejudicial to the economic interest of the natives, I hold myself entirely free to take any action which may be necessary. Conflicting statistics which have been laid before me have not enabled me to reach a definite conclusion as regards the extent of net Indian immigration. Accordingly steps will be taken to create a statistical department to obtain accurate information with regard to persons of all races arriving in or departing from Kenya. Meanwhile the Kenya Immigration Ordinance will not be enacted.

(2) **FRANCHISE.**—I have given careful consideration to representations in favour of a common poll, but I am not prepared to resist the conclusion already arrived at that in the special circumstances of Kenya, with four diverse communities, each of which will ultimately require electoral representation, the communal system is the best way to secure the fair representation of each and all of these communities.

(3) **HIGHLANDS.**—I consider that the Secretary of State for the Colonies has no alternative but to continue pledges, expressed or implied which had been given in the past, and I can hold out no hope of the policy in regard to agricultural land in the Highlands being reconsidered.

(4) **LOWLANDS.**—It was proposed to reserve an area in the lowlands for agricultural immigrants from India. The Committee made it plain that it is averse from any reservation of land for any immigrant race, subject to the suggestion that before applications for land in lowland areas are invited an opportunity should be taken of sending an officer experienced in Indian settlement and agricultural methods to report on the areas. At present any consideration of the matter is in suspense pending receipt from the colony of reports from the native and agricultural points of view on the areas in question.

(5) **Fiji and British Guiana.**—In certain respects Indians in these colonies are under disabilities. In Fiji, for instance, they are practically excluded from both the political and the municipal franchise. But the Indian population in these colonies belong almost entirely to the labouring classes and their grievances are mainly ... The wages in

to be unduly low and the recent on every day's regard a a n. The e...tra...ions for purposes ve proceeded smoothly. It is also at the number of Indians exempted last year was substantial and there on to anticipate that the policy of ose in whose case it will be a real evy the tax will not be pursued in Wages in both Fiji and British o a large extent dependent on the which is at present buoyant. It le to form a more accurate opinion in Fiji when the papers indicating is in favour of Indians in the Colony een agreed to by the Colonial Office the r presentations by the Colonies the Govt. of India, are published. of the British Guiana deputation ed on the 21st of January 1924. and of the month a deputation from British Guiana, consisting of Sir n, Kt., and the Honourable Mr. Z O, arrived in India to re-affirm of colonisation which these gentle- mitted to a committee of the Im- itive Council in February 1920 and ommittee had generally approved. proper credentials from the Govern- Colony and were authorised to ame before the Government of Indian Legislature for considera- vernment of India agreed to give n facilities to meet the Standing m Emigration of the two Houses Legislature, and this Committee atation, which had, in the mean- omained by Messrs. M. Panday and who respectively represented the Muhammadan sections of the an community, on the 18th and h. The Committee fully discussed with the deputation, but decided ung any recommendations to the of India until their next meeting, lace on the 26th May 1924. On the Committee had also the ad- amming Mr. Tewary, who was one rs of the Committee appointed by ent of India which visited British 1922. After full consideration the igration Committee reported that ould be inclined to view with favour ion scheme put forward by the hey would, before making any de- endation, like the Government of ute an officer to British Guiana

progress made in providing suitable for prospective settlers, the steps to provide such settlers with rials and skilled assistance to up residential accommodation and loans for agricultural develop- and the measures instituted to ove the sanitary conditions of the ay especially in respect of drain- and water supply;

steps, if any, taken by the Gov- ent of British Guiana to provide tics for the repatriation of the

Indian a eady se ed n he oony who are w ng o urn o nd a

- (c) what improvements, if any, have taken place in the political and econo mic status of the resident Ind an community since the earlier In an deputation visited the colony in 1922 and
- (d) sentiments of the Hindu residents in the matter of cremation of their dead

Kunwar Maharaj Singh, M.A., C.I.S., Bar at Law, was deputed to British Guiana for this purpose. He proceeded to that Colony in Sept 1923. His report was received on February 1st and the following notification (No. 240 of the 23rd March 1924) authorising renewal of emigra tion to British Guiana on terms and conditions which were based on the report and approved by the Standing Committee on Emigration was submitted to the two houses of the Legislatures and also approved by them.

(4) Other Parts of the Empire.—In Ceylon, Mauritius, and Malaya, the position of Indians has on the whole been satisfactory, and the matters have gone smoothly. The Govern ment of India have now appointed their own Agents in Ceylon and Malaya. The question or the fixation of a standard minimum wage for Indian state labourers in Ceylon and Malaya has been the subject of negotiations between the Govt. of India and the Colonial Governments ever since the emigration of Indian labour to the Colonies for the purpose of unskilled work was declared lawful in 1923 under the provi sions of the Indian Emigration Act, 1923. So far as Ceylon is concerned a settlement satisfac tory to the Govt. of India and that of Ceylon has been arrived at, i.e. the standard wage and other outstanding questions affecting the inter ests of the labourers and the draft legislation to give effect to it is before the Ceylon Legisla tive Council. In regard to Malaya, the question is still engaging attention.

In April 1924, the Government of Mauritius requested that emigration to the Colony might be continued for a further period of one year, but the Government of India in consultation with the Standing Committee on Emigration decided that consideration of the request should await the results of a local investigation. The Government of Mauritius agreed to receive an officer for the purpose and to give him all facilities; and in December, 1924, an Indian Officer of Government, Kunwar Maharaj Singh, left India to conduct the necessary inquiry

Kunwar Maharaj Singh's report was publish ed by the Government of India in August 1925. The various recommendations made in the report have been commended to the considera tion of the Colonial Government.

In February, 1926, the Government of India received a reply from the Colonial Government stating that they accepted the main conclusion formulated by Kunwar Maharaj Singh in regard to the future of the Indian community in the future.

and a p... in one... the colonial Govt. expressed their willingness to give effect to several of them.

In Australia, a Bill was introduced in the Commonwealth Senate on the 12th June 1925 amending sub-section (5) of section 39 of the Commonwealth Electoral Act, 1918-24, by adding after the word "Asia" the words, "(except British India)." This measure gives the Commonwealth franchise to subjects of British India at present domiciled in Australia and is the fruition of the hopes held out by the Commonwealth Government to Mr. Sastri on the occasion of his visit to Australia in 1922. The Bill was passed by the Senate and under it the Indians will enjoy both the State and Commonwealth franchise throughout Australia except in Queensland and in Western Australia where Indians do not enjoy the suffrage in respect of election for the Lower House.

Emigration to British Guiana.—Emigration to British Guiana for the purpose of unspecified work shall be lawful with effect from such date as the Governor-General in Council may with the concurrence of the Governor of British Guiana notify in the *Gazette of India* on the following terms and conditions, which shall thereupon become operative:—

(1) The family shall be the unit for the purposes of emigration. Not more than 500 families shall be permitted to emigrate and the number of persons included in the said 500 families shall not exceed 1,500.

(2) The emigrants shall either have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of British Guiana, or have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(3) No part of the cost of his recruitment or subsistence during transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana or met from funds at their disposal.

(4) The Government of British Guiana shall, at any time when so desired by the Governor-General in Council, admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(5) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, or if the Agent is absent or unable to perform his duties, the Government of British Guiana shall at the request of the Governor-General in Council appoint a person to perform temporarily the duties of the Agent.

(6) Prior to the arrival of the emigrants a Settlement Commission shall be appointed in British Guiana to select and prepare suitable agricultural land for the emigrants and generally to supervise their employment. The Agent referred to in clause (4) shall, on appointment, be a member of such Commission.

(7) The Government of British Guiana shall offer to each family for his separate enjoyment a holding comprising not less than five acres of

land prepared for cultivation on the terms hereinafter set out in a locality which shall be healthy and shall have an adequate supply of good drinking water. All expenses in connection with the preparation of the holdings shall be borne by the Government or British Guiana and shall in no case be recoverable from an emigrant.

The annual rent of the holding shall be fixed by the Settlement Commission at a rate not exceeding the lowest rate paid in the locality.

After an emigrant has been in occupation of a holding for three years, he shall, provided that he has cultivated a portion of the holding either by himself or through some member of his family, be entitled to a grant of the holding on payment at any time during the ensuing four years of such fees not exceeding 24 dollars as may be fixed by the Settlement Commission.

On the expiry of seven years from the date of the commencement of his occupation of a holding an emigrant shall acquire absolute ownership in the holding provided that he has paid the rent and fees referred to in the foregoing paragraphs of this clause and has brought under cultivation either by himself or by some member of his family half the area of his holding.

(8) An emigrant on arrival in British Guiana shall be housed and maintained without charge by the Government of British Guiana for at least one month.

(9) If any emigrant so requires loans shall be made to him for maintenance, house accommodation, payment of rent and for agricultural purposes generally. Free medical assistance and free skilled supervision shall be provided.

(10) Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of 7 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana.

Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of more than 3 and not more than 5 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana on payment to the Government of British Guiana of half of the cost of his passage from his residence in India to British Guiana.

Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of more than 5 and not more than 7 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana on payment to the Government of British Guiana of quarter of the cost of his passage from his residence in India to British Guiana.

(11) Notwithstanding anything contained in the last preceding clause the Government of British Guiana on the request of an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act shall repatriate at its own expense and without any payment by or on behalf of the emigrant to the place of his former residence in India any emigrant at any time after his arrival in British Guiana.

(12) An emigrant shall be at liberty at any time after his arrival in British Guiana to take up work or employment other than or in addition to the cultivation of a holding on lease from the Settlement Commission.

(13) The ordinance enjoining compulsory education in British Guiana shall be enforced to the same extent in the case of Indian children as in the case of children belonging to other communities.

(14) Boards of arbitration in regard to wages shall be established before the arrival of the emigrants and Indians shall be adequately represented on such boards.

(15) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and is not a British subject shall be required to pay the excess in the cost of his return passage and clothing over the

cost of such passage and clothing at the time of his first arrival in the colony.

(16) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and has at the date of this notification become or thereafter becomes destitute shall be entitled to be repatriated to India at the expense of the Government of British Guiana without being further required to prove that he has become incapable of labour.

(17) The Government of British Guiana shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of the persons emigrating to the Colony in accordance with this notification.

Indians in Great Britain.

More than sixty years have gone by since the Parsi community, in the persons of the late Dadabhai Naorji and other members of the firm of Cama & Co., led the way in the sojourn of Indians in England for business purposes. This lead it has since maintained, though there are both Hindu and Mohammedan business men firmly established there. Nor are the professions unrepresented, for there are in London and elsewhere practising barristers, solicitors and medical men of Indian birth. Three Indians (all belonging to the Parsee community) have sat in the House of Commons. An Indian has served since 1910 on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, and a second Indian (Lord Siva) took his seat there on in 1928. Three Indians are on the Secretary of State's Council. In 1919 Lord Siva was the first Indian to be raised to the peerage and to be appointed a member of the Home Government. In the spring of 1923 Mr. (now Sir) Dadiba Dalai was appointed High Commissioner for India being the first Indian to hold the office. He resigned towards the end of 1924 to be succeeded by Sir Atul Chatterjee, previously a member of the Government of India. The early years of the present century saw the gathering of a new Indian element in permanent residence—that of retired officials and business men, or people of independent means who from preference or in order to have their children educated in England, leave the land of their birth and seldom if ever visit it again. Further, the stream of Indian summer visitors includes wealthy people who come regularly. There is an Indian Social Club, founded in 1912, with Sir M. M. Bhowagagree as president, which arranges for dinners and other functions to celebrate Indian festivals or to honour Indian visitors of special distinction. Sectionally, however, the only Indian community to be fully organised is that of the Parsees. They have an incorporated and well-endowed Parsi Association of Europe, and have established "Zoroastrian House" (163, Cromwell-road, S.W. 5) as a communal centre. A later development of great value in promoting social intercourse and good relation has been the formation of the British-Indian Union, 10 Grosvenor Gardens, S.W. 1, under the presidency

of H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught and with Lord Reading as chairman.

The Indian Pavilion at the British Empire Exhibition in 1924 and 1925 with its gleaming towers and minaret, and its cool, fountain-filled forecourt was one of the most conspicuous and admired architectural features of Wembley; and the great popularity of the section was shown by the crowded state of the more attractive courts day after day. The continuous education of English, Colonial and foreign visitors in regard to the products and artwares of India was of great value and did much to spread a vogue for Indian artistic workmanship. This success led to proposals for a permanent India House in some central position to be the office of the High Commissioner and the Trade Commissioner and where a show of products and artware would replace the small, though choice exhibition of Indian wares at the present office of the High Commissioner for India in Grosvenor-Gardens, S.W. 1.

The Students.

Under normal conditions it is the student community which constitutes the greatly preponderant element and creates an Indian problem. Its numbers multiplied ten or twelve-fold in the quarter of a century before the war. After a very considerable temporary check caused by the Great War the number rapidly expanded from 1919 in spite of pressure on college accommodation. In addition to the ordinary graduate or undergraduate student, there are some youths of good family, including heirs of Native States, admitted into our public schools, such as Eton and Harrow. There are over 300 Indians at the Inns of Court. Since the war there has been a welcome increase in the number of technical and industrial students. Altogether including technical and medical students, there are fully 2,000 young Indians (some five per cent. of their women) in London, Edinburgh, Cambridge, Oxford, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool and a few other centres. London absorbs about half the total.

The Advisers.

It is well known that until a few years ago the young Indian apart from inadequately

supported unofficial effort and the chance of coming under the influence of English friends of their families, were practically left to their own device. But in April 1909 Lord Morley, created for their benefit a Bureau of Information and appointed Dr. (now Sir) P. W. Arnold to the charge of it under the title of Educational Adviser. The Bureau was located at 21, Cromwell-road, together with the National Indian Association and the Northbrook Society, which were thus given spacious quarters for their social work among the young men. (For Burmese students distinct club accommodation is provided, partly by subventions from Indian revenues, in the commodious Albion House, St. Peter's Square, Hammersmith, W. 6.) In India provincial advisory committees exist to help and advise intending students, but in some instances have been replaced by University Committees. The work of the Bureau rapidly expanded, and in consequence Lord Crewe in 1912 re-organised the arrangements under the general charge of a Secretary for Indian students, Mr. (now Sir) C. E. Mallet who resigned at the close of 1918. He was succeeded by Dr. Arnold under the designation of Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State. Mr. N. C. Sen followed Dr. Arnold as Local Adviser in London. At Oxford, the Oriental Delegation, and at Cambridge, the Inter-Collegiate Committee have been instituted to deal with Oriental students generally, whilst Local Advisers for Indian students have been appointed at Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

These arrangements underwent far reaching revision in the autumn of 1920 in connection with the setting up, under the Act of the previous year of a High Commissionership for India in the United Kingdom. The "agency work" Sir William Meyer took over from the Secretary of State included that connected with Indian students. Sir T. W. Arnold accepted an appointment long pressed upon him as Professor of Arabic at the School of Oriental Studies, and the High Commissioner appointed Mr. N. C. Sen and Dr. Thomas Quayle as Joint Secretaries for the Education Department. The administrative work hitherto divided between the India Office and 21, Cromwell-road, was consolidated at the offices of the High Commissioner in Grosvenor-gardens, thereby obviating a good deal of duplication of files and papers.

The whole situation was investigated by a committee of inquiry which sat in 1921 under the chairmanship of Lord Lytton. Arrangements had been made for the Committee to confine their investigations in India in the cold weather of 1921-22, but were abandoned in consequence of the refusal of the Legislative Assembly to vote the necessary grant. This largely accounted for the tentative form of the report of the Committee in 1922. The opinion was expressed that the only permanent solution of the problem is to be found in the development of education in India. Attention was invited to the diminution of the number of Indian students proceeding abroad that would result from giving effect to recommendations made for such development by previous commissions, and by the establishment

of an Indian Bar. The Committee held that it should be possible to secure admission both to British universities and, subject to certain reservations, to the works of manufacturing firms in Great Britain for all Indian students facilities afforded, existed to ensure as best suited to their requirements. Subsequently a committee presided over by Sir Edward Chamberlain recommended the creation of Indian Bars, which should have the effect of much reducing the number of Indians going to the Inns of Court. An Act for the purpose was passed by the Indian Legislature in 1924.

The students have hosts of non-official friends and helpers and the report suggested that there should be a conference of representatives of all organisations interested in the social and intellectual welfare of young Indians in Great Britain to discuss the best means for co-ordinating their efforts. Accordingly the High Commissioner held a conference in July 1925, when plans were formulated to help to meet the needs of students in London. The subject was discussed at a meeting of the Indian Association on July 27, 1925) when a paper was read by Mr. F. H. Brown. The conference came to the conclusion that, since non-official effort admittedly does not meet the need fully the hostel and club at 21, Cromwell-road, was to be enlarged, more particularly to cater for the new comers. A small room at 21, Cromwell-road was established to assist students in obtaining suitable accommodation.

Under the presidency of Lord Hawks an Indian Gymkhana Club in 1921 acquired its own sports ground at Osterley, the total cost of purchase and equipment being estimated at £15,000. Generous gifts were made by some British Princes and others, particularly the Maharaja of Patiala, but further help is required. The cricket eleven of the Club has an excellent record in matches at Lords and the Oval and with suburban clubs.

A notable development of 1920 was the opening of the "Red Triangle" Shakespeare Hut in Bloomsbury, off Gower Street, as a union and hostel for Indian and Ceylonese students up to the number of 500. The hostel was removed to permanent premises 108-112, Gower-street, close to University College in the autumn of 1923. It is Indian both in conception and control, the warden Mr. P. D. Rungtadnan, and committee being responsible not to the National Council of Y. M. C. A. in London but to the Indian National Council in Calcutta. While the organization has a definitely moral and spiritual as well as a social purpose, it is not a proselytising agency. There is a steady average of nearly 600 members and the hostel is exceptionally fortunate in securing the voluntary services of men and women of great distinction in many fields for the regular Sunday afternoon and other lectures. The cost of the hostel is met and the

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta).—Founded 1820. A Class Annual subscription Rs. 32. Entrance fee Rs. 8. B Class Annual subscription Rs. 12. *Secretary*: S. Percy-Lancaster, F.R.S., F.R.H.S., M.R.A.S. 1, Alipore Road, Alipore.

AGRI HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF BURMA.—*Superintendent*, R. F. Cooper, Esq., F.R.H.S.; *Secretary*: C. A. Chinnang. Agri-Horticultural Gardens, Kandawgay, Rangoon.

AGRI HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF MADRAS.—Established 1835. Quarterly subscription for members in Class A Rs. 7, in Class B Rs. 3. *President*, H. E. The Rt. Hon. Viscount Goschen; *Chairman*, The Hon. Justice Sir William Phillips Kt., I.C.S.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. H. A. B. Vernon, I.C.S.; *Hon. Treasurer*, Dewan Bahadur G. Narainaswamy (Chetty Garu, Teynampett, S.W., Madras. *Nursery Superintendent*, Mr. N. Ramalingam Naiker, *Foreman, Ornamental Garden*: Mr. N. Munsawmy Naiker.

ANGLO-INDIAN LEAGUE.—To protect the interests of Anglo-Indians. *President*: Dr. H. W. B. Moreno, Ph.D. *Hon. Secretary*.—Mr. A. McDonald, B.A., B.L. *Hon. Treasurer*: Mr. S. V. Cowen. Office: 2, Wellesley Square, Calcutta.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF BOMBAY.—Founded 1886, to promote the prosecution of Anthropological research in India; to correspond with Anthropological Societies throughout the world; to hold monthly meetings for reading and discussing papers; and to publish a journal containing the transactions of the Society. Annual subscription Rs. 10. *President*, Shams-ul-Ulma Dr. Jivanji Jamsheji Modi, B.A., Ph.D., C.I.E., 172 Hornby Road, Bombay *Hon. Secretary*.—Principal J. Macanuzie, M.A.

BENARES MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1918 for the encouragement and promotion of research in the various branches of Pure and Applied Mathematics, and in the History of Mathematics. It conducts a journal "The Proceedings of the Benares Mathematical Society" in which original papers on Mathematics are published and maintains a library. There are about 60 members from all parts of India. Admission fee Rs. 10. Annual subscription Rs. 12 (resident members) and Rs. 5 (non-resident members). *Patron*: Sir William Marris, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.; *Life President*, Dr. Ganesh Prasad, M.A. (Cantab), D. Sc.; *Secretary*, Prof. Goraakh Prasad, M.Sc.; *Treasurer*, Prof. byamacharan Das, M.A.

BHANDARKAR ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, POONA.—The Institute was inaugurated on the 6th of July 1917, the 80th birthday of late Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, at the hands of H. E. Lord Willingdon, who became its first President. Its objects are to publish critical editions of texts and original works bearing on Oriental Antiquities, to provide an up-to-date Oriental Library, to train students in the methods of research and to act as an information bureau on all points connected with Oriental Studies. The valuable library of the late Dr. Sir R. G. Bhandarkar which he

had bequeathed already to the Institute was handed over after his demise by his executors to the Institute and is now located in the Central Hall of the Institute. Since the 1st of April 1918 the Government of Bombay have transferred to the Institute the unique collection of manuscripts at the Deccan College together with a maintenance grant of Rs. 3,000 a year. Government have likewise entrusted to the Institute a grant of Rs. 12,000 a year for the publication of the Government Oriental Series. The Institute has undertaken to edit the *Mahabharata* critically at the request of the Chief of Aundh who has promised a grant of Rs. 5,000 annually for that purpose. Grants are being received from the University of Bombay, and the Governments of Burma, Baroda and Madras. The Institute has a journal called "Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute" published four times a year. It also held under its auspices the First Oriental Conference on the 5th, 6th and 7th of November 1919 under the patronage of H. E. Sir George Lloyd and the presidency of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar. Owing to liberal donations from the Tatas and the Jain community, the Institute is housed in a fine building near the hills behind the Home of the Servants of India Society. Minimum membership dues Rs. 10 a year or Rs. 100 compounded for life. Members can borrow books from the library, and get the Journal free and other publications at concession rates. *Secretary*: Dr. K. Belvalkar, M.A., Ph.D. (Harvard).

BOMBAY ART SOCIETY.—Founded 1888; to promote and encourage Art by exhibitions of Pictures and Applied Arts, and to assist in the establishment and maintenance of a permanent gallery for pictures and other works of Art. Annual exhibition usually held every January. Annual subscription Rs. 10; Life member: Rs. 100. *Secretary*: S. V. Bhandarkar, Bandra, Bombay.

BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—Founded 1804, to investigate and encourage Oriental Arts, Sciences and Literature. Annual subscription Rs. 60. *Secretary*, Dr. Edward Parker, Town Hall, Bombay.

BOMBAY NATURAL HISTORY SOCIETY.—Founded 1883, to promote the study of Natural History in all its branches. The Society has a membership of about 1,700 and a museum with a representative collection of the different vertebrates and invertebrates found in the Indian Empire and Ceylon. In 1921 the Society was entrusted with the management of the Natural History Section of the Prince of Wales Museum, and a great part of the Society's collections have been transferred to that Museum. A Journal is published quarterly which contains articles on natural history and sport as well as descriptions of new species and local lists of different orders. In the more recent numbers, serial articles on game birds, common snakes, and common butterflies have been appearing. Annual subscription Rs. 25. Entrance fee Rs. 20. *Patrons*, H. E. The Viceroy of India, H. R. H. the Prince of

Wales; Vice-President, L. H. The Maharaja of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.M.I.; H. H. the Maharaja of Jodhpur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., H. H. the Maharaja of Dewa, K.C.S.I., H. H. the Maharaja of Bharat; and Mr. R. V. Lyons, Liverpool; President, H. E. The Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Wilson, P.C., G.C.L.E., G.C.M., D.S.O.; Vice-President, The Hon. Mr. J. E. B. Holson, G.C.S.I., G.C.S., and H. H. the Maharaja of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.L.E., Rev. E. Blatter, B.A., Ph.D., F.R.S.; Honorary Secretary, Sir Kenneth Spence, Kt., F.R.S.; Curator, S. H. Prater, G.C.S.I., Asst. Curator, C. A. McCann; Head Clerk, Mr. A. F. Fernandes; Offices: 8, Apollo Street, Bombay.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY.—Since 1811 the British and Foreign Bible Society has been at work in this country. It has 6 Auxiliaries in India and an Agency in Burma. The first Auxiliary was established in Calcutta, in 1811, then followed the Bombay Auxiliary in 1818, the Madras Auxiliary in 1820, the North India Auxiliary in 1843, the Punjab Auxiliary in 1843, the Bangalore Auxiliary in 1875, while the Burma Agency was founded in 1899. The Bible or some portion of it is now to be had

in nearly 100 different Indian languages and dialects and the circulation throughout India and Burma reached nearly 8,00,000 copies in 1924. The Bibles, Testaments, and Portions in the various vernaculars are sold at rates which the very poorest can pay, and at considerable loss to the Society. Grants of English Scriptures are made to Students who pass University examinations, as under:—

The New Testament and Psalms to Matriculates.

Portions of Scriptures in the important vernaculars have been prepared in raised type for the use of the blind and large grants of money are annually given to the different Missions, to enable them to carry on Colportage and Bible Women's work. Besides the British and Foreign Bible Society, there is Bible work carried on in India and Burma in a much smaller way by the Bible Translation Society—which is connected with the Baptist Missionary Society—the National Bible Society of Scotland, the American Bible Society and the Tranquebar Tamil Bible Society.

The following table shows the growth in the British & Foreign Bible Society's work during the past few years in India and Burma:—

TABLE OF CIRCULATION OF THE B.F.B.S. IN INDIA.

Auxiliaries.	1925.	1924.	1923.	1922.
Calcutta	122,781	107,084	148,028	111,567
Bombay	164,820	161,263	132,608	181,338
Madras	288,371	215,247	281,681	249,878
Bangalore	30,315	99,088	45,009	35,868
North India	183,238	144,980	191,692	169,991
Punjab	81,593	81,791	67,573	71,369
Burma	71,228	63,472	65,833	68,308
Total copies of Scriptures ..	812,446	732,365	881,516	866,278

These returns do not include the copies which any Auxiliary has supplied to London or to other Auxiliaries and agencies during the year.

BRITISH INDIAN PROPRIETORS' ASSOCIATION.—To protect the interests of Domestic Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Indians alike. President: Raja Rishie Case Law, C.L.E., M.L.C. Joint Hon. Secretary: Dr. H. W. B. Moreno, M.D. Office: 2, Wellesley Square, Calcutta.

BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION (Bombay Branch).—Founded 1886, to promote Medical and the Allied Sciences and the maintenance of the honour and interests of the Medical Profession.

BOMBAY MEDICAL UNION.—Founded 1883 to protect the interests of the Medical Profession and to promote the advancement of the Medical Profession.

medical profession in Bombay. The entrance fee for Resident members Rs. 5, monthly subscription Rs. 2. Absent members Re. 1, and non-resident members yearly subscription Rs. 5. Hon. President, Dr. V. Banjekar; Hon. Vice-Presidents, Dr. S. H. Banker and Dr. Deshmukh; Hon. Librarians, Dr. S. Popat and Dr. Lam, M.C.; Hon. Treasurer, Dr. P. T. Patel; and Hon. Secretaries, Dr. S. P. Kapadia and J. E. Spencer, Top Floor, Alice Building, Hornby Road, Bombay.

BOMBAY SANITARY ASSOCIATION.—Founded to create an educated public opinion with regard to sanitary matters in general; (b) to diffuse the knowledge of sanitation and hygiene generally; and of the prevention of

the spread of disease amongst all classes of people by means of lectures, leaflets and practical demonstrations and, if possible, by holding classes and examinations; (c) to promote sanitary science by giving prizes, rewards or medals to those who may by diligent application add to our knowledge in sanitary science by original research or otherwise; (d) to arrange for homely talk or simple practical lectures for mothers and girls in the various localities and different chawls, provided the people in such localities or chawls give facilities. The Sanitary Institute Building in Princess Street, which has lately been built by the Association, at a cost of nearly Rs. 1,00,000 the foundation stone of which was laid by Lady Willingdon in March, 1914, and opened in March, 1915, is a large and handsome structure with a large Lecture Hall, Library, Museum, etc., and also provides accommodation for King George V. Anti-Tuberculosis League Dispensary transferred to the Municipality in 1924 and Museum and the office of the Assistant Health Officer, C and D Wards and the Vaccination Station. *Hon. Secretary*, Dr. J. B. Sandilands, M.C., M.A., *Executive Health Officer*, Bombay.

JAIPUR CHESS SOCIETY.—To encourage Chess and Chess contests, open to all. *President*:—The Hon'ble Mr. Justice M. N. Mukerji, M.A., B.L. *Vice-President*:—Dr. H. W. R. Moreno. *Hon. Secretary*: D. Dhari; *Hon. Treasurer*: D. B. Guosh.

EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION.—The European Association was established in 1883 under the title of the European and Anglo-Indian Defence Association and was re-established in 1912 under the title of the European Defence Association, but the present title was adopted in 1913. The Association has for its major object the organisation of European influence in the political life of India. The Head Offices (Central Administration) are at 17, Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta; *President*, Mr. J. Langford James. *Vice-Presidents*, Mr. E. G. Dixon, O.B.E., and Mr. T. D. Edleston; *General Secretary*, Colonel J. D. Crawford, D.S.O., M.C., M.L.A., *Asst. General Secretary*, Miss L. I. Lloyd; *Hon. General Treasurer*, Mr. C. G. T. Wilson. *Publications*, "The European Review," ed. by the Association, from the General Secretary.

BRANCHES OF THE EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION.

ASSAM, CINCHANARA P. O.—*Honorary Secretary*, Mr. W. F. Nicholson.
BENGAL (EASTERN), NABAYANGANJ.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. G. Macartney; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. N. J. Scott.
BENGAL (WESTERN), ARANBOL.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. H. Goldworthy; *Hon. Secretary*, Mrs. Goldworthy.
BIHAR (NORTH), MOZUFFERSHIRE.—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr. K. L. Mackenzie, M.L.C.
BOMBAY.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. Blunt; *Secretary*, Mr. A. W. Wisc.
BUHMA, RANGOON.—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. S. Clark.
CACHAR, CHANDRABATIPTUR.—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr. T. A. Sverard.

CALCUTTA.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. W. K. Page; *Secretary*, Miss L. I. Lloyd.
CHITTAGONG.—*Chairman*, Mr. R. L. Bliss, *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. W. G. Gills.
DARJEELING.—*Chairman*, Major J. O. Little; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. R. S. Hutcheson.

DELHI.—At present administered by the Central Administration.—All communications should be addressed to the General Secretary 17, Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta.

DODARS, MARLEH P. O.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. L. Travers, O.B.E., M.L.C.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. L. Shaw.

JAMSHEDPUR.—*Chairman*, Mr. F. C. Temple; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. J. M. Smith.

KANKANABA, NABATI.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. Bell; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. D. Leitch.
K. M. MacDougall—*Chairman*, Mr. J. G. M. Bathgate; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. P. M. M. M.

MOULMAIN.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. A. W. Dawa; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. S. C. Jones.

PUNJAB, LAHORE.—*Chairman*, Mr. Owen Roberts; *Hon. Secretary*, Capt. W. J. Kirby.

RAJPUTANA, AJMER.—*Chairman*, Mr. F. Stewart; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. B. S. B. Gow.

SIND, KARACHI.—*Chairman*, Mr. A. J. Ede; O.B.E.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. Jacob.

STYBLE, LUNGLA P. O.—*Chairman*, Mr. A. Bell; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. P. Sinclair.

UNITED PROVINCES, CANNORE.—*Chairman*, Mr. A. H. Silver, C.I.E.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. J. W. Fletcher.

INDIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE CULTIVATION OF SCIENCES (Calcutta).—*Honorary Secretary*, Prof. C. V. Raman, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., 210, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta.

INDIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1924 with Sir P. ... Professor J. N. ... Road, Calcutta, ... members of the Council, Dr. A. B. Normand (Wilson College) and Dr. A. N. Meldrum (Royal Institute of Science). Bombay Branch of the Indian Chemical Society. *President*: Dr. A. N. Meldrum; *Vice-Presidents*: Dr. A. B. Normand and Rev. Fr. J. F. Calus. *Joint Secretaries*: Dr. Mata Prasad and Mr. R. N. Bhagwat. *Treasurer*: K. B. Dr. A. K. Turner. *Members of the Executive Committee*: Dr. S. A. Kamat, Dr. N. F. Vajifdar and Mr. K. J. M. Hudson.

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.—Founded on 30th March 1917 to promote a systematic study of political and social science in general and Indian political and social problems in particular in all their aspects taking the terms 'political' and 'social' in their widest sense, to organise free and well-informed discussions on current political and social topics as well as on abstract political and social questions; to formulate considered views on current political and social questions; to publish literature and make representations from time to time on questions arising or necessary to be raised.

In the interest of the public; and to form and maintain a library for the promotion of the above objects. Office: Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Girgaum, Bombay. *President*, K. Natarajan, Esq., B.A., *Secretaries*, Dr. B. K. Ambekar, D.Sc. (Econ.), London, Bar-at-Law, and Mr. C. S. Deole, B.A.

INDIAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1907 for the advancement of Mathematical studies in India. It conducts a bi-monthly journal in which papers on mathematical subjects are published and maintains a library with current mathematical periodicals in all languages and new books on the subject. The library is located in the Fergusson College, Poona, whence the journals and books are circulated to members by post. The journal of the Society is published in Madras. There are about 225 members from all parts of India. *President*, V. Ramaswami Aiyar, M.A., Deputy Collector, Chittoor. *Secretaries*, Prof. M. T. Naraniengar, Bangalore and P. N. M. Shah, Poona. *Librarian*, Prof. Naik, Poona.

INDIAN SOCIETY OF ORIENTAL ART (Calcutta).—*President*, Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, K.C.I.E.; *Vice-President*, Mr. O. C. Ganguly, Solicitor, Editor "Rupam"; *Joint Hon. Secretaries*, C. W. E. Cotton, and G. N. Tagore; *Assistant Secretary*, P. Chatterjee, Hon. Treasurer, Rai Fandran Lal De. Bahadur. Office—6A, Corporation Street, Hindusthan Buildings, First-floor, Calcutta.

INDIA SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.—The India Sunday School is an interdenominational organisation having as its object the establishment and strengthening of Christian Sunday Schools throughout the Indian Empire. It embraces a number of Auxiliaries, which are generally associated with particular language areas. Both in the local Unions and in the Central organisation, help is given by foreign and Indian workers of almost all denominations.

The I. S. S. U. was founded in Allahabad in 1876, and reorganised in 1922. Its General Committee is made up of the officers, representatives of the National Christian Council, the Auxiliary Unions, and the World's Sunday School Association, and workers in India appointed by the W. S. S. A. Funds are liberally provided for the support of by the British Committee of the W. S. S. A. and by the International Bible Reading Association. The Headquarters of the Union is in Coonoor. A Teacher Training Institution was opened in 1926, in Coonoor, Nilgiris.

The chief activities of the Union are—(1) The publication and sale of literature in English and various vernaculars, dealing with old study, religious training, lesson courses and teacher's helps. (2) The training of teachers by means of lecture courses and help in private study. (3) The arrangement of examinations in English and vernaculars in connection with the various courses provided, for which certificates, medals and Scripture awards are given. (4) The encouragement of Daily Bible Reading as an aid to the spiritual life. (5) The encourage-

ment of teachers and other workers by means of conventions and conferences in connection with the Teacher's Hands of Mr. E. A. ... Coonoor.

The Union publishes the following quarterly periodicals in English:—

Notes for Teachers of Junior Scholars on the Brit. International Course; Notes for Teachers of Senior Scholars on the Amer. International Course; and a Journal for Teachers containing reports, articles and reviews.

Approximately 15,000 schools, with 600,000 scholars and 20,000 teachers, are touched by these activities.

The Officers of the Union are—*President*, Bishop J. W. Robinson, M.E., Church, Delhi; *Treasurer*, W. B. Warren, Madras; *General Secretary*, E. A. Annett, Coonoor.

INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS (INDIA).—The organisation of the Institution commenced in 1919 and it was inaugurated by H. E. Lord Chelmsford early in 1921. Its object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in India on the same lines as are adopted by the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers in the United Kingdom. The standard of qualification is the same. Membership is divided into three classes, viz., Members, Associate Members and Associates, and there is an additional class for students. *President*, W. H. Neilson, C.B.E., V.D., *Secretary*, F. Powell Williams. *Offices*—8, Esplanade Row, East P. O. Box 669, Calcutta.

MADRAS FINE ARTS SOCIETY.—*Patron*, H. E. the R.E. Hon. Viscount Goschen; *President*, The Hon. Mr. Justice E. H. Wallace; *Secretary*, W. Brian Smith. Presidency College, Madras.

MADRAS LITERARY SOCIETY AND AUXILIARY OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—*Secretary*, G. W. Bromhead, Esq., "Ardesley," High Road, Nungun Bakam.

NATIONAL HORSE BREEDING AND SHOW SOCIETY OF INDIA.—Formed in 1923. Objects: To form a national body of public opinion on horse-breeding matters; to encourage and promote horse-breeding in India; to protect and promote the interests of horse-breeders and to give them every encouragement; to improve and standardise the various types of horses bred in India; to prepare an Indian stud book; and to promote uniformity in all matters connected with horse shows in India. *Patron*, H. E. The Viceroy; *President*, Colonel E. Hearle Cole, C.B., C.M.G., Cochin District, Punjab; *Secretary*, Major-General Sir Bernard James, C.B., C.I.C., M.V.O. *Registered Office*—Remount Camp, Kingsway, Delhi.

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.—Founded in 1870. Its objects are:—(a) To extend in England, knowledge of India, and interest in the people of that country. (b) To co-operate with all efforts made for advancing Education and Social reform in India. (c) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India. In all the proceedings

of the Association the principle of non-interference in religion and avoidance of political controversy is strictly maintained. It has branches in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Calcutta, Rangpur and Lahore. *Hon. Secretary*, Miss Beck, 21, Cromwell-road, London. Publication, *The Indian Magazine and Review*, a monthly Journal which chronicles the doings of the Association in England and in India, and takes note of movements for educational and social progress. It publishes articles about the East to interest Western readers, and articles about the West to interest readers in the East. *Life Members*—Ten Members, one shilling; *Life Members*—Six pence.

PASSENGERS' AND TRAFFIC RELIEF ASSOCIATION. (Established in 1915). *Head Office*—189, Meadows Street, Fort, Bombay. *Objects*: (a) To inquire into and ascertain grievances with respect to passengers in India generally. (b) To take all proper steps to obtain redress with regard to the same grievances. (c) To hold periodical meetings and discuss questions relating to grievances. (d) To start branch offices throughout India, and to affiliate societies and bodies having objects similar to this Association. (e) To start a fund to meet expenses for carrying out the objects of the Association. *President*—Meyer Nissim Esquire, M.A., *Vice-Presidents*—J. R. Fairsee, Esquire, B.A., Ishchandras Daga, Esquire. *Hon. Secretaries*—Jivraj G. Nenscy, Esquire, Khan Bahadur P. E. Ghamat, *Assistant Secretary*—Pestonji Jamsetji, Esquire.

HILATELIO SOCIETY OF INDIA.—Formed March 1897; Annual subscription Rs. 15. *Secretary*—Jno. Godinho, 15, Burrow's Street, Bombay.

PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta).—Annual subscription Rs. 80 (Town Members) and Rs. 15 (Mofussil members). Entrance fee Rs. 20 and Rs. 10. The Society is affiliated to the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain, London and holds annual exhibitions distributes a monthly journal to members, and undertakes developing, printing and enlarging work from its members only. There are excellent work-rooms apparatus and reading room at the Society's Headquarters at 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta. *Hon. Secretary*: A. Hearn, 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

POONA SEVA SADAN SOCIETY.—This Institution was started in 1909 by the late Mrs. Ramabai Ranade, Mr. G. K. Dadvadhar and a few other ladies and gentlemen in Poona and registered in 1917. It is now working independently though for a few years in the beginning it was conducted as a branch of the Bombay Seva Sadan. Its main object is to make women self-reliant and to train them for missionary work undertaking educational and medical activities for their sisters and brethren, especially the former in backward areas and working on a non-sectarian basis. Nominal fees are being charged for

except for the Music Classes, for Special Classes in English, and for High school classes etc. There are eight different departments subdivided into 57 classes. arrangements are made for training Nurses and Midwives and women Sub-Assistant Surgeons at the Sassoon Hospital, Poona, and a hostel is maintained for the former and two for those attending the Sub-Assistant Surgeon's Classes. The number in these three hostels is now about 85 to 90. Besides there is a full-fledged Training College named after Bai Mothibai Wadia with about 100 students for being trained as Mistresses for Vernacular schools. This College is probably the only college in India maintained by a non-official, non-Christian missionary body teaching the full course. The results of the Certificate Examinations held in the year 1926-27 under the authority of the local Government Training College for Women were as follows: old II year 13, and I year senior 2. The total number of certificates granted so far is 335 now. The Practising School for little girls attached to the Training College has now eleven classes with 203 students reading up to the Marathi VI Standard, English being taught in the top three standards. Primary Classes for grown up women teaching up to the Marathi V Standard are attended by about 150 women. It is here that poor women are recruited for training as a teacher, nurse, midwife, or doctor. Special classes for teaching English, First Aid, Home Nursing were attended by about 60 students; the Music Classes by 118 students, and the Work-room Classes for teaching Sewing, Embroidery, Hosiery and Weaving by 155 women. Thus, the total number of pupils is 908 to-day. There are two branches of the Society started at Satara and Baramati which named after Lady Vithaldas Thakersey, the wife of the greatest helper of the Society so far, the late Sir Vithaldas D. Thakersey. Besides there are branches started at Bombay, Sholapur, Ahmednagar, Alibab, Nasik, Nagpur, Gwalior for either educational or medical work or for both. Thus the total number of women and girls including 150 duplications on the rolls at these various Centres of the Society is nearly 1,419. There are in Poona six hostels, three of which are located at the headquarters and the other three in the Raste's Peth and the Somwar Peth for Nurses, etc., under training at the Sassoon Hospital. The number of resident students is above 250 in these six hostels. One of the three hostels at the headquarters is intended for women of depressed classes. The medical branch a Committee has been formed in England, which will enable the Society to send fully qualified Nurses there to undergo further training. There is an active Infant Welfare centre and ante-natal clinics with the average daily attendance of 50 expectant mothers. The Society is extending its medical activities by undertaking, with the help of two charitable Trusts in Bombay to work out the scheme of Maternity, Infant Welfare, Child Welfare and General nursing for the women and children of the Bhatia Community under the supervision of Mr. G. K. the organiser of the scheme. This

science has a Maternity Hospital and Nursing Home, and three Infant Welfare centres. Besides, three Maternity Hospitals and Nursing Homes at Ahmednagar and Alibad under the management of the society in connection with other organizations. Now Her Excellency the Countess of Reading, Lady Wilson, Lady Lloyd, Lady Willington, Lady Evelynham and Lady Chalmers are Hon. Patronesses. The institution is largely dependent upon public contributions and Government assistance. The annual expenditure roughly comes up to Rs. 2,50,000. *President*: Shrimant Soubharyaraj the Ranisabab of Sangli; *Honorary Organizer and General Secretary*: Mr. Gopal Krishna Devadhar, M.A., C.I.E.; *Local Secretary and Treasurer*: Mrs. Yamunabai Bhat; *Lady Superintendent and Secretary for Development and Collections*: Mrs. Jawahar Bhat (Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal); *Hon. Secretary, Nursing and Medical Education Committee*: Rao Bahadur Dr. P. V. Shikhar, M.B.S. (on leave). Dr. V. G. Gokhale, M.B. & S. and Dr. N. L. Ranade, B.A., M.B.S. (acting).

PRESS-OWNERS' ASSOCIATION, Bombay.—Started on 30th April 1919 to promote the interests of the printing and litho presses and allied trades, to bring about harmony and co-operation among press owners and proprietors and to take such steps as may be necessary in furtherance of the above objects.

Office:—Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Bombay 4.

President:—Shet Pandurang Javjee.

Secretaries:—Mr. C. S. Deole, B.A. and Mr. Manilal C. Modi.

RANGOON LITERARY SOCIETY.—*President*, H.E. The Governor of Burma. *Hon. Secretary*, Mrs. C. Peacock, 17, York Road.

RECREATION CLUB INSTITUTE.—This Institution was started in 1912-13 by the members of the Ismaili Dhamic (religious) Library in Bombay. Its central office is in Bombay with branches at Ahmedabad, Ahmednagar, Karachi, Hyderabad (Sindh), Poona, Warangal, etc. The aims and objects of the society are to elevate and improve the social, economic and spiritual condition of the depressed and poor classes of people and with that intent to found primary schools, associations and such departments and to take all constructive means to achieve the above objects. The Institute has 2 orphanages with 150 inmates, industrial works, domestic industries, sales depots, clubs, libraries, etc. It also issues two Anglo-Vernacular papers, *The Ismaili* (a weekly) and *The Nuzri* (a monthly). *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. Hassan Latif Devraj.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, INDIAN SECTION.—This Society was founded in London in 1754. Its recently published history by Sir Henry Trueman Wood, late Secretary of the Society, gives the following account of the Indian Section. In 1857, a proposition was made by Mr. Hyde Clarke, who wrote to the Council suggesting that "a special section be formed for India, another

for Australia, one for English, America and so on." It was suggested that the Indian Section should meet once a fortnight for the reading of papers. Nothing came of the suggestion until ten years later when Mr. Hyde Clarke returned to England, and in 1868 he renewed his proposal, but only proposing the formation of a Committee which should organise conferences on Indian subjects. This time the suggestion was taken up more warmly. Mr. Hyde Clarke himself was placed on the Council, and the Indian Conferences, which soon developed into the Indian Section, were started. "The Indian Section thus established became a most important department of the Society. It has had great results in India by spreading information as to the directions which the development of Indian manufactures and Indian products could most usefully take, and in England by giving similar information as to the industrial resources and progress of India itself. The Section has received great help from the Indian press and it has in return been of service to the Indian press in supplying useful information to it."

It has been of great value to the Society itself as the means by which many members have been added to its list, so that in fact, thanks to a very large extent to the work of the Indian Section, the allied section for the "reproduction of the dependencies of the Empire abroad." *Secretary of the Society*: G. K. Mazumdar, M.A.; *Secretary of the Indian and Dominions and Colonies Sections*: W. Perry, B.A., I.C.S. (retired), 18, John Street, Adelphi, London, W. C. 2.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY.—The Servants of India Society which was founded by the late Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale, C.I.E., in 1906, has its headquarters in Poona and its objects are "to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote by all constitutional means the true interests of the Indian people." Its government is vested in the first member or President and a Council. On the death of Mr. Gokhale in February, 1916, the Right Hon'ble Mr. V. B. Srinivasa Sastri was elected President and continues to hold the office being duly re-elected thrice. Besides the headquarters, it has at present four branches, viz., (1) in Bombay, (2) in Madras, (3) in the United Provinces, (4) in the Central Provinces. Moreover, it has several additional centres of its activities under the branches such as, Calicut, Mangalore, Lucknow, Lahore and Ontack in Orissa. Each Branch consists of ordinary members, members under training and permanent assistants who work under the direction of a Senior Member. Mr. N. M. Joshi, a nominated member of the Legislative Assembly, representing labour interests. The branches engage both in propagandist and active work of political, educational, social, rural credit co-operative and philanthropic character in which they secure the help of a large number of voluntary workers, both men and women. A fair idea of the work of a branch can be had from a brief description of the operations of the Bombay Branch whose mem-

have so far undertaken activities in various fields. (1) Social purity like the Hobba Sammelan of Bombay, (2) Social reform organization under the auspices of the Indian National Social Conference, (3) rousing public opinion about elementary education, (4) promotion of the cause of elevation and education of Indian women by building up institutions like the Poona Seva Sadan, with 1,045 (including duplications of about 150) women and girl pupils in nearly 55 classes of its 8 departments and five hostels in the city. Mr. G. K. Devadhar, M.A., is its Hon. Organiser and General Secretary. (5) Social service as carried out by the Social Service League of Bombay of which Mr. N. M. Joshi, B.A., is the Honorary General Secretary. (6) Co-operative movement in Bombay. The Co-operative movement in Bombay, started for the first time in 1907, has now grown to a number over 35 with a total membership of over 1,800, capital of nearly three lakhs and a total turn-over of five lakhs per year. Nineteen of these societies which are in Bombay for poor labouring classes are so conducted as to free their members entirely from their chronic indebtedness. Their membership of the latter group consists of sweepers, scavengers, milk-bands numbering above 550 and debt amounting to nearly three lakhs of rupees have been cleared off. Moreover, educational work was organized by starting a Co-operative Quarterly and by starting a Co-operative Secretaries' Training Class in Bombay for 60 Secretaries from the various districts for three years. These are now transferred to the Central Co-operative Institute, Bombay, of which Mr. G. K. Devadhar is now the Vice-President. These three experiments on such a scale were the first of their kind in India. (7) relief work connected with wide-spread epidemics by organizing the Plague Relief Committee of Poona, which succeeded in making inoculation popular in the Deccan, the Salambra Fire Relief Committee which arrange for the relief to sufferers for five years and by undertaking a scheme of non-official relief during the famines of 1907-08 and 1914 in the United Provinces, the famine in Gujarat and Kathiawar of 1911-12 and the famine of 1913 in the district of Ahmednagar, and that of 1918-1919 in Gujarat and the Deccan, and in 1920 in Orissa near Puri. (8) Induza relief was well organized by members of these associations in Bombay and Poona. Since the outbreak of the Malabar Rebellion in August 1921 the members of the Society organised the work of relief which was administered with the help of outside organizations like the Poona Seva Sadan, the Y. M. C. A., etc., and in collecting funds from all over the country especially Bombay. Thus from all over the country substantial help to the extent of nearly Rs. 3,50,000 was collected. For the first six months about 19 camps with nearly 27,000 men, women and children of all castes and creeds were maintained very efficiently and during the later six months thousands of

Hindu and Moplah families were supported in their villages in the disturbed and the strayed parts of the district of Malabar. This work was closed in the beginning of October 1922. Mr. G. K. Devadhar as Vice-President of the Malabar Central Relief Committee directed the work on behalf of the Servants of India Society. In 1924 the Society organised the South Indian Flood Relief Central Fund in Bombay with a view to giving relief to the poor people, especially the Panchamas, who had suffered from unprecedented floods in the districts of Malabar, Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Tanjore, and the Indian States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin. Mr. G. K. Devadhar is the Hon. General Secretary and Treasurer and Mr. C. S. Desai, one of the Hon. Secretaries of the fund. The distribution of relief was carried on with the help of Y. M. C. A. workers in the different districts. (9) organizing public opinion on the question of Indians in South Africa, (10) its political work is conducted strictly on constitutional lines and thus it was able to start District Congress Committees in several wards of the city of Bombay. These conducted a political quarterly. (11) It started in Bombay an organization called the Indian Economic Society with a view to promoting the study of Indian economics on right lines and also conducted a vernacular class. (12) A new association called the Indian Liberal Club has been started to carry on political propaganda. It is now re-organized as Institute of Economics and Politics. Besides, the society was engaged in conducting a scheme of welfare work to supply cheap grain, cheap cloth and cheap credit at Jamshedpur. Mr. K. J. Chitalla, one of its Members, has started a Gujarati ladies' organization called the Bhagini Samaj for work among women in Gujarat and Kathiawar. Mr. A. V. Thakkar has started in the District of Panch Mahals in Gujarat a mission for the improvement of the Khil population and it is called the *Bhil Seva Mandal*. The Society also takes active interest in the organization of labour movement in India. Two of its Members, Messrs. N. M. Joshi and R. R. Bakhale, are conducting a labour monthly, called the "All-India Trade Union Bulletin," which has been recognized as the official organ of the All-India Trade Union Congress. Quite recently the United Provinces Branch organized a band of volunteers who rendered assistance, in a manner that called forth general approbation, to the pilgrims at the Kumbha Mela in Harwar and Allahabad, the ladies of the Poona Seva Sadan assisting in this work. The Society engages in journalistic work also, having in its control the *Hindustan*, an English weekly in Nagpur, and the *Dnyan Prakash*, a Marathi daily and weekly in Poona. The Society has been conducting, with Mr. Vaze as editor, an English weekly called *The Servant of India*. The U. P. Branch had in addition undertaken the publication of pamphlets on public questions and has sent out three such publications together with a

at a distance of 100 miles from the local sea. The Madras Branch engages itself principally with co-operative organization, publishing in three languages co-operative Bulletin, Co-operative Industrial Societies and the Social Service League notices in the city of Madras. In 1934 it did the work of distributing relief to the refugees in the flooded areas of the Madras Presidency. The expenses incurred by the Central Home of the Society in Poona its four branches together with the various co-operative working under them exceed Rs. 85,000 a year and the amount is made up by contributions from Indians, rich as well as poor. The present number of workers enlisted by the Society is about 84, most of whom are University men of considerable standing. Besides, there is a large number of devoted associates and co-workers—men as well as women—connected with the institutions started by the members of the Society.

President.—The Right Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivas Sastry, B.A., LL.B., Rajapetia Madras Senior Member, Madras Branch. Mr. Gopal Krishna Venkatar, M.A., Vice-President of the Society and the Senior Member, Bombay Branch. Mr. Natchi Arumugam, M.A., Senior Member, Central Provinces Branch. Mr. Hindaynath Krishna Rao, B.A., Senior Member, Upper India Branch; Mr. A. V. Potwardhan, B.A., Senior Member, Dindia Branch, Poona. Messrs. Jeshi, Yaze and Pathkar together with the senior members of Branches constitute the Council of the Society. Mr. A. M. Rao, Mr. Natchi Arumugam, M.A., is the Secretary of the Society. Six years ago, nearly all students who were admitted as students under training, in 1923 and 1924, 100 members were admitted as members under training and one young man, an M.A., to probation.

SEVA SABHA.—The Seva Sabha Society was started on the 15th of June 1902, by the late Mr. B. M. Mahabadi. It is the pioneer Indian ladies' society for training Indian sisters in domestic and serving (through them) the poor, the sick and the distressed. The Society has its headquarters in Guntur, Bombay. The Society organizes the following departments of work: (1) Home for the Repulse; (2) Asylums (Training Home); (3) Maternity Home; (4) Home Education Class; (5) Industrial Department including a workroom, sewing, knitting, embroidery, lace-making, fancy handicrafts and vegetable flowers are among the chief industries taught. Total number of women in the different classes is nearly 150.

Secretary.—Mrs D. A. Engineer, M.A., M.L.A. M.B., J.P.

CONSUMPTIVES' HOME SOCIETY.—This Society was started by the late Mr. B. M. Mahabadi and Mr. Jayarama Chinnai on the 1st of June 1905. It was registered under Act XXI of 1880. Mr. Mahabadi secured a large grant of land in a Mahabadi pine forest in Dharanpur (Simla Hills) from H. H.

to consumptives His Highness also gave a donation of Rs. one lakh. In 1911 by special grant from the Government was named "The Bhai Bhai Vaid Sanatorium." The Sanatorium has its special water works known as the Lady Harding Water Works, presented by the Late Sir Chandra Mahabadi, Part of Ahmedabad. The Sanatorium has a 1000 beds; The Nishwan and Guest Home for visitors to Dharanpur. It has accommodation for 72 patients including the special Punjab Block built from a grant of the Punjab Government and nearly 400 for European patients. Most of the blocks and cottages are built by Indians. The Sanatorium has its own staff and a school. The Principal is Mr. Patrick Dwyer. The Recreation Hall is called "The Sir Chander Singh Recreation Hall" after the name of the Maharaja of Patiala. Mr. Mahabadi collected an Endowment Fund of about Rs. 67,000 lodged with the Trustee, Charitable Endowments under Act VI of 1880. Nearly Rs. 2,45,000 have been spent on laying out the site, building, etc., and the current annual expenditure is about Rs. 12,000. The Senior and Junior Medical Officers are in charge of the Sanatorium. The Office of this Society is situated at the Seva Sabha Building, Guntur, Bombay. Mr. K. S. Wadgaonkar is the Hon. Secretary and Mr. K. M. Jhaeri is the Hon. Treasurer.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN IN WATERBURY.—Office and Home at King's Circle, Matunga.

Founded.—To prevent the public and private wrongs of children and the corruption of their minds; to take action for the improvement of the law for their protection, and, if necessary, to suggest new laws or amendments of the existing laws; to provide and maintain an organization for these objects; to promote education; and to do all other lawful things incidental or conducive to the attainment of the foregoing objects. Subscription for annual membership, Rs. 10; for Life Membership, Rs. 100. **President.**—Dr. Sir Amarnath B. Sarman, Kt.

Honorary Secretaries. Dr. Mrs. D. A. De Monte, Mr. R. P. Masani, M.A., Mr. Kishiram B. Vaid, M.A. and Mr. J. G. Modi, M.A. **Hon. Treasurer.** Khan Sahib R. S. Kaurak.

THEOLOGICAL EDUCATIONAL TRUST.—This Society was established in 1913 and stands for the education of Indian boys and girls, in which the physical, intellectual, intellectual and religious welfare are equally attended to. The general educational policy of the Trust is embodied in "Principles of Education" by Dr. Besant. The trust schools and colleges maintained are (1) Theological school and College at Akur (Residential and Co-educational); (2) Theological College at Mangalore; (3) Theological School for Boys at Dindia; (4) Theological College for Women at Dindia. It is under contemplation to open a Uttar Residential University at Mangalore and apply for a charter. **President.** Dr. Anuk Besant; **Secretary.** Mr. Yashwanth Prasad; **Treasurer.** Mr. A. Schwitz. **Headquarters** are at Dindia.

Amritsar; Delhi; Jaipur; Madras; Mumbai; Raisalpur; Trivandrum. The others use rented or rent-free buildings.

The work of the National Council and of the local Association is carried on by numerous voluntary workers and Committees, assisted by 11 specially trained full-time Secretaries. A feature of the Y. M. C. A. in India is the international character of its Secretariat. It is made up of 14 Americans, 4 Canadians, 21 Englishmen, 2 Scotchmen, 1 Swiss, 2 Anglo-Indians and 65 Indians and Chinese.

The classes of people reached by the Indian Y. M. C. A. and the lines of service it attempts to do for them may be stated as follows:—

Generally:—1. Literature.—Publication of original works and reprints. Four series: "Heritage of India"; "Religious Quest of India"; "Religious Life of India"; "Makers of Modern India."

2. **Literary Bureau**—Many thousands of slides on a wide variety of educational and recreational topics serving a clientele in over 700 centres in India.

3. **Physical Training**—Physical Directors for schools and colleges, fostering playground movement, Olympics.

4. **British Army Work** in a number of centres and especially on the N. W. Frontier.

Boys:—Scouting, Boys' Clubs, Camps, etc.

Students:—Hotels and Institutes in most University Centres.

Indian students in Britain:—Specially in London, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

"Citizens":—(i.e. Ceylonese and Malayan, etc.) Study-Circles handling many subjects of vital interest—social, intellectual and religious.

Rural Reconstruction:—In 4 selected centres where demonstrations are given in cottage industries, poultry farming, work-keeping, etc.

Soldiers:—Institutes and Holiday Homes.

Anglo-Indians:—Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux.

Europeans:—Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux.

Labourers in Mills:—"Welfare" Work.

Indians in Exile:—

Rural Communities:—"Rural Reconstruction" work embracing co-operative banking, distribution, cattle insurance and arbitration, cottage industries, and Adult Education.

A monthly magazine, the **YOUNG MAN OF INDIA**, is issued at Rs. 5 per annum, including postage.

The work of the National Council (excluding that of the 176 local Y.M.C.A.s) calls for a Budget of Rs. 2,10,415 in 1927. Of this sum, Rs. 70,000 has to be raised from the public in India.

The Headquarters of the National Council is 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The offices are:—

Patron:—His Excellency Baron Irwin of Kirby-Underdale, P.C., G.C.S.I., C.C.I.F. Viceroy and Governor-General of India.

Chairman of the Executive:—The Hon'ble Sir Ewart Greaves, Kt., M.A., Bar-at-Law.

General Secretaries:—K. T. Paul, O.B.E. and Dr. S. K. Dutta.

The Donkey Association now possesses four well-furnished buildings:—Wodehouse Road, Landington Road, Richey Street and Reynolds Road. The President is Mr. W. H. Neilson G.M.B., M.P.C.B., and the General Secretary is Mr. H. W. Bryant, M.P.C.B. In connection

is also Welfare Work on mountains in Nagaland. Secretary, W. E. D. Ward. There is also Physical Work programme; Secretary, A. G. Nothman.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON:—This Association founded in the year 1873 was organized nationally in 1896. The aim of the Association is to promote the physical, intellectual, social and spiritual welfare of young women and girls in India, European, Anglo-Indian and Indian. This is done by the establishment of local branches in different centers. At present they number 50 including city and student branches. The Associations in big cities have a large membership including all classes of the community. The needs of girls are met by physical drill, recreation, clubs and classes, lectures, commercial classes, Bible Study and devotional meetings and meetings for social work. There are 70 girls, and a demand for more, at present, owns 24 including 3 holiday homes in the hills. These hostels accommodate working girls, teachers, nurses, students and apprentices. Rates vary according to the residents' salaries and accommodation though all equally receive the benefits of a comfortable home, good food and wholesome surroundings. The holiday homes provide cheap holidays in healthy surroundings and also accommodate girls who work in the hills during the hot season. In addition to holiday homes Summer Conferences are held annually at Ootacamund and in a North Indian Centre. Special Girls Camps are arranged from time to time in many centres.

Travellers' aid work is done in the large ports, especially Colombo, and a large number of transient guests and visitors are accommodated in the Homes in these centres. The Association also runs employment bureaux through the agency of which many girls find positions. The Commercial schools train girls for office and business life. These larger Associations are managed by a staff of trained secretaries, some of whom come from

Great Britain, America, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. The others are found and trained in India. In many of the smaller branches where the work is of a simpler nature, it is carried on by voluntary workers who render faithful service year by year. The majority of the Indian branches are also carried on in this way. The Student Department is affiliated to the World's Student Christian Federation and has 42 branches in the various Schools and Colleges.

The Association, which is affiliated to the World's Committee of the Young Women's Christian Association, is international and inter-denominational. Full membership is confined to members of the Christian Church, but Associate membership is open to any girl

or woman of good character, no matter what her religion may be. The National Headquarters are situated in Calcutta and business is conducted by the National Committee which has a representative membership in all parts of India, also in Burma and Ceylon.

The Patroness of the Association is H. D. Lady Irwin.

Copies of the annual reports and other printed matter can be obtained from the National Office which is at 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The Official Organ of the Association is the "Woman's Outlook," an illustrated monthly magazine, which supplies women living in India with a good magazine at the price of Rs. 2-6-0, post free, per annum.

ASSOCIATION OF BRITISH UNIVERSITY WOMEN IN INDIA.

The Association of British University Women in India was established in 1913. Its objects are —

(1) To facilitate intercommunication and co-operation between women belonging to the universities of the United Kingdom, resident in India.

(2) To provide a means of keeping in touch with the universities of the United Kingdom, by communication with the British Federation of University Women, and otherwise as may seem expedient.

(3) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by university women.

Membership is open only to those women who hold degrees in any university in the United Kingdom, or hold Oxford or Cambridge Honours Certificates; but Associate Membership is open to women who have studied at a British University for two years and each Branch may admit as Honorary Members women who have advanced the higher education and interests of women.

The Association of British University Women has four branches. The addresses of the Honorary Secretaries are as follows:—

Hon. General Secretary:—Mrs. E. F. Hingley, c/o F. O. B. 535, Bombay.

Hon. Local Secretaries.

Bombay	.. Mrs. Blair, Arthur House, Coopers, Bombay.
Calcutta	.. Hon. Secretary c/o Miss Cornelia Sorabji, 28, Chowringhee, Calcutta.
Delhi	.. Mrs. Blomfield, Aurizet Rd., Raisina, Delhi.
Punjab	.. Mrs. Irving, 16, Davis Road, Lahore.

The Delhi and Punjab Branches came into existence in 1918. The Calcutta and Bombay Branches are influential and have repeatedly intervened with good effect to educate public opinion with regard to subjects affecting women. All Branches have, for instance, made investigations on behalf of the

ment of India, the Calcutta University Commission, etc., and have supplied, through the International Federation of University Women, information on Secondary Education in India to the League of Nations. They have been the means of introducing women on to University Senates and Municipalities. The Calcutta Branch carried through an important exhibition of Food Products.

The Bombay Branch has done good work in connection with the formation of the Social Purity Committee and has, through a special sub-committee, organized public meeting for women on subjects affecting their interests about which legislation was being or had been recently enacted.

A valuable part of the work of the Association was the establishment of Women's Employment Bureau in Calcutta and Bombay. They were remarkably successful. The Bombay Bureau was eventually merged into the employment Bureau established by the Women's Council; the Calcutta Bureau has ceased to exist.

As a means of promoting friendships between women from various parts of the United Kingdom, with widely differing tastes and interests and spheres of life in India, and as an instrument for affording opportunities for usefulness to educated women, the Association of University Women has a useful function to perform.

Federation of University Women in India

This is an organization conceived to unite for service and fellowship all University Women of whatever race or University who may be resident in India. Units representing British Universities, Indian Universities and American Universities severally have existed since 1913 (Britain) and 1920 (India and America) respectively.

These Units are now fused together into one body; and are as such affiliated to the International Federation of University Women which embraces 27 countries of the world and has its headquarters at Crosby Hall, Cheque Walk, London.

This International Federation is then a kind of League of Nations in which the University is the Unit and the opportunities it affords for better understanding for world-friendship, and world service, will easily be

forming one family, its Members help the common cause or women, they help one another by inspiration and interchange of service; they help the country for which as individual Units they stand, inasmuch as that country is swept for both by reason of its place within the International Federation alone, into world statistics and the dignity of recognition by the League of Nations at Geneva.

The benefit to Members individually also is great. The Club Houses of the Federation all over the world are open to them. Equally so are all Scholarships and Fellowships offered by the Federation.

During 1927 these last have included, Scholarships from Great Britain and America which gave free tuition, board and residence at certain Colleges to students for a degree; residential scholarships at Crosby Hall, valuable Fellowships and Prizes offered chiefly for Medical or scientific research, by Australia and America.

Membership is open to Women Graduates of any University through the Unit representing that University. Colonial Graduates are at present attached to the British Unit.

Subscriptions.—British Unit . . Rs. 3 a year
Indian Unit . . Rs. 2 a year
American Unit . . Rs. 2 a year
The Federation has Branches in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Lahore. Each Branch has a local Committee. But as a whole the Federation is under a Central Committee with Headquarters at Calcutta for the years 1927 and 1928.

OFFICE BEARERS, CENTRAL COMMITTEE
President—Mrs. Stewart Macpherson.

LOCAL REPRESENTATIVES.

Bombay . . Miss Beevers.
 Mrs. Doctor.
Calcutta . . Mrs. Kellas.
 Mrs. P. Chaudhuri.
Delhi . . Mrs. Coatsman.
Lahore . . Mrs. Dobson.
 Mrs. Thapar.

Honorary General Secretary Miss Cornhill Sorabji, Bar Library, High Court, Calcutta.
Applications for membership should be made to the Honorary General Secretary who will forward the same to the Local Secretary to whom it may appertain.

EX-SERVICES ASSOCIATION, INDIA AND BURMA.

The following shows some of the work carried out during 1926 by the Association which undertakes in India and Burma the work on behalf of British Ex-Officers and British Ex-Service men to which the late Earl Haig pledged himself in England:—

(a) 260 applicants provided with employment despite most unfavourable conditions.

(b) Over Rs. 2,70,000 expended in affording assistance to British Ex-Service men and the dependents of these in India and Burma, and a further 2550 contributed to Earl Haig's Association at Home for the assistance of those Ex-Members of the Indian Services who after returning to England were in distress and want.

Men were started in business, distress arising from sickness and from unemployment was relieved. School fees were paid and School outfits

provided for numerous children, repatriation and emigration expenses were met, board and lodging were provided while men looked for work, widows, orphans and deserted were assisted, expenses of training were borne and medical expenses were met.

(c) Miscellaneous assistance of every description was given to applicants. Matters of pensions and gratuities were assisted, information and advice as to Colonial Settlement were given, legal advice was afforded, letters of recommendation to possible employers were given and employment offered in India to serving soldiers was investigated and the wants of large numbers of ex-officers and ex-service men were gone into at interviews.

H. E. the Commander-in-Chief is the President of the Association.

INTEREST TABLE.

From 5 to 12 per cent. on Rupees 100.

Calculated for 1 Year, 1 Month (Calendar), 1 Week, and 1 Day (365 Days to a Year)
(the Decimal Fraction of a Pie for the Day being shown for the Day.

Per cent,	1 Day.		1 Week.		1 Month.		1 Year		
	RS.	A. P.	RS.	A. P.	RS.	A. P.	RS.	A. P.	
5	0	0	2*680	0	1	6	5	0	0
6	0	0	3*156	0	1	10	6	0	0
7	0	0	3*682	0	2	1	7	0	0
8	0	0	4*208	0	2	5	8	0	0
9	0	0	4*734	0	2	9	9	0	0
10	0	0	5*260	0	3	0	10	0	0
11	0	0	5*786	0	3	4	11	0	0
12	0	0	6*312	0	3	8	12	0	0

PRINCIPAL CLUBS IN INDIA.

Estab- lished	Club-house.	Subscription.			Secretary.
		Ent.	An- nual	Mon- thly.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
..	Abbottabad, N. W. F. Provinces.	24	..	14	Col. S. G. L. Steele, C.B.
1800	Madras	75	13	6	E. Barrington Smyth.
1863	Agra Cantonment ..	75	..	12	Capt. A. Catling.
1889	50	..	11	Capt. F. M. S. Gibson, M.B.E.
1893	Lushad Hills, E. B. & Assam.	32	..	20	William H. Tilbury, M.C.
1883	Kaiser Bagh	100	..	18	Lt. P. W. Grant.
1870	Berar	100	..	13	Lt. G. H. Lee, M.G.
1886	Allahabad	100	10	12	E. F. J. Payne.
	100	8	13	W. A. Forbes.
1894	Amritsar	30	..	16	Leonard B. Steadman.
1863	33, Residency Road ..	100	10	34	St. John L. Oliver.
1883	Municipal Gardens ..	50	..	9	Stanley Jones.
1864	Backergunj, Barisal ..	32	..	13	Wm. Stewarr.
1890	Grand Trunk Road, S. Riverside.	100	..	16	A. B. Hanway & H. I. Matthews.
1831	Eytche Street, Bassein, Burma.	50	..	11	A. F. Dawson.
1884	Close to Race Course ..	50	..	13	H. N. Newey.
.	20	..	16	Rev. H. W. Stapleton Cotton.
1827	33, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta.	500	25	16	Col. A. L. Barrett, D.S.O.
1846	29, Chowringhee Road.	150	20	14	W. D. Griffith.
1862	Esplanade Road	300	12	10	W. F. Murdoch.
	75	12	9	J. B. Barclay and W. Blake.
1833	Bellasis Road, Bombay	350	24	12	H. F. Robbs, D.S.O., M.C.
1907	241, Lower Circular Road.	260	120	10	T. T. Williams. Hon. Mr. Aroon Sinha (On leave.) Dr. S. Goswami (Officiating in place of A. Sinha.)
1844	Cawnpore	50	..	10	L. J. W. Plummer.
1878	Pioneer Hill, Chittagong.	75	12	10	J. C. Cumming.
1885	Mhow	60	..	17	Capt. A. J. Penn.
1863	Elphinstone Road, Poona.	200	12	10	Capt. H. A. Bcach.
1876	100	18	10	O. Grob.
1856	Coconada	70	..	10	F. N. Byalls.
1868	Coimbatore	75	9	10	Arthur Campbell.
1894	Coonoor, Nilgiris ..	100	12	8	A. K. Weld Downing.
1864	Dacca	50	..	20	
.	Dalhousie, Punjab	15	7	
1868	Auckland Road	100	16	7½	
1898	Ludlow Castle, Delhi..	100	15	15	

Name of Club.	Estab- lished.	Club-house.	Subscription		
			Ent.	An- nual	Mon- thly
			Ra.	Rs.	Ra.
JHANSI	1887	Next to Public Gar- dens, Jhansi.	75	..	12
MADRAS	1831	Mount Road, Madras..	250	20	10
MADRAS COSMOPOL- ITAN.	1873	Mount Road	160	60	..
MALABAR	1864	Beach Road, Calcutt..	100	5	12
MAYMYO	1901	100	12	20
MOOLTAN	1892	Mooltan	50	..	15
NAINITAL	1864	150	12	10
OOTACAMUND ..	1848	Ootacamund, Nilgiri Hills.	150	18	10
ORIENT	Chowpaty, Bombay..	300	72	6
PEGU	1871	Prome Road, Rangoon	300	20	12
PESHAWAR	1863	Peshawar	50	..	12
PUNJAB	1879	Upper Mall, Lahore ..	150	15	12
QUETTA	1879	Quetta.. ..	120	..	18
RANGOON GYMNASIA..	1874	Halpin Rd., Rangoon.	75	5	10
RANGOON BOAT CLUB..	..	Royal Lakes, Rangoon	45	..	3
RAJPUTANA	1890	Mount Abu	50	..	8
ROYAL BOMBAY YACHT CLUB.	1899	Apollo Bunder	450	18	12
ROYAL CALCUTTA TURF CLUB.	1861	11, Russell Street ..	500	25	..
ROYAL WESTERN INDIA GOLF CLUB.	..	Nasik	75	15	12
SATURDAY	7, Wood Street, Cal- cutta.	100	12	10
SECUNDERABAD ..	1833	Secunderabad(Deccan)	100	..	8
SHILLONG	1878	Northbrook Road, Shillong.	100	..	20
SIALKOT	Sialkot, Punjab ..	32	..	19
SIND	1871	Karachi	300	12	12
TAKSHINOFOLY ..	1899	Cantonment	90	12	12
TUTICORIN	1885	Tuticorin	50	..	12
UNITED SERVICE CLUB.	1866	Stala	200	12	8
UNITED SERVICE CLUB, LUCKNOW.	1861	Chutter Mansil Palace.	100	..	12
UPPER BUNGA ..	1859	Fort Dufferin, Mat- dalay.	50	12	10
WESTERN INDIA TURF.	..	Bombay and Poona ..	50	15	..
WILLINGDON SPORTS	1917	Clerk Road, Bombay..	500	120	..
WHEELER	1863	The Mall, Meerut ..	75	..	10

The Church.

In the ordinary acceptance of the term there is an **Indian Church**. An Ecclesiastical... is intended for providing... primarily... to British... a European civil officials of Government and their families. Seven out of the eleven **Anglican Bishops in India** are officers of the Establishment, though their episcopal jurisdiction far transcends the limits of the Ecclesiastical Establishment. The stipends of the three **Presidency Bishops** are paid entirely by Government, and they hold an official status which is clearly defined. The Bishops of Lahore, Lucknow, Nagpur and Rangoon draw from Government the stipends of Senior Chaplains only but their episcopal rank and territorial titles are officially recognised. The Bishops of Chota Nagpur, Transevelly-Madura, Travancore-Cochin, Dornakal and Assam are not on the establishment. The new Bishopric of Assam was created in 1913. In its relations with Government it is subordinate to the see of Calcutta. But the maintenance of the Bishopric is met entirely from voluntary funds.

The ecclesiastical establishment includes four denominations—Anglican, Scottish, Roman and Wesleyan. Of these, the first two enjoy a distinctive position, in that the Chaplains of those denominations (and in the case of the first-named the Bishops) are individually appointed by the Secretary of State and rank as gazetted officers of Government. Throughout the Indian Empire there are 124 Anglican and 18 Church of Scotland chaplains whose appointments have been confirmed. The Roman Catholics and Wesleyans receive block-grants from Government for the provision of clergy to minister to troops and others belonging to their respective denominations. The Wesleyan Methodist Church has a staff of military chaplains in India who receive a fixed salary from Government and 25 chaplains working on a capitation basis of payment by Government. Churches of all four denominations may be built, furnished and repaired, wholly or partly at Government expense.

The Anglican Communion has at last attained to self-government. In Dec. 1922 the Royal Assent was given to an Indian Church Measure and Jan. 1, 1923, was fixed as the date of their coming into operation. These laws have effected two great changes in the affairs of the Church. Up to the present the General Council has been a body unrecognised by law. It is now empowered to legislate for the Church. Further, property which has been held for the Church by the Bishops and Archdeacons as Corporation Sole will now be transferred to Trust Associations which will be established under the Act. The actual date of severance of the legal bond between the Church in India and the Church of England has not yet been fixed, but by order of the King in Council it must be some day in 1934. After the severance is complete the Church in India will be as free to manage its own affairs as is the Church of any one of the other great Dominions. Apprehension was felt by many that freedom would involve drastic departures from the faith

and practice of the Church of England. Such fears have already been proved groundless, in the first place by the adoption of a Constitution wholly Anglican in ideal and principle and secondly by the pledge given in the most solemn manner, at the instance of purely Indian delegates, that the right of European congregations to worship according to the Use of the Church of England will be most carefully safeguarded.

After the date of severance the law of the Church will be its own "Canon Law" passed by the General Council. In every fully constituted Diocese there is a Diocesan Council composed of the Bishop, all the clergy who hold his license, and lay representatives from every parish. The Diocesan Councils manage all purely domestic matters and have the right of petitioning the General Council about any subject of wider importance which may interest them. They elect a given number of priests and laymen to be their representatives on the General Council. General Councils are held not less than every three years and usually at Calcutta. They consist of three "Houses"—Bishops, Priests and Laymen. Every Diocesan Bishop has a place in the House of Bishops. The other two Houses are formed by the elected representatives of the Diocesan Councils. The three Houses usually sit and vote together, but any House has the right to meet alone if it desires to do so in order to formulate its policy or classify its opinions. A "Canon" of the Church is a Resolution passed with additional precautions ensuring due consideration by all three Houses. In all questions touching faith or Order the position of the episcopate as the divinely authorised teacher of the Church is most carefully safeguarded and the Bishops alone, without the concurrence of the other Houses, can issue Determinations about both subjects. But no Determination of the Bishops can be the subject of disciplinary action until it has become a Canon.

Another great change which will almost immediately take place will be the election of the Bishops to vacant sees by the dioceses over which they are to preside. After the date of severance the election of the Bishops, the election of the Chaplains will continue. The House of Lords the Secretary of State for India stated that the Government of India acknowledged that the provision of Chaplains and the maintenance of churches for the use of its European servants were duties of moral obligation. Very few Europeans therefore will notice any change at all in the status of services of their Church. But the Indian section of the Church has at least been set free to develop along lines more suitable to the Indian character than those fixed for English people during the controversies and persecutions of the fifteenth century.

So far as the European and Anglo-Indian communities are concerned the activities of the Church are not confined to public worship and pastoral functions. The education of the children of those communities is very largely in the hands of the Christian denominations. There are a few institutions such as the La

has been a no denonina ona
 bas bu e e p o a In a h
 arge centres were exist schools of various
 grades as well as orphanages, for the education
 of Europeans and Anglo-Indian under the
 control of various Christian bodies. The
 Roman Catholic Church is honourably dis-
 tinguished by much activity and financial
 generosity in this respect. Her schools are to
 be found throughout the length and breadth
 of the Indian Empire; and they maintain a
 high standard of efficiency. The Anglican
 Church comes next, and the American Metho-
 dists have established some excellent schools
 in the larger hill-stations. The Presbyterians
 are also well represented in this field, particu-
 larly by the admirable institution for destitute
 children at Kalimpong, near Darjeeling. Schools
 of all denominations receive liberal grants-in-
 aid from Government, and are regularly in-
 spectred by the Education Departments of the
 various provinces. Thanks to the free opera-
 tion of the denominational principle and its
 frank recognition by Government, there is no
 "religious difficulty" in the schools of the
 European and Anglo-Indian communities.

Christian Missions.

The tradition that St. Thomas, the Apostle,
 was the first Christian missionary in India is
 by no means improbable. History, however,
 carries us no further back than the sixth
 century, when a community of Christians is known
 to have existed in Malabar. Since then the
 so called Syrian Church in south-west India
 has had a continuous life. Except in its in-
 fancy this Church (or rather these Churches
 for the Syrian Christians are now divided into
 four communions) has displayed little of the
 vitality which it has recently introduced into
 its life. It was in the sphere of its
 tropological see of
 a Spaniard by
 race, took full advantage of the Portuguese
 power in Western India to carry on his Chris-
 tian propaganda. His almost super-human
 zeal was rewarded with much success, but
 many of the fruits of his labour were lost with
 the shrinkage of the Portuguese Empire. It
 is ready to the work of the missionaries of the
 Propaganda in the 17th century that the
 Papacy owes its large and powerful following
 in India to-day. The Roman Catholics in
 India number 1,823,000, of whom 332,000
 were added during the decade 1911-1921.
 The total of "Syrian" Christians (exclusive
 of those who while using the Syrian liturgy,
 are of the Roman obedience) is 315,000, as
 against 367,000 in 1901. Protestant Chris-
 tians (the term throughout this article includes
 Anglicans) number 2,950,000, an increase of
 47,000 since 1911. Thus, the total number
 of Christians of all denominations in India is
 now close on five millions. In fact it prob-
 ably exceeds that figure at the present
 moment, as these statistics are taken from the
 Census Report of 1911, and the rate of increase
 during the previous decade was nearly 100,000
 per annum.

The Protestant Churches made no serious
 attempt to get India till 183 They

us b n a w o k n the Ind n m on
 H d o 10 ya nd he s a st al
 results of their efforts are given above It s
 now, however, generally recognized that Chris-
 tian missions are producing indirect effects in
 India which lend themselves only incompletely
 to any sort of tabulation. The main agency
 of this more diffusive influence of Christianity
 is the missionary school, and college. The
 Protestant missions fill a considerable part in
 the elementary education of the country.
 According to the 1923 Report of the National
 Christian Council for India they are teaching
 420,255 children in 12,890 elementary schools,
 mostly situated in villages. The majority
 (243,895) of children in these schools are non-
 Christians. The same is true also of the second-
 ary schools and in a still greater degree of the
 colleges. The former number 623 with 70,264
 male and 25,302 female pupils. There are 40
 colleges affiliated to Universities, containing
 20,062 male and 1,309 female students. Of
 these as many as 14,148 are non-Christians.
 From the standpoint of missionary policy much
 importance is attached to these agencies for the
 indirect propagation of the Christian faith. The
 statesman and the publicist are chiefly inter-
 ested in the excellent moral effect produced
 by these institutions amongst the educated
 classes, and the higher educational ideals
 maintained by their staffs. The principal
 University colleges under Protestant auspices
 are the Madras Christian College; the Duff
 College, Calcutta; the Wilson College, Bombay;
 the Forman College, Lahore, and three women's
 colleges—the Women's Christian College at
 Madras, the Isabella Thoburn College at Luck-
 now, and the Women's Christian Medical College
 at Ludhiana. The Roman Catholics have a large
 number of educational institutions, ranging
 from small village schools to great colleges
 preparing students for University degrees.
 But the proportion of Christian students in
 their institutions is very much larger than
 in those of the Protestant bodies. The pro-
 portion of literates amongst native Roman
 Catholics is probably lower than amongst the
 Protestant converts, but compared with
 Hindus and Mahomedans it is conspicuously
 higher. The Roman Catholics have some
 3,000 elementary schools in which 98,000
 boys and 41,000 girls are receiving instruction
 in middle and high schools they have
 143,000 boys and 73,000 girls and in Uni-
 versity colleges about 5,000 students of both
 sexes. These figures, however, include a large
 proportion of Europeans and Eurasians, who
 are an almost negligible quantity in Protestant
 mission schools and colleges.

More recent, but producing even more wide-
 spread results, is the philanthropic work of
 Christian missions. Before the great famine
 of 1878, missionaries confined themselves
 almost exclusively to evangelistic and edu-
 cational activity. The famine threw crowds
 of destitute people and orphan children upon
 their hands. Orphanages and industrial
 schools became an urgent necessity. But
 the philanthropic spirit is never satisfied with
 one kind of organisation or method. A great
 stimulus was also given to medical missions.
 Hospitals and dispensaries have sprung up in
 all parts of the field and oper

the most numerous in India was 118 men and 217 women, the majority of the former being also ordained ministers of religion. There are 184 industrial institutions in which 58 different arts and crafts are taught, ranging from agriculture to type-writing. In this department the Salvation Army hold a prominent place; and the confidence of Government in their methods has been shown by their being officially entrusted with the difficult work of winning over certain criminal tribes to a life of industry. The indirect effect of all this philanthropic activity under missionary auspices has been most marked. It has awakened the social conscience of the non-Christian public, and such movements as "The Servants of India" and the mission to the Depressed Classes are merely the outward and visible sign of a great stirring of the philanthropic spirit far beyond the sphere of Christian missionary operations.

Reunion.—For very many years Indian Christians have shown that they felt much more acutely than Europeans the scandal and disadvantage of the divisions of Christendom. These divisions are due to a very much greater extent than is always recognized to political causes, and in the political conflicts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when they became crystallised, India had no part. Even those differences amongst Christians which have a purely religious origin and foundation seem to be of very little account to Indian converts. For them the great dividing line is that between Christ and Mahommed or Shiva and Vishnu. Standing before a background of paganism they are conscious of a real fundamental unity in Christ. Compared with the greatness of the gulf which separates Christian from non-Christian, the differences of "confession" and "order" which separate Christian from Christian seem to be wholly artificial and negligible. In consequence the reunion movement, which is noticeable all over the world, is nowhere so strong as in India. In South India it has already resulted in the formation of the South India United Church, which is a group union of five of the principal Protestant communions, and as these bodies are in communion individually with all, or almost all, the other Protestant bodies at work in India the Union may be regarded as a Pan-Protestant Union. The S.I.U.C. is at present negotiating with the Anglican Church. If as seems probable the negotiations are successful the result will amount to a union of all the Christian bodies in South India, except the Roman Catholics, on the basis of the last Lambeth encyclical. This will mean that a real National Indian Church will come into being. Although it will be tolerant of almost every expression of Evangelical opinion and will retain the freedom of development characteristic of Protestantism, by its acceptance of the Catholic creeds and the historic Episcopate, it will be linked up with the Catholic tradition of the Anglican Church.

Anglican Missionary Societies.

The Church Missionary Society carries on work in India in seven different missions—the United

Protestant India and the United Church of India. The names are in order of seniority. Work was begun in what are now called the United Provinces in 1813, in Bombay in 1820, in the Punjab in 1831, and in the Central Provinces in 1854. The Society has always kept Evangelistic work well to the fore; but it also has important medical missions, especially on the N.-W. frontier and many schools of the Primary, Middle and High standards. The Church of England Zenana Missionary Society is an offshoot of the U. M. S. controlling the work of 162 missionary ladies. The number of ordained European missionaries of the C. M. S. in India and Ceylon is 160, European laymen 30 and European laywomen 258. The society claims a Christian community of 2,21,359 of whom 63,655 are adult communicants.

Society for the propagation of the Gospel.—Statistics of the work of this society are not easily ascertained, as much of it is done through Diocesan institutions, which, while financed and in many cases managed by the S. P. G., are entirely controlled by the Diocesan authorities. The best known of the S. P. G. missions is that at Delhi, commonly called the Cambridge Mission to Delhi, carrying on educational work at St. Stephen's College and School. At the College there are about 200 students under instruction, and at the High School 800. The College hosts accommodate 100 students. Missions to the depressed classes exist in Burma, in the Ahmednagar District and in several parts of South India, especially in the Diocese of Tinnevely-Madurai. The S. P. G. also maintains an important Criminal Tribes Settlement at Hukli, in the Bombay Carnatic. There are 110,000 Indian Christians under the aegis of the S. P. G.; 90 ordained European missionaries and 95 European lady workers.

Other Anglican Societies.—The Oxford Mission to Calcutta was started in 1880 at work in the poorest parts of Calcutta and also at Barisal. There are 11 mission priests of this Society, and 16 sisters. In addition to its work amongst the poor, the Oxford Mission addresses itself to the educated classes in Bengal and issues a periodical called *Epiphany*, which is known all over India.

The Society of St. John the Evangelist (commonly known as the Cowley Fathers) has houses at Bombay and Poona, and small stations in the Bombay Konkan. In Bombay its missionary work centres round the Church of Holy Cross, Umakhandi, where there is a school and a dispensary. The Christians are chiefly drawn from the very poorest classes of the Bombay population. At Poona the Society co-operates with the Wantage Sisters and in Bombay with the All-Saints' Sisters. Other Anglican sisterhoods represented in India are the Clewer Sisters at Calcutta and the Sisters of the Church (Kilburn) at Madras. The St. Hilda's Deaconesses' Association of Lahore carries on important educational work (chiefly amongst the domiciled community) in the Punjab. The mission of the Scottish Episcopal Church at Nagpur, the Dublin University Mission at Hazaribagh, and the Mission of the Church of England in Canada working at Kangra and Palampur (Punjab) should also be mentioned under the head of Anglican

Bengal Ecclesiastical Department

We greet The Right Reverend Presb. D.D. .. Lord Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan of India.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Parker, Rev. William Almar Hedley (On leave.)
 Penley, Rev. Horace Octavius, M.A. Chaplain, Shillong
 Rhoades, Rev. Arthur Cyril Chaplain, Darjeeling Campments.
 Godber, Rev. John Archdeacon of Calcutta (on leave.)
 Dyer, Rev. Basil Saunders, B.A. Chaplain, Cuttack.
 Birch, Rev. Ormonde Winstanley, M.C. Senior Chaplain, St John's Church, Calcutta.
 Thomson, Rev. Thomas Albert Chaplain, Bankigore.

And 8 Junior Chaplains.

Williams, Rev. Henry Frank Fittford, M.A. .. Chaplain, Dinapore.
 Williamson, Rev. Ernest Roland, M.A. .. Chaplain, Barrackpore and D. in Dum.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Jamieson, Rev. Robert George, M.A. Senior Chaplain (On leave.)
 Mitchell, Rev. James Donald, M.A. B.D. Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland, Bengal, and Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church.
 McCaul, Rev. Mather Wilson, B.A. Second Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Calcutta.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF ROME.

Peterson, The Most. Rev. Dr. Ferdinand, S.J. .. Archbishop, Calcutta.
 Bryan, Rev. Leo, S.J., Chaplain, Alipore Central Jail.

Bombay Ecclesiastical Department.

Palmer, Right Reverend Edwin James, M.A. .. Lord Bishop of Bombay.
 Hamerton, Rev. F. W. M., M.A. Archdeacon.
 Walker, G. L. Registrar of the Diocese.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Tibbs, Rev. Phillip Gordon, B.A. (On leave.)
 Hill, Rev. Edward Enslace Chaplain of Ghorpaul.
 Hamerton, Rev. Frederick William Mountgarrett, M.A. Archdeacon (On leave.)
 Godier, Rev. Charles Bernard Gray, M.A. .. Chaplain, St. Mary's, Poona.
 Hewitt, Rev. George Ahmedabad.
 Ryall, Rev. Charles Richard, M.A., B.D., B.A. .. Ahmednagar
 Mason, Rev. Charles Douglas Thomas, M.A., A.R.C. (Harrison Chaplain, Bombay.
 Harvey, Rev. George Frederick M.A. (On leave.)
 Macindale, Rev. Harry, M.A. Domestic Chaplain to the Bishop of Bombay and Chaplain of Mahabaleswar.
 Paul, Rev. A. C., M.A. Belgaum

And 6 Junior Chaplains.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Macpherson, Rev. G. C., O.B.E., M.A. B.D. .. Presidency Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Bombay.
 Lee, Rev. R. E., M.A., B.D., M.C. (On leave.)
 Rennie, Rev. J. F., M.A., B.D., D. Litt. .. Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Karachi.
 McLean, Rev. L., M.A., B.P. Chaplain, Poona and Kirkee.
 McEllan, Rev. D. T. H. (On leave.)
 MacDonald, Rev. D., M.A., B.D. On Probation.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF ROME.

Bertram, Right Rev. L. Presidency.

Madras Ecclesiastical Department.

Waller, Right Reverend Edward Harry Mansfield,	Lord Bishop of Madras.
D.D.	(On leave.)
Loansby, Rev. Henry Clement	Archdeacon Ag. Senior Joint Chaplain, St. George's Cathedral.
Smith, Rev. George Cecil Augustus, M.A.	Registrar of the Diocese and Secretary to the Lord Bishop.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Wright, Rev. G. A. Arthur	Bishop's Chaplain.
Sell, Rev. Charles Edward	St. Thomas' Mount with Pallavaram and Vellore.
Dorise, Rev. J. J. D. B.A., LL.B.	Bangalore.
Hacking, Rev. Henry, M.A.	Secunderabad.
Bealey, Rev. Ben. Latrey	(On leave.)
Bull, Rev. Francis Faudant	Bangalore.
Jones, Rev. Hugh, M.A.	(On leave.)

And 12 Junior Chaplains.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Dodds, Rev. G. L. M.A., D.D.	Presbytery Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Bangalore.
MacKenzie, Rev. Donald Francis, M.A.	Secunderabad.
Short, Rev. G., M.D.	Bangalore.

Assam Ecclesiastical Department.

Parker, Rev. Canon H. O.	Shillong.
Vaughan	Lachimpur.
Wood, Rev. W. S. A.	Mitrah.
Sutton, Rev. T.	Silchar.

Bihar and Orissa Ecclesiastical Department.

Joynt, Rev. B.S. M.A.	Senior Chaplain, Cuttack.
Thompson, Rev. T. A.	Senior Chaplain, Bankipur.
Williams, Rev. H. F. F., M.A.	Senior Chaplain, Durgapur.

ADDITIONAL CLERGY.

Perrett, Rev. H.	Bhawalpur.
Munn, Rev. William	Mourshy and Jamalpur.
Linford Judah, Rev. E. A.	Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga.
Housner, Rev. Robert	Ranchi.

Burma Ecclesiastical Department.

Lyffe, The Right Reverend Rollstone Sterritt, M.A.	Lord Bishop of Rangoon.
Cosper-Johnson, Rev. Wilfrid Harry M.A.	Chaplain Mandalay, Archdeacon of Rangoon, and Bishop's Commissary.

And 6 Junior Chaplains.

Central Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Wood, Right Reverend Alex. M. A., O.B.E., D.D.	Lord Bishop of Nagpur.
Tedgard, Rev. Ralph Gilbert, M.A.	Archdeacon.

CHAPLAINS.

Wardell, Rev. A. F. G.	Jubbulpore.
Carter, Rev. D. R. M.A.	Mhow.
Horwood, Rev. K. C.	(On leave.)
Clarke, Rev. R. C. B., M.A.	Baugor.
Roberts, Rev. A. B.	Kamptee.
Briggs, Rev. F. L., M.A.	Services placed at the disposal of Government, United Provinces.
Martin, Rev. E. W.	Mhow.
Day, Rev. E. R., M.A.	Second Chaplain, Nasirabad.
Warrington, Rev. G. W.	(On leave.)

The Church

North-West Frontier Ecclesiastical Department.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Canden, Rev. H. C. Allahabad.
And 6 Junior Chaplains.

Punjab Ecclesiastical Department.

Thurman, Royal Reverend R. B. M.A., D.D. Lord Bishop of Punjab Lahore.
Wheeler, The Ven'ble Canon Hugh Trevor, M.A. Amritsar, Multan.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Backwell, Rev. Fredrick Charles Amritsar.
Castle, Rev. Willie Wiebeho, B.A. (on leave).
Stephenson, Rev. Canon Henry Stanley M.A. (on leave).
Solway, Rev. Arthur Lewis Henry, B.A. (on leave).
Campbell, Rev. Rowland William, M.A. (on leave).
Mason, Rev. Arthur Percival, M.A. (on leave).
Williams, Rev. James Ernest Cartes, M.A. (on leave).
Dixon, Rev. Thomas Harold, M.A. Calcutta, Calcutta.
Farne, Rev. George Dunford, M.A. on Foreign service.
Inglund, Rev. Herbert George, M.A. Karaul.
Strand-Jones, Rev. John, M.A. Calcutta.
Tomlinson, Rev. Charles Henry Delhi.
Barr, Rev. George Henry Bruce, L.L. Tabore Cantonment.
Sponner, Rev. H. P. (on leave).
Miles, Rev. Henry Evelyn, M.A. Allahabad.
McKenna, Rev. Robert Fitz-Simon, M.A., D.D. Quetta.
Lester, Rev. J. G., M.A. Lahore.

And 22 Junior Chaplains.

United Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Vacant Bishop of Lucknow.
Hill, The Ven'ble S.A., M.A. Archdeacon of Lucknow.
Westmacott, R. Registrar of the Diocese of Lucknow.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Irwin, The Ven'ble Benjamin Christopher Butler Meerut.
Ladfield, Rev. George Augustus Selwyn Gwalior.
Meyler, Rev. Edward Mowbray, M.A. Lucknow.
Cotton, Rev. F. L., M.A. Allahabad (on ill).
Smith, Rev. Francis Herbert, M.A. Calcutta.
Edwards, Rev. P. L. Bandikhal.
Hill, The Ven'ble Sidney Arthur, M.A. Noida Tal.
Coburn, Rev. Charles John, M.A. Lucknow (on ill).

And 10 Junior Chaplains with 11 Additional Clergy.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Thurman, Rev. J. W., M.A., D.D. Attached Army Department, Meerut.
Javier, Rev. C. A. R., M.A. Allahabad.

Wesleyan Chaplains.

Rev. A. J. Baynham, O.B.E., Superintending Wesleyan
Chaplain in India Simla
" A. W. Buckley, Otago, Superd. Wesleyan Chaplain
in India Rawalpindi
" A. D. Brown Leave for India
" A. Thomas Wright, M.B.E. Bombay.
" W. E. Cullwick, M.C.F. Feroke.
" F. E. Poole Quetta
" J. Dwyer K. H., M.C.F. Subashpore.
" J. H. Munro, M.C.F. Lahore.
" R. H. Spence, M.C.F. Hansi.
" R. T. Kerr, M.C.F. Peshawar.
" F. S. Briggs Khew
" J. M. Darlington Calcutta.
" J. D. Percy, B.A., M.C.F. Bangalore.
" G. L. Frost Meerut.
" A. Blain Bombay.
" E. C. Homer Secunderabad.
" F. E. C. Ramsay Madras.
" W. Hooper Lucknow.
" Clifford Lever Delhi.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

The *Statistical Abstracts, the Catholic Directory of India, 1924*, gives the following table—

	1901	1911	1921
1. <i>Indian India and Ceylon</i>			
(a) Latin Rite	1,312,324	1,911,329	1,551,108
(b) Syrian Rite	815,925	361,250	440,438
2. <i>European India</i>	25,560	27,018	25,480
<i>Portuguese India</i>	25,560	27,018	25,480
Total, India	1,613,809	2,201,346	2,016,117
4. <i>Ceylon</i>	235,913	322,163	383,986
Total, India and Ceylon ..	2,261,671	2,523,509	2,397,103

No. (1).—In 1860, the total for India and Ceylon was 1,176,834. In 1860 it had risen to 1,610,060 in 1901 to 2,261,671.

No. (2).—The number of Catholics under the Royal Patronage of Portugal (the *Padroado*) in 1921 were reckoned at 661,502, of whom more than half were in British India.

No. (3).—In 1861 there were 1,501 priests. In 1921 there were 2,139.

The Catholic community as thus existing is composed of the following elements:—

(1) The "Syrian" Christians of the Malabar Coast, traditionally said to have been converted by the Apostle St. Thomas. They were brought under papal obedience to the Pope by the Portuguese in 1500, and placed first under Jesuit oversight and then under Carmelite Vicar Apostolic. They are at present ruled by an Archbishop and three suffragan Bishops of their own Syrian Rite.

(2) Converts of the Portuguese and others from 1500 and onwards, starting from Goa and working in the rest of the peninsula and on the west coast, Ceylon, Bengal, &c.

(3) European immigrants at all times, including British troops.

(4) Modern converts from Hinduism and Animism in recent mission centres.

The Portuguese mission enterprise, starting after 1500, continued for about 200 years, after which it began to decline. To meet this decline fresh missionaries were sent out by the Congregation *de Propaganda fide*. Till by the middle of the 19th century the whole country was divided out among them except such portions as were occupied by the Goa clergy. Hence arose a conflict of jurisdiction among many parts between the Portuguese clergy of the "padroado" of royal patronage, and the propaganda clergy. This conflict was set at rest by the Concordat of 1856. At the same time the whole country was placed under a regular hierarchy, which after subsequent adjustments now stands as follows:—

Of the Portuguese Jurisdiction:—

The archbishopric of Goa (having some extension into British territory) with suffragan bishoprics at Cochin, Mysapore and Damann (all three covering British territory).

Of the Propaganda Jurisdiction:—

The archbishopric of Agra with suffragan bishoprics of Allahabad and Ajmer.

The archbishopric of Bombay, with suffragan bishoprics of Poona, Mangalore, Calcutta, Tuticorin, and Tuticorin.

The archbishopric of Calcutta, with suffragan bishoprics of Dacca, Krishnagar and Patna, and the Prefecture Apostolic of Assam.

The archbishopric of Madras, with suffragan bishoprics of Hyderabad, Vizagapatam and Nagpur.

The archbishopric of Pondicherry (French) with suffragan bishoprics of Mysore, Coimbatore and Kumbakonam.

The archbishopric of Simla with suffragan bishoprics of Lahore and the Prefecture Apostolic of Kashmir.

The archbishopric of Colombo (Ceylon) with suffragan bishoprics at Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee.

The archbishopric of Verapoly, with suffragan bishoprics of Oullon.

One archbishopric and three bishoprics of the Syrian Rite for the Syrian Christians of Malabar.

Three Vicariates Apostolic of Burma.

During 1923 two new dioceses have been constituted; Tuticorin and Calcutta.

The European clergy engaged in India almost all belong to religious orders, congregations or mission societies, and with a few exceptions are either French, Belgian, Dutch, Swiss, Spanish or Italian by nationality. They number about 1,000 besides which there is a body of secular clergy mostly native to the country, numbering about 2,000 and probably about 2,000 nuns. The first work of the clergy is parochial ministrations to existing Christians, including railway people and British troops. Second comes education, which is not confined to their own people; their schools being frequented by large numbers

Hindu Mahomedans, Parsis. Among the most important are St. Xavier's, Calcutta, St. Peter's College, Agra, St. Joseph's College, Bombay, St. Joseph's College, Calcutta, St. Aloysius College, Bangalore, St. Xavier's College, Madras, teaching universities; besides a large number of high schools and elementary schools. The education of girls is supplied for by numerous convent schools worked by religious congregations; and to say nothing of orphanages and other charitable institutions. Total number under education amounted in 1914 to 143,051 boys and 78,164 girls, figures being unavailable. As to clerical work proper, the country is served with numerous modern missionaries, among which those in the Punjab, the Nagpur, Krishnagar, Gujarat, the Ahmedabad district and the Telugu coasts may be mentioned. (Full particulars on all points be found in the Catholic Directory already cited.) The mission work is limited solely

by shortage of men and money, which if forthcoming would give the means to an indefinite extension. The resources of the clergy after the ordinary are supplied by a few military chaplains, and are derived mainly from the collections of the Society for the Propagation of the Faith and of the Holy Childhood, helped out by private or other donations secured from home by the different local missionaries. In mission work the fathers count as enrolled only those who are baptised and persevering as Christians, and no baptism except for infants or at point of death, is administered except after careful instruction and probation. This, while keeping down the record, has the advantage of guaranteeing solid results.

The Holy See is usually represented by a Delegate Apostolic of the East Indies who resides at Bangalore. At present this post is occupied by the Most Rev. Edward Mooney, D.D., appointed in 1925.

THE SCOTTISH CHURCHES.

Church of Scotland.—The Chaplaincy of the Church of Scotland dates from when the Rev. St. Bryce landed in India, and organised a congregation of Scottish fellow countrymen. The day of the churches in the three presidency towns was celebrated: Calcutta, Bombay, 1919; Madras, 1921. Since then there have been eighteen chaplains on the staff of whom nine belong to the Bengal Presidency, five to Bombay, and four to Madras. A minister both to the Scottish troops and the civil population of the towns where they are stationed, but when there is a Scottish regiment the chaplain is attached to the unit, instead of being posted to the station. The regiment happens to be placed in a new move with the regiment. There are three Presidency senior Chaplains in charge of the churches in Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras respectively. There are churches in the chief towns of the provinces, and churches have also been built in all considerable military stations, Lucknow, Lucknow, Peshawar, Ranikhet, Pindi, Fialkot, Umballa, and Jubbulpore. In addition to the regular establishments there are a number of Acting Chaplains sent by the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, and these are serving in such places as Rawalpindi, Lahore, Cawnpore, Mhow and Quetta. The Additional Chaplaincy in the Punjab is held by the Rev. Mr. Dalhousie. In other parts, large, regular services are provided by British missionaries. Simla has a minister sent out from Scotland. Mission work of the Church of Scotland began in 1820, when Alexander Duff, one of the greatest of modern missionaries, was sent to Calcutta. He was the first to open where English was made the medium of instruction, and where religious teaching was given daily. Similar educational missions were afterwards started in Bombay and Madras. Educational work is still an important part of the mission work of the Church,

but the Bombay College was closed in 1892 and in 1907 the College in Calcutta was united with the College of the United Free Church of Scotland, to form the Scottish Churches College. In the Punjab Evangelistic work is being carried on from eight centres under seventeen missionaries. The baptised Christian community now numbers over 14,000. Work commenced in Darjeeling in 1870 is now carried on throughout the whole Eastern Himalayan district, and there is a Christian community there of over 3,000. In the five mission districts of Calcutta, the Eastern Himalayas, Madras, Poona, and the Punjab there were at the end of 1919 over 24,787 baptised Indian Christians. In connection with these missions the Women's Association of Foreign Missions does invaluable service, in school, medical and zenana work, having in India 41 European missionaries, 163 teachers, over 50 schools, three hospitals and six dispensaries.

The Church of Scotland has also done much to provide education for European children in India. Together with the United Free Church, St. Andrew's Church has six representatives on the governing body of the Anglo-Scottish Education Society, and the two churches exercise pastoral supervision over the Bombay Scottish Orphanage. In Bangalore there is the St. Andrew's High School, and both in Bangalore and in Madras the local congregation supports the school for poor children. The Ayrcliffe Girls' Boarding and High School is under the care of the Kirk-Session of St. Andrew's Church, Simla. The now well-known St. Andrew's Colonial Homes at Kailashgong, Bengal, though not directly part of the work of the Church of Scotland, were initiated by and are being locally managed by missionaries of that Church. The homes exist for the benefit of the domiciled European Community, and are doing magnificent work. There are now twenty cottages, and about 600 children in residence. Further information may be found in "Reports of the Schemes of the

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The United Free Church of Scotland.—This branch of the Scottish Church has only three purely European congregations in India, two in Calcutta, Wellesley Square, and Howrah and one in Bombay, Waudby Road. In Calcutta the Howrah Church is in the district of the mills, and every effort is made to minister to the Scottish Engineers and other workers in the mills. As noted above members of these congregations co-operate with the Established Church of Scotland in providing education for European children.

The Church carries on Mission work in seven different areas. They are: Bengal (Calcutta, Kalya and Chinsura); the Santal Parganas, with five stations; Western India (Bombay, Poona and Alisha); Hyderabad State (Jalna, Bethel and Pasham); Madras (Madras City, Chingleput, Srirambudur and Coimbatore); the Central Provinces (Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, and Amraoti), Rajputana, where the extensive work is

n 800 a n w carried on from seven centres

The work falls into three main divisions, evangelistic, medical, and educational. The Christian community has been organized in all the chief centres into congregations which form part of the Indian Presbyterian Church, and this Church is seeking to take an increasing share in the work of evangelism. There are nineteen Mission Hospitals, among which are four excellently equipped and staffed Women's Hospitals, in Madras, Nagpur, Ajmer, and Jaipur. From the days of Duff in Calcutta and Wilson in Bombay the Mission has given a prominent place to education. It has many schools in all parts of its field and it has also made a large contribution to the work of higher education through four Christian Colleges. The Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, is under the joint management of the Church of Scotland and the United Free Church. The Madras Christian College, which owes so much to the work of Dr. William Miller, is now under the direction of a Board representing several Missionary Societies. Wilson College, Bombay, with which the names of Wilson and Dr. Macleod are especially associated and Missions College, Nagpur, are under the direct management of the United Free Church.

BAPTIST SOCIETIES.

THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN.—Formed in 1792, largely through the efforts of Dr. Wm. Carey, operates mainly in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab and Ceylon. The Baptist Zenana Mission and the Bible Translation Society have been united with this Society. The staff of the United Mission in India and Ceylon numbers 184 missionaries and about 1,159 Indian and European workers. Connected with the Society are 315 Indian and Singhalise Churches, 348 Primary Day schools, 25 Middle and High Schools, and 4 Theological Training Colleges. The Church membership at the close of 1925 stood at 19,911 and the Christian community at 56,854. The membership during the past ten years has increased by about 53 per cent. and the community by 50 per cent. in the same period. Amongst the non-caste people great progress has been made in recent years, and many of the Churches formed from amongst these peoples are self-supporting.

Special work amongst students is carried on in Calcutta, Dacca, Cuttack and Delhi, where hostels have been erected for the prosecution of this form of work.

EDUCATIONAL WORK.—Ranges from Primary School to Colleges. Serampore College, the only College in India able to bestow a theological degree granted under Royal Charter by His Danish Majesty in 1827, confirmed by the British Government in the Treaty of purchase of the Settlement of Serampore in 1815, and placed in 1856 by the College Council at the disposal of the Baptist Missionary Society to become a part of its

Missionary Educational operations, Arts and Theological. It was affiliated in 1857 to the newly-formed Calcutta University; reorganised in 1910 on the lines of its original foundation with the appointment of a qualified Theological Staff on an Inter-denominational basis for the granting of Theological Degrees to qualified students of all Churches.

As the only College in India granting a Theological Degree a large number of students are now resident in the College. In Arts, the College prepares for the Calcutta Arts Examinations. *Principal*: Rev. G. Howells, M.A., D.D., LLitt., F.R.D.

There is a Institute vernacular also at Cuttack for the training of Indian preachers and Bible schools in several centres.

There are 9 or 10 purely English Baptist Churches connected with the Society, but English services are carried on in many of the stations. Medical work connected with the Society is carried on in 6 Hospitals, and 7 Dispensaries. Two large Printing Presses for both English and Vernacular work are conducted at Calcutta and Cuttack. The Secretaries of the Mission are the Rev. John Reid and W. Craig Radle, Bsq., 48, Ripon Street, Calcutta.

The Headquarters of the Mission are at 19, Furnival Street, Holborn, London. The total expenditure of the Society for 1926 amounted to £239,634.

THE CANADIAN BAPTIST MISSION.—Was commenced in 1873, and is located in the Telugu

County to the N. O. V. d. as the Medical work includes 11 Hospitals and 27 Dispensaries, in which 61,663 out-patients and 4,353 in-patients were treated last year.

Indian Christians contribute annually more than Rs. 5,71,51 for religious and benevolent work within the Mission.

The great work of the Mission continues to be evangelistic and the training of the native preachers and Bible-women, and extends to many races and languages, the most important of which, in Burma, has been the practical transformation of the Karens, whose language has been reduced to writing by the Mission. The work in Assam embraces 9 different languages, and large efforts are made amongst the employers on the tea plantations. There are 18 Theological Seminaries and training schools with 672 pupils. The Mission Press at Rangoon is the largest and finest in Burma.

Assam Secretary, Rev. A. J. Tuttle, Gauhati, Assam.

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Assam Secretary, Rev. A. J. Tuttle, Gauhati, Assam.

Burma Secretary, Rev. G. E. Chaney, 15 Mission Road, Rangoon, Burma.

Bengal and Orissa Secretary, Rev. Harold I. Frost, Palasore, Orissa.

South India (or Telugu) Secretary, Rev. W. L. Ferguson, B.B., Madras.

THE ASSYRIAN BAPTIST MISSION.—With 2 missionaries, established at Serapungo, B. Bengal.

Missionary-in-charge: Rev. T. C. Kelly, Mission House, Serapungo.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION.—Embracing the societies representing the Baptist Churches of the States of the Australian Commonwealth. The field of operations is in East Bengal. The staff numbers 44 Australian workers. There are 2,413 communicants and a Christian community of 3,161.

Secretary, Field Council: Rev. T. E. Lynnon, Mymensingh.

THE STRAITS BAPTIST MISSION.—Has 13 European Missionaries, and 130 Indian Workers in Madras, and Salem District. Communicants number 270; organized Churches 8; elementary schools 41, with 1,625 pupils.

Treasurer: Rev. L. Watts, Kilpauk, Madras, W.

AUSTRIAN BAPTIST, BENGAL-ORISSA MISSION, commenced in 1856. Area of operation: Midnapore district of Lower Bengal, Balasore district of Orissa and Jambhulpur Mission staff 30, Indian workers 287. Two English Churches and 22 Vernacular Churches, Christian Community 5,000. Two dispensaries. Educational: One Theological and two Boys' High Schools and one Girls' High School and 118 Elementary Schools, pupils 3,559. One Industrial School for carpentering, iron work and motor mechanics. The Vernacular Press of this mission printed the first literature in the Santal language.

Secretary: Rev. H. I. Frost, Palasore, Orissa.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST TELUGU MISSION.—Was commenced in the year 1836, and covers large parts of Nellore, Guntur, Kistna, and Kurnool Districts, parts of the Deccan and an important work in Madras and the surrounding vicinity. Its main work is evangelistic, but there are also Educational and Medical Institutions of importance. Industrial Settlements for the Brahmins is carried on at Kavali and vicinity. Industrial departments are maintained also in connection with the Mission High Schools at Nellore, Ongole and Kurnool. Organized Telugu Churches number 236, with 88,718 baptized communicants. There are 132 missionaries, and 2,199 Indian workers. The mission maintains a Theological Seminary at Ramapattanam for the training of Indian preachers. A Bible Training School for the training of Telugu women is located in Nellore. A total of 22,658 receive instruction in 1,270 primary schools, 18 secondary schools and 4 high schools. In Medical work 8 Hospitals and 12 Dispensaries report 3,823 in-patients, 47,286 out-patients, and 115,078 treatments during the year.

Secretary: Miss E. J. Draper, Nellore

AMERICAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION SOCIETY, organized in 1614, has Missions in Burma began 1814; Assam 1836; Bengal and Orissa 1836; South India 1840. It owes its rise to the celebrated Adoniram Judson. Until 1910 the Society was known as the American Baptist Missionary Union. There are 33 main stations in Burma, 13 in Assam, 29 in Bengal and Orissa, 10 in South India, besides hundreds of out-stations. All forms of missionary enterprise come within the scope of the Society.

The missionary staff numbers 407 in all with an Indian workers' staff of 5,992. Communicants number 202,934. Organized churches number 1,779 of which 1,178 are self-supporting. Educational work is conducted on a large scale, the total number of schools of all grades being 4,293 with over 85,937 pupils. The Christian College has 262 students in college classes. There are twenty High Schools with 4,885 pupils.

PREBYTERIAN SOCIETIES

1. The United Presbyterian Mission in India.—The United Presbyterian Mission in India has a staff of 40 missionaries of whom 5 are qualified doctors and an Indian staff of 394 including school teachers. There are 11 organized churches, a community hall in 1,768, and a Christian community of 1,807. The medical work there are 3 hospitals, 6 dispensaries, with 1,137 in-patients and 12,081 new cases and a total attendance of 29,370. The Mission conducts 7 high schools, 1 Anglo-Vernacular school, and 120 Vernacular schools attending tuition for 5,591 pupils. 4 orphanages, a District College at Ahmednagar, a Teachers' Training College for Women at Borsad and a Mission Press at Surat. The Mission has made a specialty of Farm Colonies, of which there are about a score in connection with it, most of them thriving.

The Jangle Tribes Mission with 7 missionaries is a branch of the activities of the above, working in the Panch Mahals and Poria Kutch districts, with Poria Union attached.

Secretary: G. Watson, Ahmednagar.

THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA.—The Sikh Mission of the above Church was opened at Sialkot, Punjab, in 1885. It is now carrying on work in ten districts of the province and one in the N. W. P. Provinces. Its missionaries number 173 and its Indian workers 706. Its educational work comprises one Theological Seminary, one College, 24 High Schools, one Industrial School, nine Middle schools and 195 Primary schools. The total enrollment in all schools was 15,577 in 1926. The Mission is also carrying on medical work through six hospitals and eight dispensaries. The total Christian community in connection with the Mission is 51,522 and Church membership 41,287.

General Secretary: Rev. W. D. Mercer, Rajpootana, N. Punjab.

THE AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION operates in 7 main stations known as the Punjab, North India and Western India Mission. The American Staff including women numbers 279 and the Indian Staff 1,322. There are 25 dispensaries and about 210 out-patients. Organized churches number 82, 25 of which are self-supporting. There are 11,945 communicants and a total baptized community of 82,000. Educational work as follows: 2 Men's Colleges, and an interest in the Isabella Thoburn and the Kindred Colleges for women, students 1,281. The Dugai School 1, students 24; Training schools for village workers 2, students about 130; High Schools 14, students about 1,500; Industrial Schools 4; Agricultural demonstration Farms 4; Teachers' Training Departments 7. The Miraj Medical School and an interest in the Kandiana Medical School for women, students 100; Elementary Schools 230; Schools of all grades 241, pupils 12,623; Medical work: hospitals 6; Dispensaries 17. Sunday Schools 771 with 13,460 pupils. Contributions for Church and Evangelistic work on the part of the Indian Church, Rs. 51,422.

The Hospital at Miraj, under the care of Dr. W. J. Wandless and Dr. C. E. Vail, is well

known throughout the whole of S. W. India, and the Forman Christian College at Lahore under the principalship of Rev. E. D. Lucas, D.D., is equally well-known and valued in the Punjab. The Ewing Christian College (Dr. C. A. R. Jander, Principal) has grown rapidly in numbers and influence.

Secretary of Council of S. P. Missions in India, Rev. F. C. Vetter, M.A., D.D., Saharanpur.

Secretary, Punjab Mission: Rev. W. J. Weir, M.A., Lahore.

Secretary, North India Mission: Rev. W. T. Mitchell, M.A., Meerpoor, B.P.

Secretary, Western India Mission: Rev. H. S. Wright, M.A., Ahmednagar.

THE NEW ZEALAND PRESBYTERIAN MISSION commenced as recently as 1910 at Jagadhri, Punjab.

Secretary: Mrs. A. B. Henderson, Jagadhri, Dist. Ambala.

THE UNITED CHURCH OF CANADA MISSION.—Commenced in 1877; has 11 main stations in the Indian, Gwalior, Bundel, Dhar, Jaora, Bhamai, Barwaha and other Native States. The Mission staff numbers 79; Indian workers 280. This Mission works in conjunction with the Malwa Church Council, United Church of Northern India which reports Organized Churches 16; Unorganized Churches 18; Communicants 1,517; Baptized non-communicants 4,452; catechumens 235. Total Christian community 8,394.

Educational work comprises elementary and Middle schools, High Schools for boys, and girls' College, Theological Seminary and Classes. Industrial teaching and work are done in the 'Three Girls' Dairying School, women's industrial work in Mhow and Ratanmad in Rasnaura Boys' school. Technical and practical training is given in Fanning, Weaving and Carpentry. The Medical work is large. There are three General Hospitals, where both men and women are treated, and the Women's Hospital and also a number of dispensaries in central and out-stations.

Secretary:—The Rev. J. S. Mackay, B.A., D.D., Nirmuch, Central India.

THE CANADIAN PRESBYTERIAN BIBLE MISSION.—Aligarh, Jounal and Baranath State, are now under the Canadian Presbyterian Bible Mission.

Secretary:—Rev. J. G. Gosselin, M.D., D.D., Amkhar, Aligarh, C. I.

THE WELSH (CALVINISTIC METHODIST) PRESBYTERIAN MISSION established in 1840 with a staff of 10 Missionaries, 850 Indian workers, occupies stations in Assam in the Khasia and Jaintia Hills, the Lushai Hills and at Syhet and Cachar. The Khasia language has been reduced to writing, the Bible translated, and many books published in that language by the Mission. A large amount of literature has also been produced in the Lushai language. Communicants number 29,850; the total Christian community 21,461; organized Churches 630. Elementary schools number 626. Scholars 17,204; in addition to Industrial Schools and Training Institutions and 3 Theological Seminaries. Three Hospitals and several Dispensaries provide annually for more than 10,000 patients.

Secretary: Rev. F. J. Sandy, Durlang, Aijal

THE ABCOT MISSION.—Has two large Missions, the American Marathi Mission, and the Madras Mission. The Marathi Mission covers a considerable part of the Bombay Presidency, with centres at Bombay, Ahmednagar, Satara and Sholapur. It was commenced in 1819, the first American Mission in India. Its activities are large and varied. The staff at the beginning of 1927 consisted of 11 American and 10 Indian workers. Out-stations exist in 10 Churches, 1000 converts, and 6,400 communicants. There is a large work at Sholapur. The Educational work embraces 13 training and secondary schools, with 1,162 pupils and 140 primary schools, with 6,455 pupils, three-fifths of which are girls. A Theological College at Sholapur is under the Indian Ministry. Zealous and vigorous work is carried on, the latter embracing carpentry and lace work. A school for the blind is maintained at Sholapur, and Industrial work is carried on. The mission is first to translate the Christian scriptures into the Marathi tongue. At Sholapur, a settlement for Criminal Tribes is carried on under the supervision of Government. **Secretary:** Rev. William Hazen, M.A., Sholapur.

THE MADRAS MISSION.—In the south of the Presidency founded in 1834, has a staff of 65 missionaries and 972 Indian workers, operates in the Madras and Bangalore Districts and has a communicant roll of 4,803; and a total Christian community of 28,567 and 33 organized Churches most of which are entirely self-supporting and schools number 316 with 16,791 pupils. It is a First Grade College in Madras. Training schools for girls and hospitals for men and women. At Pasmalai, three miles from Madras, a high school, training school, theological institution, trade school and school of agriculture. Five elementary boarding schools are found in as many out-stations, industrial work is carried on. The curriculum of all schools is under the supervision of the Rev. **Secretary:** the Rev. J. Pasmalai.

THE ABCOT MISSION commenced under the American Board was transferred to the Reform Church of America in 1861.

THE UNION MISSION MEDICAL COLLEGE FOR SOUTH INDIA and a Union Mission Training School are located at Vellore, the head quarter of the Mission. The Union Mission Tuberculosis Sanitarium for S. India is near Madanapalle, Aragothvarum P. O., Chittoor Dist.

Secretary: Rev. W. H. Farrar Arul, S. India

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIETIES.

THE SCANDINAVIAN ALLIANCE MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA.—Embraces two Branches, one in Bengal and the other in Khandesh. The total mission staff is represented by 16 missionaries and 35 Indian workers. There are 70 communicants and a Christian community of 158. Twelve Elementary Schools provide for 250 pupils.

Secretaries: Rev. Paul Ringdahl, Yarnal East Khandesh; and Dover, Basse Durr, Bengal.

THE SWEDISH ALLIANCE MISSION.—Working among the Dhils in West Khandesh has 28 missionaries and 71 Indian workers. There are 8 congregations with a total membership of 974 of whom 590 are communicants. There are 3 Elementary Schools, 3 Training Schools and 1 School Home. The pupils in all schools are 382.

Secretary: Rev. E. N. Gustafson, Mandurbar, West Khandesh.

FINNISH CHURCH OF FINLAND MISSION.—Total Mission staff is represented by 8 Missionaries, 3 native Pastors, two Catechists, two Teachers. There are about 124 communicants and total community 400. There are two day schools, one evening school, one hospital, four dispensaries, Weaving and Hand-Carver industries.

Secretary: Miss T. Kronqvist, Lachen, via Gangtok, Sikkim State

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—Commenced work in India in 1798 and occupies 3 centres in N. India, 12 in S. India and 7 in Travancore. The Mission engages in every form of Missionary activity. The European staff numbers 153, Indian workers 3,860; Churches 520; Communicants 138,800.

1 Christian College, students 169; 1 Theological Training School, students 70; 4 Training Schools, 12 High Schools, 1,067 and 800 Elementary schools with 45,150 scholars. In medical work Hospitals number 6, Dispensaries 14, qualified doctors 7 European, 41 Assistants and 3,971 in patients and 174,808 out-patients for the year.

The main centres of the Mission in N. India are at Calcutta, and Benares. Evangelistic work is carried on amongst the thousands of pilgrims visiting Benares. Special efforts are

At Nagereol (Travancore) is the Scott Memorial College with 985 students, a Church

and a congregation on Sad to he are at in nda and a Pmtung Pes the centre f b 9 La an ore T t Soc. a. about 500 out. ganj Circular Road Calcutta. Denary Secretary The Rev. J. C. Jackson, London Mission, Bangalore, U.P.

ALL-INDIA MISSIONS.

THE CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.—Dates from the year 1883 under the name of the International Missionary Alliance, but a number of its missionaries were at work in Berar Province much earlier. Work is carried on in the Provinces of Berar, Khandesh, Gujarat. There is a staff of 75 missionaries and 145 Indian workers. The number of mission stations is 19, with additional out-stations. There is a Christian community of 2,906 adults. There are 2 for boys and 2 for girls. Indian workers and 1 Bhurawal.

Executive Secretary: Rev. W. Moyser, Akola, Berar, C.P.

THE CHURCH OF THE BROTHERS (AMERICAN).—Opened work in 1896, and operates in Broach, Surat and Thana Districts, also in Baroda and Rajppla States. Its staff number 80 foreign and 250 Indian members. on in 7. nales

under instruction 3,658. There are 56 Sunday Schools having 185 teachers and a total enrolment of 3,372. There were 28,115 baptisms in 1924. The foreign medical staff consists of five doctors, four nurses, and one medical Evangelist. At Unalia, Rajppla State, there is a Home for Babies with 37 inmates. Industrial work is carried on in six of the Boarding Schools, and a vocational training school was opened at Anklesvar in June 1924. Evangelistic, Temperance and Publicity work receives due emphasis; the "Gujarati Sunday School Quarterly" (2,800 copies) and the "Prakash Patra," a Christian monthly of 400 copies, are published. **Secretary:** L. A. Buckenstaff, Belsar, Surat District.

THE POONA AND INDIAN VILLAGE MISSION.—Founded in 1903. Mission Stations: Shivapur, Poona District; Nasrapur State, Poona District; Louand, M. S. M. Ry., Satara District; and Pandharpur, Shulapur District. The staff consists of 26 European and 34 Indian workers, with a community of about 25 Indian Christians and their families. The main work is evangelizing in the villages, women's zenana work, and primary education. Medical work is conducted at each station, with a hospital at Pandharpur. **Headquarters:** Nasrapur, Poona District. **Secretary:** J. W. Stothard.

THE AMERICAN CHURCHES OF GOD MISSION.—Has two missionaries at Boga, one at Khanapur, Boga District, Bengal, and two at Ulbaria, Howrah District.

Executive Secretary: Rev. Howard W. Coover, M.A., Boga, E.B.R.

Recording Secretary: Rev. A. E. Myers, B.A., Ulbaria, Howrah.

THE INDIA CHRISTIAN MISSION.—Founded in 1897, has 41 Organised Churches, 17 Missionaries, 43 stations, and out-stations, 1,750 Communicants, 45 Primary schools and one Industrial School in the Ellore District, also Bible Training Institute, Dattaballapur, near Bangalore, S. India, stations also in Nuvura Eliya, Mulbotha Pva Province and Polgashwella, Ceylon; Girls' Orphanage at Nuvura Eliya; Industrial School for children of mixed parentage, Nuvura Eliya. Total Christian community 4,092. **Director:** Rev. A. S. Paynter, Nuvura Eliya, Ceylon.

THE CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE MISSION.—Has its headquarters for Western India at Buldana, Berar, where it has a Boys' Boarding school. It also has fifty girls in school. This Mission also has three stations in Thana District, namely Khazul, Vashad, and Marbad. At present there are only seven missionaries in this part of India also 12 Indian preachers and 146 women.

President of the Council: Rev. A. D. Fritzman, Buldana, Berar.

The headquarters for Eastern India are at with an orphan : also about 11 in. This makes a total at present of 11 missionaries and about 43 Indian workers for The Church of The Nazarene in India.

President of the Council: Rev. G. F. Franklin, Kishorgani, Mysnadsingh District.

THE TANAKPUR AND LOHAGHAT BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION.—Was established in 1910. It is now carried on in Tanakpur and District : again been in Kumson and Kumson Railway, United Provinces.

THE HUPHIZIBAH FAITH MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION.—Has six missionaries. **Field Superintendent:** D. W. Zook, Adra, E. N. Ry.

THE TIBETAN MISSION.—Has 4 Missionaries with headquarters at Darjeeling, and Tibet as its objective. **Secretary:** Miss J. Ferguson, Darjeeling.

THE INDIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF TINNEVELLY (DOORAKAL MISSION).—Opened in 1904 operates in the Warangal District of the Nizam's Dominions as well as among the hill tribes called Pallars in the British and Travancore Hills. It is the missionary effort of the Tamil

THE MISSION TO LEPERS—Founded in 1874, is an inter-denominational and international Society for the establishment and maintenance of Homes and Institutions for Lepers and of their untainted children working in 15 countries but largely in India, China, Korea and Japan. Its work in India is carried on through co-operation with 30 Missionary Societies. In India alone the Mission now has 37 Asylums of its own with upwards of 5,000 inmates and is aiding or has some connection with work for lepers at 24 other places in India. Altogether in India over 7,000 lepers are being helped.

The Mission also provides for the segregation of the healthy children of lepers from their diseased parents. More than 800 children are thus being saved from becoming lepers.

An important feature of the work of the Mission is the measure of successful medical treatment whereby early cases both adults and children are now benefiting.

Most of the Mission's income is received from voluntary contributions. Some funds are raised in India, but the bulk of the money expended by the Mission in India, is received from Britain, although the provincial Governments give regular maintenance grants.

There is an Indian Auxiliary of the Mission to Lepers, of which H. M. Lady Wilson, who represents the Bombay Presidency, is a Vice-President.

Hon. Treasurer: Henry F. Lewis, Esq., 12, Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta.

The General Secretary of the Mission is Mr. W. H. Covent
... .. for India
... ..

THE MISSIONS BEYOND MISSIONARY UNION.—An inter-denominational Society commenced work at Motihari, Behar, in 1900, and now occupies 6 stations and 6 out-stations in the Champaran and Saran Districts, with a staff of 13 European and 2 Indian Missionaries and 33 other Indian workers. The Mission maintains 1 Hospital, 1 Girls' Orphanage, 1 Boys' Orphanage and Boarding School with Carpentry industrial department 11 M. E. School and 14 Primary Schools with 500 pupils. Communicants number 80. **Secretary:** Rev. Alex. L. Bulbs, Simsa, District Saran.

THE NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF INDIA—Established 1906, it has a staff of 23 Indian Missionaries and 86 helpers and Volunteers. Operates in Montgomery District (the Punjab), Nukkar Taluk (U. P.), Halmaghat, Mymensingh District (Bengal), Jharsasudah (B. & O.), North Kanara, Mirajgaon and Karmala Talukas (Bombay), Parkal Taluk (Nizam's Dominions) and Tirupattur Taluk (N. Arcot). Christian community over 7,000. Thirty-one Elementary Schools and 1 High School, one printing press, one Dispensary and one Hospital. Annual expenditure Rs. 70,000. Supported by Indian Christians of all denominations and

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at Re. 1 per year post free), *Qasvi* (a monthly journal in Persian Urdu) at Rs 2-8-0, *Deepehat* (a monthly journal in Tamil and Kanarese) at 8 as. per year, post free.

Address: N. M. S. Office, Vopery, Madras.
General Secretary: Rai Bahadur A. C. Mukerji, B.A. **Offy. Secretary:** Thos. David, B.A. B.D.

THE SEVENTH DAY ADVENTISTS.—The Seventh-day Adventists commenced mission work in India in 1893, and now employ a staff of approximately five hundred workers. European

... .. besides
work for English-speaking peoples in the large cities. For administrative purposes, the work is organised into four Union Missions located as follows:—

Burma Union Mission of S.D.A. (J. Phillips Superintendent). Office address: 1, Franklin Road, Rangoon.

North-East India Union Mission of S.D.A. (G. G. Lowry, Superintendent). Office address: 38, Park Street, Calcutta.

North-West India Union Mission of S.D.A. (A. H. Williams, Superintendent). Office address: 17, Abbott Road, Lucknow.

South India Union Mission of S.D.A. (A. W. Cormack, Acting Superintendent) Office address: Cunningham Road, Bangalore.

... .. for India and Burma
... .. Park, Poona (A. W. Torrey, Secretary and Post Box No. 10.

... .. is an up-to-date publishing house, devoted entirely to the printing of evangelical and associated literature. (Address: Oriental Watchman Publishing Association, Post Box No. 35, Poona). A large number of day and boarding vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools are conducted in different parts of the country; and at Vincent Hill School, Mussoorie, European education is provided, a regular high-school course, with more advanced work for commercial and other special students, being available. In all the denominational boarding schools increasing emphasis is being laid on vocational work, the students being required to share in the domestic work of the institutions, and in many cases to engage in some trades or other work. Seven physicians one maternity worker, (C.M.B.) and a number of qualified nurses are employed, regular medical work being conducted at fourteen stations. The baptized membership (adult) is 2,500, organised into 63 churches; and in addition a substantial community of enquirers is receiving systematic instruction. 203 Sabbath Schools are conducted with an enrolled membership of 4,207.

THE AMERICAN MENNONITE MISSION.—Established 1898, works in the C. Provinces. Mission staff numbers 32, Indian workers 80, Church members 1,200, 1 Industrial Training Institution, 1 High School, 1 Vernacular Middle School and 1 Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, 1 Normal School 1 Men's Home, 2 Homes for untainted children of lepers, 1 Bible School, 2

Orphanages 1 Widows' Home, 1 Leper Asylum; Elementary Schools, 9; Dispensaries, 6.

Secretary: Rev. J. N. Kaufman, Dhamtari, C. P.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCE—MENNONITE MISSION—Started in 1901 in the C. Provinces Workers number 19, Leper, Medical, Orphan, Zenana, Evangelistic and Educational work carried on. *Secretary:* Rev. P. W. Fender, Jangir, C. P.

THE KURKU AND CENTRAL INDIA HILL MISSION—Established 1890 in the C. P. and Berar, has a mission staff of 12, Indian workers 22, Churches 8, Communicants 183; Christian community 513; 2 Boarding schools with 88 boarders and 3 Elementary schools. *Secretary:* Rev. Carl Wyder, Ellichpur, Berar, C. P.

THE CRYLON AND INDIA GENERAL MISSION—Established 1892, occupies stations in India in Mysore State in the Coimbatore and Anantapur Districts and also stations in Panadura, Ceylon. Mission staff 81; Indian workers 145, Churches 13, with Communicants 664, and Christian community 2,529; Orphanages 5; Elementary schools 44; pupils 1,360.

Secretary: A. Scott, Kadiri S. India.

THE BOYS' CHRISTIAN HOME MISSION—Owes its existence to a period of famine, was commenced in 1899. Mission staff 17, Indian workers 125. There are elementary schools with three orphanages, two boys and one girl, and a Widows' Home, where Industrial training is given. There are four main stations—At Dhond, in the Poona District and at Bahraich, Orai and Benares in United Provinces. There are also 34 out-stations. *Director:* Rev. John E. Norton, Dhond, Poona District. *Secretary:* W. E. Norton, Benares, U. P.

Ladies' Societies.

ZENANA BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION.—This is an inter-denominational society, with headquarters 33, Surrey Street, London, working among women and girls in six stations in the Bombay Presidency, 10 in United Provinces, and 3 in the Punjab. There are 80 European Missionary ladies on the staff and 20 Assistant Missionaries, 199 Indian teachers and nurses and 53 Bible women. During 1925 there were 3,442 in-patients in the five hospitals supported by the Society (Nasik, Benares, Jaunpur, Lucknow and Patna), but the Victoria Hospital, Benares, was closed. There were 24,668 out-patients, 98,494 attendances at the Dispensaries. In their 33 schools were 2,833 pupils, and there is a University Department at Lahore. The evangelistic side of the work is largely done by house to house visitations and teaching the women in Zenanas, 1,385 women were regularly taught and 1,385 houses were visited. The 57 Bible women visited 450 villages; the number of houses was 1,988; major operations 575; minor operations 977; Total expenditure £ 57,015-14-7.

Hon. Treasurer: The Lord Meston of Dunottar.

Secretaries: Rev. Dr. Carter, Rev. E. S. Carr' M. A. (Hon.), and Miss E. Harriner.

WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE, WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED THE PUNJAB MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN—In 1884 the North India School of Medicine for Christian Women was opened in Ludhiana in order to give a Medical Education under Christian influences to Indian Women. Doctor Edith Brown, M.A., M.D., was its Founder and Principal. The School was inter-denominational, and trained students for various Missionary Societies.

Clinical work was at first given at the Charlotte Hospital which belonged to the Ludhiana Zenana and Medical Mission. The Memorial Hospital was opened in 1900, and has now 200 beds. In 1913 non-Christian Students were also admitted for training, and the name was modified to its present title given above.

In 32 years 160 medical students have qualified as doctors, besides compounders, nurses and dais. At present over 90 are in training as medical students, 18 as compounders, 50 as nurses and 38 as dais. New laboratories have been built for Clinical Pathology for Physiology and for Chemistry and Physics and new quarters for the Sisters and Nurses.

THE MISSIONARY SETTLEMENT FOR UNIVERSITY WOMEN was founded in Bombay in 1890 to reach the higher class of Indian ladies. Its activities now include a hostel for women students, in addition to educational, social, and evangelistic work, and a Holiday House for students and other ladies at Bordingholwad, B. B. & C. I. Ry. *Warden:* Miss Gedge, Vacchagandhi Road, P. O. 7, Bombay.

THE RAMABAI MUKTI MISSION (affiliated with the Christian and Missionary Alliance Mission in 1925) the well-known work of the late Pandita Ramabai, shelters about 800 deserted wives, widows and orphans, educating and fitting them to earn their living. The Mission is worked on Indian lines and carried on by Indian and European workers. Evangelistic work is carried on in the surrounding villages of Kedgeon, Poona District.

Disciple Societies.

The India Mission Disciples of Christ, under the United Christian Missionary Society, St. Louis, U.S.A., began work in India in 1882. It works in the Central Provinces and South United Provinces. There are 86 Missionaries including missionaries' wives and 349 Indian workers. There are 14 Organised Churches with the membership of 2,385. There is a Christian community of 4,117. There are 7 Hospitals and 12 Dispensaries in which 141,264 in-patients and out-patients were treated last year. Two Orphanages and Industrial Homes show 375 inmates. A Boarding School for girls and one for boys and 3 Hostels for boys show 501 inmates. 2 Leper Asylums have 160 inmates. A Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Pendra Road admitted 95 patients during the year. An Industrial School is conducted at Damoh in connection with which a 400 acre farm is used for practical work. In the Home for women and children at Kulpahar needle work, gardening, etc., are taught in connection with which a large business is done each year. The Mission

Press at Jubbulpore printed about 3,000,000 pages of Christian Literature. There is a High School; also 8 Middle Schools, 23 Primary Schools with about 3,000 pupils.

The Australian Branch has 3 Mission Stations in the Poona District. The Great Britain and Ireland Branch in Mirzapur District of U.P. and Pakamau District in Orissa. These two have no organised connection with the India Mission Disciples of Christ.

Secretary and Treasurer: W. H. Scott, Jubbulpore, C. P.

Undenominational Missions.

THE CENTRAL ASIAN MISSION. Objective: Salvation of Central Asia; from Afghanistan to Tibet (including N. E. portion of Peshawar District), North Kashmir, etc. Protestant Evangelical, Inter-denominational Headquarters in India, Madras, N. W. F. P.; in London 62 Lincoln's Inn Fields. Branch Stations. Daulapur, N. Kashmir, Shigar, Balistan. Forwaded and managed chiefly by officers who have served in Frontier parts.

THE FRIENDS' FOREIGN MISSION ASSOCIATION works in five stations of the Hoshangabad Division of the Central Provinces, and in two of the adjacent Bhopal State, and has also some work going on in that of Gwalior. There are 7 Churches, 9 missionaries, 173 members in full communion, 1,097 Christian adherents; 1 Boarding School for girls and 1 Industrial School for boys, 1 Anglo-Vernacular Middle School and 6 Primary Schools; and one hospital with dispensary attached and 1 village dispensary; a self supporting weaving community at Itarsi and a Farm Colony at Bhakoriya, in Hoshangabad District. *Secretary:* G. W. Maw, Itarsi, C. P.

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS' MISSION with 8 Missionaries is working in Bundelkhand. *Secretary:* Miss E. E. Baird. Nowgong, C. I.

THE OLD CHURCH HEBREW MISSION was established in 1858, in Calcutta, and is said to be the only Hebrew Christian Agency in India. *Secretary:* The Chaplain, 11, Mission Row, Calcutta.

THE OPEN BRETHREN—Occupy 46 stations in the U. Provinces, Bengal, S. Mahratta, Godavari, Delta, Kanarese, Tinnevely, Malabar Coast, Coimbatore and Nuzvid Districts. They held an annual Conference at Bangalore.

Lutheran Societies.

THE LUTHERAN SOCIETY OF THE UNITED LUTHERAN CHURCH IN AMERICA.—Formerly American Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Guntur and Rajahmundry. Work is conducted in the East Godavari, West Godavari, Krishna, Guntur, Nellore and Vizagapatnam Districts. Its Missionary staff consists of 106, including Missionaries' wives and 3,231 Indian workers. The baptised membership is 121,479. There are 928 Village Schools, 13 Boys, Boarding Schools, 6 Girls' Boarding School, 3 High Schools, a First Grade College with 600 students, 7 Bible and Secular Training Schools, a Theological Seminary, 1 Agricultural School, 5 Hospitals and 2 Mission Presses. *Chairman:* The Rev. G. A. Remy Rentchelsala, Guntur District.

THE EVANGELICAL NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN, founded in 1858, occupies the districts of Saugor, Betul, and Chhindwara in the Central Provinces there are about 2,300 Church members constituted into an indigenous Church with 12 local congregations. The European and Indian staff numbers 31 and 171 respectively. One Theological Seminary for training catechists and pastors, and one Training School for training Bible Women. 31 Day Schools with 1,330 children, 51 Sunday Schools with 821 Christian and 1,238 new Christian children. 9 Dispensaries with 24,687 patients during 1920-21. Workshops, one of them with an aided Carpenter School. One Female Industrial School, one Widows' Home, 7 Orphanages and one Boarding School for Christian children. At the end of 1926 there were 183 boys and 237 girls in these Institutions.

Secretary Rev. P. E. Froberg Chhindwara C. P.

THE KANARESE EVANGELICAL MISSION with Headquarters at Mangalore, South Kanara, was organised on January 1st, 1919, to take over the Mission work done formerly by the Basel Evangelical Mission in two of her fields, namely the Districts of South Kanara and South Mahratta. In 1926 a union was effected between the Home Boards at Lausanne and Basel, but as before Lausanne will be specially responsible for the two districts in their charge at present. The Missionaries and the Funds come from Switzerland. It is hoped that a few of the former Basel Missionaries will return to these Districts. The last available figures are: 12 chief stations and 50 outstations with a total missionary staff of 35 and 413 Indian workers. There are 48 organised congregations with a total membership of 12,824, which gave a total contribution of Rs. 16,107-1-11 for church and mission work. Educational work embraces 72 schools, of which there are 3 High Schools. The total number of scholars is 8,626.

Medical work is done at Betgeri, South Mahratta, with a full staff and a hospital and two branch hospitals and dispensaries. A Women's and Children's Hospital was opened in June 1923 at Udipi, South Kanara, and has been enlarged of late.

The Mission maintains a Home-Industrial Department for women's work and a large Publishing Department at Mangalore with a bookshop and a printing press occupying some 150 hands and doing work in many languages.

Ag. Secretary: The Rev. P. E. Burkhardt, Ph. D., Udipi, South Kanara.

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION was founded in 1874. Operated till 1915 in the Madras Tanjore, Trichinopoly and Ramnad Districts. Since 1915 the Mission having taken full charge of the former Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission field, working also in the Madras Chingleput, Coimbatore, Salem, S. Arcot District, with diaspora congregations in Rangoon, Penang, Kuala-Lumpur and Colombo.

J. E. L. M. (Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission) re-entered into the work, in 1927. Hence the Church of Sweden Mission now works in the Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Madras & Ramnad Districts with the diaspora.

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The Church (Tamil Evangelical Lutheran Church) was constituted on 1st January 1919 and is working in connection with the two Missions

CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION. European staff 3 Schools, 79; Teaching staff, 220; Pupils, Boys, 3,098; Girls, 1,247

President—Rev. J. Sandegren, M.A., B.D., Nilpakk, Madras.

LEIPZIG EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION. European staff, 11; Schools, 10; Teaching Staff 9; Pupils, Boys 1217; Girls, 669.

President. Rev. Provost Th. Meyner, Mylavaram.

INSTITUTIONS COMMON TO BOTH MISSIONS. School, 2; Teaching Staff, 10; Pupils, Boys, 72; Girls 320.

TAMIL EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN CHURCH Organised churches, 44; Ordained Indian Ministers, 37; Other Indian workers, 84; Baptized membership, 23,185; Baptized membership Schools, 241; Teaching staff, 490; Pupils 9,690 (Boys 7,885, girls 1,805).

President The Rt. Rev. Bishop D. Bexell Trichinopoly.

THE INDIA MISSION OF THE EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN SYNOD OF MISSOURI, OHIO AND CO. O.S. is located in North Arcot, Salem and Tinnevely Districts, in Travancore, in Cochin, and the Kolar Gold Fields, with 25 missionaries, 1 nurse, one deaconess-nurse (American), 1 doctor (Indian), 1 Zenana worker, 1 American teacher in charge of Missionary Home for children and 1 Lady educationist. Besides the three schools, there are one complete and one incomplete school, and among the 11 mentary. In addition to evangelistic and educational work, the Mission has now an up-to-date Dispensary and Lying-in Hospital with 18 beds in Ambur and a Theological Seminary (24 students, besides 4 students doing active field work). Secretary: Rev. R. W. Gours, Nagercoil, S. Travancore.

THE DANISH MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—Established 1863 in South Arcot, working there and in North Arcot, on the Shevaroy Hills and in Madras, has a total staff of 317 Indian and 47 European workers, Communicants 1,578, Christian community 4,671, 1 High School, 3 Boarding Schools, 2 Industrial Schools, 1 Orphanage, 2 Hostels and Elementary Schools 81 total scholars 4,130.

President: Rev. P. Lange, B.A., B.D., Nellukuppam, N. T.

Treasurer: Rev. K. Heiberg, B.A., B.D., 36, Broadway, Madras.

THE SANTAL MISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHURCHES (formerly known as the India Home Mission of the Santals)—Founded in 1867, works in the Santal Parganas, Goalpara (Assam), Malda and Dinajpur. Work is principally among the Santals. The mission staff numbers 27; Indian workers 480; communicants 4,000; Christian community 23,000; organised churches 36; boarding schools 4; pupils 508; elementary schools

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MISSIONS AND ENEMY TRADING ACT.—In May 1918, the following notice regarding Missions was published in the "Gazette of India"—"The following missions or religious associations are declared companies under Act 2 (the Enemy Trading Act) of 1916:—The Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Hermannsburg Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the ... Mission, ... Lutheran ... d Behar ... Lutheran Mission of Ranchi, Behar and Orissa. The Governor-General in Council notifies that the powers conferred under Section 7 of the said Act shall extend to the property, movable and immovable, of these missions or religious associations."

In June, 1919, the Government of India stated:—"Effect is already being given to the suggestion that enemy missions in India should be taken over by British Societies. The properties and undertakings of hostile missions have been vested in the Provisional Custodian of Enemy Property with a view to their transfer to boards of trustees composed partly of non-official members nominated by the National Missionary Council of India with the approval of the Government of India and partly of Government officials, and these Boards of Trustees will in due course transfer the undertakings and properties to a missionary society to be selected by them with the approval of the Governor-General in Council."

Methodist Societies.

The Methodist Episcopal Church is the organization in the United States of America which grew out of the Wesleyan revival in England and her American colonies during the latter part of the eighteenth century. This Church began its work in India in 1836, at first confining its activities to what is now the United Provinces. From that centre it spread until the outposts of its work were found in Baluchistan, Burma, Malaysia, Netherlands Indies and the Philippine Islands. In 1920 a rearrangement of the mission field of the Church separated India, Burma and Baluchistan into what is now known as the Southern Asia division. Within this present field the Church now has a total baptized Christian community of over half a million of whom approximately 20,000 were baptised the year ending with 1926.

The avowed task of the Church has been the uplift of the depressed classes, and its work has been largely among that class. As a matter of fact, however, it has large numbers who came from the Mohammedans and the caste Hindus, and among such its influence is extending.

The educational work of the Church is extensive, it having in this area a total of 1,301 schools of all grades, including three colleges, twenty-two high schools, and numerous normal training and the logical institutions. The registered attendants in these schools number 42,529.

Special efforts made for the instruction and development of the young people of the Church there now being 483 chapters of the Epworth League with 20,253 enrolled members, and 5,345 organized Sunday Schools with an enrolment 159,520.

The publishing interests of the Church are represented in two presses at Madras and Lucknow the former doing work in four vernaculars and the latter in six. The periodicals issued cover the interests of both the evangelistic and the educational field, the Indian Witness, the Junior Methodist and Methodist Education being in English, while the Kankab-i-Hind, the Raqq-i-Niswan, the Bal Hit Karak, and other periodicals for women and children are issued in several of the vernaculars.

The governing body of the Church is the General Conference held quadrennially in America in which the ten conferences now existing in India are represented by twenty-eight delegates. The polity of the Church in India looks forward to complete independence under the general governing body, there at present being but about three hundred and fifty American men and women as compared to 430 ordained and 3,162 unordained Indian and Burmese workers. At present the area is divided into seventy-two districts each in charge of a superintendent and among whom are many Indians. The work is supervised by four Bishops, elected by the General Conference, and resident as follows: Bishop Frank W. Warne, Bangalore; Bishop John W. Robinson, Delhi; Bishop Frederick B. Fisher, Calcutta; and Bishop Brenton T. Badley, Bombay.

THE AMERICAN WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSION, Sanjan, Thana District Headquarters. Stations with missionaries, Danda, Maroli, var Nargol, Thana District. Vapi (Daman Road Station), Surat District. Pardi 6, Surat District. Six missionaries on field. Two on furlough. One under appointment. Four main stations. Two boarding schools. One industrial school. One Bible school. Six village schools. Superintendent. C.B. Harvey, Sanjan, Thana District.

THE REFORMED EPISCOPAL CHURCH OF AMERICA at Latipur and Lucknow, U. P., has 2 Missionaries, 4 Outstations, 1 Hospital, 2 Orphanages and a membership of nearly 100.

The Methodist Protestant Mission began work in India in 1919, has a staff of seven missionaries, and one under appointment. The work is confined to Dhulia Taluka, with

on Ian s on Dh a Th two b a d g s hoo d s e a n t c work and m dical work. Secretary: Miss Mildred Miskinen, Dhulia, West Khandesh.

THE WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY commenced work in India in 1817 (Ceylon in 1814). The Mission in India, apart from Ceylon, is organised into 7 District Synods with 2 Provincial Synods. There is a large English work connected with the Society, 20 ministers giving their whole time to Military work and English churches.

The districts occupied include 68 main stations in Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Bombay Punjab, Central Provinces, Hydrabad (Nizam's Dominions), United Provinces and Burma. The Burma Synod has recently been attached to the Ceylon Provincial Synod for purposes of administration. Its statistics are no longer included in this statement. The European staff numbers 102 with 75 Indian Ministers and 791 Indian workers; Communicants 18,518, and total Christian community 101,245. There are 7 large numbers of organised Churches many of which are self-supporting.

Educational work comprises 3 Christian Colleges, students, 2,033; 5 Theological Institutions, students, 329; 7 High Schools, pupils 3,427, 14 Industrial schools, pupils, 400; 923 Elementary schools, with 26,180 scholars. In Medical work there are 8 hospitals, 12 dispensaries, 1,127 in-patients and 65,431 out-patients.

The Women's Auxiliary carry on an extensive work in the places occupied by the W. M. S. There are 93 women workers from abroad of whom 16 are qualified doctors. The Indian women workers number 382. There are 109 girls' day schools with 13,377 pupils and 23 boarding schools with 1,979 boarders. There are several philanthropic institutions for the rescue and training of women. The Women's Auxiliary manage 12 hospitals and 9 dispensaries, which had 8,041 in-patients and 97,533 out-patients. The cost of the work to the Women's Auxiliary in 1925 was nearly £ 25,000.

THE FREE METHODIST MISSION of North America—Established at Yeotmal, 1893, operates in Berar with a staff of 19 Missionaries and 42 Indian workers. Organised churches 4, 1 Theological school and 5 Elementary schools, and 2 Anglo-Vernacular schools and Dispensaries 3. Secretary: Rev. Elizabeth Moreland, Yeotmal, Berar.

THE SALVATION ARMY.

For many years the operations of the Salvation Army in India were under the immediate direction of eight Territorial Commanders, in part responsible to Commissioner Booth-Tucker, as Special Commissioner for India, and in part to International Headquarters. The General recently decided to divide the country into four distinct Commands, each under its own Territorial Commissioner and directly responsible to International Headquarters.

Northern India.—The area under this command is the S. A. work in the whole of the Punjab and the United Provinces with Headquarters at Lahore.

In addition to an extensive evangelistic work in the Punjab, and in several centres in the United Provinces, there are a number of Settlements for the Criminal Tribes in the United Provinces (where this important work was first introduced) and several also in the Punjab.

In the Punjab situated an agricultural settlement on a strip of a large tract of 8000 acres, in which they were gradually acquiring proprietary rights, the Government having given it to the Salvation Army on easy terms. This is proving to be very successful.

The oversight of a large tract of country in the Punjab, comprising some two thousand acres of land, has been handed to the Salvation Army, for the purpose of establishing a Colony.

Other industries include Weaving Schools, Agricultural, and Fruit Farms, Day and Boarding Schools, a Home for stranded Europeans, and for British Military Soldiers, 2 Hospitals and 4 Dispensaries.

Village Centres occupied, 1,783; Officers, and Employees, 572; Social Institutions, 23.

Territorial Headquarters: S. A., Ferozepore Road, Lahore, Punjab.

Territorial Commander: Colonel Himmat Singh (Baugh).

Chief Secretary: Lt.-Colonel Dilori Singh (Melling).

Western India.—The three Territories of Bombay, Guzerat, and Maratha now form the Territory of Western India.

Besides the distinctly evangelistic operations, there are established a large General Hospital—Thomas Emery Memorial—several Dispensaries, at which during the year about 20,000 patients are treated, over 210 Day and Boarding Schools, a Home for Juvenile Criminals, an Industrial and Rescue Home for Women, conditionally Released Prisoners' Home, Weaving Schools, a Factory for Weaving, Warping, and Reeling Machines, and a Land Colony having a population of some hundreds of Salvationists.

Corps, 310; Outposts, 475; Officers, 526, of whom 461 are Indian; employees and teachers, 32, Social Institutions, 16.

Territorial Headquarters: S. A., Moreland Road, Byculla, Bombay.

Territorial Commander: Commissioner Horskins.

Madras and Telugu Territory.—This Territory comprises the city of Madras and work situated in the Nellore, Guntur, Kistna and West Godavari Districts of the Northern Circars of the Madras Presidency, also Bangalore.

There are the following agencies at work:—257 Corps and outposts, *viz.*, places in which work is systematically done.

1500 Pupils in 4 Schools, 4 Seminars for Criminal Tribes, 1 Rescue Home, 1 Silk Farm, where some 60 boys are being instructed in the various branches of sericulture, 2 institutions for the training of officers and 3 boarding school for boys and 1 for girls.

1 Trading Department, where cloth, leather goods, furniture, carpets, silk, lace, etc. the products of Industrial Institutions, are disposed of.

Territorial Headquarters: The Salvation Army, Broadway, Madras.

Territorial Commander: Colonel N. Muthiah.

Chief Secretary: Major E. Maslin.

The South Indian Territory of the Salvation Army comprises the vast stretch of country to the south of the line drawn from Pondicherry, skirting the State of Mysore, to the most southerly point of Bombay Presidency, though the real sphere of operations is in Travancore, that in Cochin and in Tinnevely District adjoining Travancore. The work had a very humble beginning in Travancore being commenced principally for the well-being of the coolies and the labourers, but it has gradually increased and extended. The entire inhabitants of certain villages have become Salvationists and to-day representatives of the Army are carrying on the work in 1,150 different villages. In connection with the work in the villages a number of Village Halls have been erected, also several Officers' Quarters.

In the villages round Nagercoil a number of women have been taught lace making and needlework; also a similar industry is being carried on at Neyyattinkam. The Medical work plays an important part in the work of the Salvation Army. Major (Dr) Noble is in charge of this branch, which consists of the mother Hospital known as the Catherine Booth Hospital, and seven branch Hospitals. As the Major is on furlough, Doctor Rendle is now in charge of the Hospital assisted by Doctor Round. Since last year the work has been increased by the installation of the X-Ray and Diathermy apparatus.

There are 1,149 Corps and Outposts, &c. villages in which work is systematically carried on; 1,009 Officers and teachers, 302 Day Schools, 3 Boarding Schools, 1 Hostel, 4 Training Garrisons and 2 Homes of Rest for European and Indian Officers.

Territorial Headquarters: The Salvation Army Kuravancanam, Trivandrum.

Territorial Commander: Colonel (Mrs) A. Trounce.

Laws and the Administration of Justice

The indigenous law of India is personal and divisible with reference to the two great classes of the population, Hindu and Mahomedan. Both systems claim divine origin and are inextricably interwoven with religion, and each exists in combination with a law based on custom. At first the tendency of the English was to make their law public and territorial, and on the establishment of the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1773 and the advent of English lawyers as judges, they proceeded to apply it to Europeans and Indians alike. This error was rectified by the Declaratory Act of 1780, by which Parliament declared that as against a Hindu the Hindu law and usage, and as against a Mahomedan the laws and customs of Islam should be applied. The rules of the Shastras and the Koran have been in some cases altered and relaxed. Instances can be found in the Bengal Sati Regulation Act of 1829; the Indian Slavery Act, 1843; the (aste Disabilities Removal Act of 1850; the Hindu Widows' Remarriage Act, 1856; and other Acts and Codes. To quote the Imperial Gazetteer, "A certain number of the older English statutes and the English common law are to a limited extent still in force in the Presidency Towns as applicable to Europeans, while much of the old Hindu and Mahomedan law is everywhere personal to their native fellow subjects; but apart from these, and from the customary law, which is as far as possible recognised by the Courts, the law of British India is the creation of statutory enactments made for it either at Westminster or by the authorities in India to whom the necessary law-giving functions have from time to time been delegated."

Codification.

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing." The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed, of which Lord Macaulay was the spirit, to prepare a penal code. Thirteen years elapsed before it became law, during which period it underwent revision by its successors in the Law Membership, and especially by Sir Barnes Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860, was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of British India is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the code." The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The Code of Civil Procedure was remodelled in 1908 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes are now in force.

Statute Law Revision.

In October, 1921, a committee was appointed under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. A. P. Muddiman, I.C.S., to deal with the question of statute law revision. The functions of the Committee are to prepare for the consideration of Government such measures of consolidation and clarification, as may be necessary to secure the highest attainable standard of formal perfection in the statute law of India. In several branches of the law consolidation has long been overdue, and it is suggested that the preparation of a Bill consolidating the existing law relating to merchant shipping, with such amendments therein as are necessitated or rendered desirable by the enactment of the English statutes since 1894 on the same subject should form the first duty undertaken by the Committee. Under the conditions resulting from the establishment of the reformed Constitution, increasing importance will attach hereafter to the periodical examination and revision of the Statute Book and the Government of India hope that the Committee will take its place as a permanent feature of the legislative machinery of the country.

European British Subjects.

Whilst the substantive criminal law is the same for all classes, certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects. Until 1872 European British subjects could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. It was then enacted that European British subjects should be liable to be tried for any offences by magistrates of the highest class, who were also justices of the peace, and by judges of the Sessions Courts; but it was necessary in both cases that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European British subject. In 1883 the Government of India announced that they had decided to settle the question of jurisdiction over European subjects in such a way as to remove from the Code of Criminal Procedure and completely every judicial provision which is based merely on race. This decision, embodied in the Criminal Procedure Code, 1898, caused a storm of indignation which is still remembered. The controversy ended in a compromise which is thus summarised by Sir John Strachey ("India"). "The controversy ended with the virtual, though not avowed, abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government. Act III of 1884 by which the law previously in force was amended, cannot be said to have diminished the privileges of European British subjects charged with offenses, and it left their position as exceptional as before. The general disqualification of native judges and magistrates remains, but if a native of India be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge, his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects are the same as those of an Englishman holding the same office. This provision however is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought for trial before the district magistrate or sessions judge has the right, however trivial be the offence, to claim to be tried by a jury of

not less than half the number shall be Europeans or Americans..... Whilst this change was made in the powers of district magistrates, the law in regard to other magistrates remained unaltered." Since 1838 no distinctions of race have been recognised in the civil courts throughout India.

After a discussion on this subject in the Legislative Assembly in September 1921, the following motion was adopted:—"That in order to remove all racial distinctions between Indians and Europeans in the matter of their trial and punishment for offences, a committee be appointed to consider what amendments should be made in the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1893, which differentiate between Indians and European British subjects and American and Europeans who are not British subjects in criminal trials and proceedings and to report on the best methods of giving effect to their proposals." As a result of the recommendations of the Racial Distinctions Committee the law on the subject was further modified, and by the Criminal Law Amendment Act XII of 1923 in place of the old Chapter XXXIII (35443-463) the new Chapter XXXIII (50448-449) with certain supplementary provisions were substituted. This has in some measure reduced the differences between the trials of Europeans and of Indians under the Code.

High Courts.

The highest legal tribunals in India are the High Courts of Judicature. These were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for the United Provinces and the Punjab superseding the old supreme and Sadar Courts. More recently High Courts have been constituted for Latna and Rangoon as well. The Judges are appointed by the Crown: they hold office during the pleasure of the Sovereign; at least one third of their number are barristers, one third are recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for the appointment of Indian lawyers. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits in India.

For other parts of India High Courts have been formed under other names. The chief difference being that they derive their authority from the Government of India, not from Parliament. In Burma there is a Chief Court, with three or more judges; in the other provinces the chief appellate authority is an officer called the Judicial Commissioner. In Sindh the Judicial Commissioner is termed Judge of the Sudder Court and has two colleagues.

The High Courts are the Courts of appeal from the superior courts in the districts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final, except in cases in which an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council and is heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. The High Courts exercise supervision over all the subordinate courts. Returns are regularly sent to them at short intervals and the High Courts are able by the returns by sending for the returns by calling to

explanations, as well as from the cases that come before them in appeal, to keep themselves to some extent acquainted with the manner in which the courts generally are discharging their duties.

Lower Courts.

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal court-styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every province, outside the Presidency towns, is divided into sessions divisions consisting of one or more districts and every sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with assistance if need be. These stationary sessions courts take the place of the English Assizes, and are competent to try all accused persons duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but sentences of death are subject to confirmation by the highest court of criminal appeal in the province. Magistrates' courts are of three classes with descending powers. Provision is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates, in the Presidency towns Presidency magistrates deal with magisterial cases and benches of Justices of the Peace or honorary magistrates dispose of the less important cases.

Trials before courts of session are either with assessors or juries. Assessors assist, but do not bind the judge by their opinions, on juries the opinion of the majority prevails if accepted by the presiding Judge. The Indian Law allows considerable latitude of appeal. The prerogative of mercy is exercised by the Governor-General-in-Council and the Local Government concerned without prejudice to the superior power of the Crown.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district as District Judge he presides in its principal civil court of original jurisdiction; his functions as Sessions Judge have been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of India. The civil courts, below the grade of District Judge, are almost invariably presided over by Indians. There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs. 500. In the Presidency Towns, where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Cause Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs. 2,000. As Insolvency Courts the chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns. In the mofussil similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Insolvency Act of 1906.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers unaided by jurors.

Legal Practitioners.

Legal practitioners in India are divided into Law Agents of the High Courts, Vakils and Attorneys Solicitors of High Courts,

and Pleaders, Mukhtars and revenue agents, Barristers and Advocates are admitted by each High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts; and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the chartered High Courts. Vakils are persons duly qualified who are admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel prevails only on the original side of certain of the High Courts. Pleaders practise in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts.

Organisation of the Bar.

At Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there is a Bar Committee presided over, *ex-officio*, by the Advocate-General. This body is elected by the barristers practising in each High Court, and its functions are to watch the interests of the Bar and to regulate its etiquette. At Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpur, and Rangoon a similar Bar Committee exists, but the electorate is extended to include the vakils or native pleaders, and the president is either the senior presiding member of the Bar or the Government Advocate. In the larger Districts and Sessions Courts, an organisation representing the Bar is usually to be found, and in the subordinate Courts, including the Revenue Courts, similar machinery is generally in use. Pending an opportunity of detailed inquiries in India, these general descriptions must suffice. The recommendations of the Indian Bar Committee of 1923 relating to the various High Courts have been recently
Courts Act XXXVIII of 1926.

Composition of the Bar.

A considerable change is occurring in the composition of the Indian Bar. The following extract from an informing article in the *Times* (May 25, 1914) indicates the character and incidence of this development. "During the last forty years, a striking change has taken place in the professional class. The bulk of practice has largely passed from British to Indian hands, while, at the same time, the profession has grown to an enormous extent. One typical illustration may be quoted. Attached to the Bombay High Court in 1871 there were 28 solicitors, of whom 10 were Indian and 28 English, and 24 advocates, of whom 7 were Indian and 17 English. In 1911, attached to the same High Court, there were 150 solicitors, of whom more than 130 were Indian and the remainder English, and 250 advocates, of whom 16 only were English and the remainder Indian."

Law Officers.

The Government of India has its own law colleague in the Legal Member of Council. All Government measures are drafted in this department. Outside the Council the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Advocate-General of Bengal, who is appointed by the Crown, is the leader of the local Bar, and is always nominated a member of the Provincial Legislative Council. In Calcutta he is assisted by the Standing Counsel

and the Government Solicitor. There are Advocates-General and Government Solicitors for Bombay and Madras, and in Bombay there is attached to the Secretariat a Legal Remembrancer and an Assistant Legal Remembrancer drawn from the Judicial Branch of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of Bengal consults the Bengal Advocate-General, the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor, and has besides a Legal Remembrancer (a Civil Servant) and a Deputy Legal Remembrancer (a practising barrister); the United Provinces are equipped with a civilian Legal Remembrancer and professional lawyers as Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate; the Punjab has a Legal Remembrancer, Government Advocate and a Junior Government Advocate; and Burma a Government Advocate, besides a Secretary to the Local Legislative Council.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Courts of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing, the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of the Court.

Law Reports.

The Indian Law Reports are now published in seven series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna, Lahore and Rangoon under the authority of the Governor-General in Council. They contain cases determined by the High Court and by the Judicial Committee on appeal from the particular High Court. These appeals raise questions of very great importance, and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales show their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume, and have also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1893. The other Provinces and States have series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

Legislative Power.

The supreme power of Parliament to legislate for the whole of India cannot be questioned in practice, however, this power is little used, there being a majority of officials on the Imperial Legislative Council—a majority deliberately reserved in the India Councils Act of 1909—the Secretary of State is able to impose his will on the Government of India and to secure the passage of any measure he may frame, regardless of the opinion of the Indian authorities. Legislative Councils have been established both for the whole of India and for the principal provinces. Their constitution and functions are fully described in detailing the powers of the Imperial and Provincial Councils (q.v.) To meet emergencies the Governor-General is vested with the power of issuing ordinances, having the same force as Acts of the Legislature, but they can remain in force for only six months. The power is very little used. The Governor-General-in-Council is also empowered to make regulations, having all the cogency of Acts, for the more backward parts of the country, the object being to bar the operation of the general law and permit the application of certain enactments only.

Bengal Judicial Department

Rankin, The Honble Sir George Claus, Kt., K.C., Bar-at-Law.	Chief Justice.
Williams, The Honble Mr. Justice Leith	Police Judge.
Choudh, Honble Mr. Justice Chait Chandra, Kt., Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Blackburn, The Honble Mr. Justice Philip Lindsay, Kt., Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Sahastrachari, The Honble Sir Justice Zakimdar Rahim Zaidi, Kt., Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Peacock, The Honble Mr. Justice Herbert Grayhurst, Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Choudh, The Honble Mr. Justice Begim Behari, M.A., B.L.	Ditto. (On leave.)
Parsons, The Honble Mr. Justice Edward Brook-Henderson, F.R.S.	Ditto. (Do.)
Pear, The Honble Mr. Justice Arthur, Kt., Bar-at-Law.	Ditto. (On leave.)
Chotung, The Honble Mr. Justice Alfred James, F.R.S.	Ditto. (Do.)
Duval, The Honble Mr. Justice Herbert Phillips, M.A., M.B., F.R.S., Bar-at-Law.	Ditto. (Do.)
Mukherji, The Honble Mr. Justice Manmatha Nath M.A., B.L.	Ditto.
Costello, The Honble Mr. Justice Leonard William James, M.A., B.L., F.R.S.	Ditto.
Graham, The Honble Mr. Justice John Eril, F.R.S.	Ditto.
Cambridge, The Honble Mr. Justice Paul Eugene, F.R.S.	Ditto. (Additional.)
Mitra, The Honble Mr. Justice Dwarkanath, M.A., B.L.	Ditto. (Additional.)
Mittra, B. L., Bar-at-Law	Advocate-General.
Gooding, G. C.	Government Solicitor.
Liddell, H. C., F.R.S.	Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Krupalkat, N. A., Bar-at-Law	Deputy Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Dwarkanath Chakrabarti, M.A., B.L.	Senior Government Pleader.
Sachin, Raj Bahadur Tarak Nath	Public Prosecutor, Calcutta.
Ram Das, Baouice	Registrar.
Chatterji, N. M.B.	Master and Official Referee.
Sarkis Mitra Chandra	Registrar in Insolvency.
Jones, G., Bar-at-Law	Clerk of the Crown for Criminal Sessions.
Mitra, Hon Chandra, F.A., B.L.	Secretary to the Chief Justice and Head Clerk, Deans Department.
Stork, H. C., F.R.S.	Registrar and Taxing Officer, Appellate Jurisdiction.
Tommas, Frank Bertram	Deputy Registrar.
Kinney, Alexander	Administrator-General and Official Trustee.
Patterson, K. K. Shetty, Bar-at-Law	Official Receiver.
Lalster, George McDonald	Official Assignee.
Bose, B.L., Bar-at-Law	Editor of Law Reports.

Bombay Judicial Department.

Carten, The Hon. Sir Ambrose B.	Chief Justice.
Lawrence, Sir Charles Gordon Hill	Police Judge.
Cromp, The Honble Sir Louis Charles, F.R.S.	Ditto.
Keppel, The Hon. Mr. Norman Widdall, Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Blackwell, The Hon. Mr. C. P., Bar-at-Law,	Ditto.
Madhanskar, G. D., The Hon. Mr. F.R.S.	Ditto. (Ag.)
Mirza Ali Akbar Khan M.A., F.R.S., The Hon. Mr. (Ag.)	Ditto. (Addl.)
Baker, The Hon. Mr. W. T. W., F.R.S.	Ditto.
Pattar, The Hon. Mr. Sivaram Sunderrao, B.A., B.L., B.	Ditto.
Edwards, The Hon. Mr. K. S., Bar-at-Law	Ditto. (Addl.)
Kanga, Jambhaji Chhatrapati, M.A., F.R.S.	Advocate-General.
Balak Ram, F.R.S.	Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Arko-Smith, A.	Government Solicitor and Public Prosecutor.

Bombay Judicial Department—*contd*

Vakil, J. H., Bar-at-Law	Clerk of the Crown.
Kemp, K. Mac I., Bar-at-Law	Reporter to the High Court.
Mitchell, H. C. Esq.	Official
Phirozshah Behramji Malibari, Bar-at-Law	of Companies, and
Hirjibhai Kormasji Wadia, M.A.	Secretary and Admi-
	nistrator of Equity and
	Accounts and
	and Taxing
	Officer.
Nassarwanji Dinshabji Gharda, B.A., LL.B.	Deputy Registrar and Sealer, Appellate
	Side, and Secretary to Rules Committee,
	Acting Registrar, Appellate Side.
	(On leave).

COURT OF THE JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER OF SIND.

Parcival, Philip Edward, O.K., B.A., I.O.S.	Judicial Commissioner.
Aston, Arthur Henry Southcott, M.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Rupchand Bhataram	Ditto.
DeSouza, Dr. F. X., M.A., LL.B., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.

Madras Judicial Department.

Trotter, The Hon'ble Mr. Victor Murray Coultas ..	Chief Justice.
Odgers, The Hon. Mr. Charles Edwin, M.A., B.L.C., ..	Puisne Judge.
Bar-at-Law	Ditto.
Wallace, The Hon. Mr. E. H., I.C.S.	Ditto.
Ramesam Pantulu, The Hon. Mr. V.	Ditto.
Phillips, The Hon. Mr. William Watkins, I.C.S.	Ditto.
Kumaramaia Sastry, The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur C. V. ..	Ditto.
(On leave)	Ditto.
Devadas, The Hon. Mr. Justice A. D., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Venkata Suba Rao, The Hon. Mr. Justice M., B.A., B.L.	Ditto.
Madhavan Nair C., Bar-at-Law	Ditto.
Srinivasa Ayyangar, The Hon. Mr. Justice V.V., B.A., B.L.	Ditto. (Temporary).
Gurgenven, The Hon. Mr. A. J.	(Acting.)
Jackson, The Hon. Mr. G. H. B., I.O.S.	(Do.)
Venkatarama Sastry, T. A.	Advocate-General.
Morseby, Charles	Government Solicitor.
C. V. Ananta Krishna Iyer	Government Pleader.
Adam J. D., Bar-at-Law	Public Prosecutor.
Tirunarayana Achariyar, M.A.	Editor, Indian Law Reports, Madras
	Series.
Cornish, H. P.	Administrator-General, Official Trustee
	and Custodian of Enemy Property.
Happell, A. C., I.C.S.	Registrar.
Madhava Menon, K. T., Bar-at-Law	Crown Prosecutor.

Assam Judicial Department.

Raz, B. N.	Secretary to Government, Legisla-
	tive Department, and Secretary to the
	Assam Legislative Council. Superin-
	tendent and Remembrancer of Legal
	Affairs. Administrator-General and
	Official Trustee.
Dow, Thomas Miller	Officiating District and Sessions Judge.
Blank, Abraham Lewis	Sylhet and Cachar.
	Sessions Judge,
	(Temporary),
	District and
	Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.
Ghosh, Durga Prasad	Officiating and Additional District and
	Sessions Judge, Sylhet.
Sen, Jagadish Chandra	Officiating and Additional District and
	Sessions Judge, Sylhet.
Phukan, Rai Bahadur Radha Nath	Officiating Additional District and
	Sessions Judge, Assam Valley Dis-
	tricts, (Temporary.)

Bihar and Orissa Judicial Department.

Miller, The Hon. Sir Thomas Frederick Dawson ..	Chief Justice. (On leave).
Jwal Prasad, The Hon'ble Sir, Kt., Rai Bahadur ..	Deputy Judge.
Adam, The Hon. Mr. Justice Leonard Christian, I.C.S. ..	Ditto. (On leave).
Pratulla Ranjan Dass, The Hon. Mr., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto. (On special duty).
Mullick, The Hon'ble Sir Basanta Kumar, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Ross, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Robert Lindsay, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Wort, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Alfred William Ewart, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Singh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kulwant ..	Acting Additional Judge.
Allanson, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Llewellyn Lyons, I.C.S. ..	Acting Judge.
William, H. W. I.C.S. ..	Registrar.
Satyajit Suman Ahmed, Sn., Kt., Bar-at-Law. ..	Government Advocate.

Burma Judicial Department.

Rutledge, The Hon'ble Sir John Guy, Kt., K.C., M.A., Bar-at-Law. ..	Chief Justice, Rangoon.
Pratt, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Henry Sheldon, M.A., I.C.S. ..	Justice, Mandalay.
Beall, The Hon'ble Sir Benjamin Herbert, Kt., M.A., I.C.S., V.D. ..	Do. Rangoon.
Carr, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice William, I.C.S. ..	Do. do.
Cunliffe, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John Robert Ellis, Bar-at-Law. ..	Do. do.
Chari, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Parangasur Nannamtha, B.L. ..	Do. do.
Doe, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Jyoti-Ramjan, Bar-at-Law. ..	Do. do.
Outer, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Robert Edward, M.A., Bar-at-Law. ..	Do. do.
Ba, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Maung A S.M., I.C.S. ..	Do. do.
Ba, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mya, Bar-at-Law ..	Do. do.
Brown, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Harold Arrowood, B.A., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law. ..	Do. do.
Horinagji Jivanji, M.A., I.C.S., LL.B., Bar-at-Law ..	Administrator-General, Official Trustee, Official Assignee and Receiver, Rangoon.
Esger, A., M.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Government Advocate.
Barretto, Charles Lionel, Advocate ..	Government Prosecutor, Moulmein.
Dunkley, Herbert Francis, M.A., Bar-at-Law. ..	Registrar, High Court, Rangoon.

Central Provinces Judicial Department.

Tindley, Charles Stewart, M.A., LL.B., I.C.S. ..	Judicial Commissioner.
Halliday, H. K., I.C.S. ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Kotwal, P. A., Bar-at-Law ..	Do. do.
Prideaux, F. W. A., O.B.E. ..	Do. do.
Kinbede, Rao Bahadur Madhorao, B.A., B.L. ..	Do. do. (Temporary).
Jackson, R. J. ..	Legal Remembrancer.
Dick, George Paris, C.I.E., Bar-at-Law ..	Government Advocate.
Lhagade, Shridhar Madho, B.A., B.L. ..	Registrar.
Abdul Latif Khan, B.A., LL.B. ..	Deputy Registrar.

N.-W. Frontier Province Judicial Department.

Fraser, J. H. R., O.B.E. ..	Officiating Judicial Commissioner.
Saadat Din Khan, K. B., B.A., LL.B. ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Kazi Abdul Ghani Khan ..	Registrar.

Punjab Judicial Department.

Khadi Lal, The Hon'ble Sir R. D., Kt., Bar-at-Law ..	Chief Justice.
Broadway, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Alan Bruce, Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Hartikon, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Michael Harman, I.C.S.	Puisne Judge.
Worke, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Cecil (King's Counsel).	Ditto.
Cummbell, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Archibald, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Zafar Ali, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice K.B. Mirza, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Addison, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice James M.A., B.Sc., I.C.S.	Ditto.
Tek Chand, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bakshi ..	Ditto.
Jai Lal, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice R. B. ..	Additional Ditto.
Dalip Singh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kanwar, Bar-at-Law	Ditto.
Agha Haider, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Syed Bar-at-Law (Temporary)	Ditto.
Skemp, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice F.W. ..	Ditto.
Beckett, Ronald Baymer, B.A., I.C.S. ..	Registrar
Roblin, Edward Lewis ..	Deputy Registrar.
Nihal Chand, Rai Sahib, Lala ..	Assistant Registrar
Wohl, Kenneth Cameron ..	Assistant Deputy Reg
Blide, ..	Legal Remembrancer
Noad, ..	Government Advocate
Ram L. ..	Assistant Legal (Conveyancing)
Abdul Rashid Mian, B.A. (Punjab), M. B. (Cantab)	Assistant Legal (Litigative)
Des Raj, Sawhney, Bar-at-Law ..	Public Prosecutor, B

United Provinces Judicial Department.

Mears, The Hon. Sir Edward Grimwood, Bar-at-Law ..	Chief Justice.
Walsh, The Hon. Mr. Cecil, Bar-at-Law, M.A. ..	Puisne Judge.
Sulaiman, The Hon. Justice Dr. Shah Muhammad, Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Lindsay, The Hon. Mr. Benjamin, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Stuart, The Hon. Mr. Louis, O.E., I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Kanhaiya Lal, The Hon. Justice Rai Bahadur, Pandit, M.A., LL.B.	Ditto.
Dandels, Hon. Mr. Justice S. R., I.C.S. ..	Ditto. (On Furlough)
Dawal, The Hon. Mr. Justice Barjor Jamshedji, J. P., Bar-at-Law.	Ditto.
Bora, The Hon. Mr. Justice G. P., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Mukharji, The Hon. Justice Rai Bahadur Lal Gopal ..	Ditto.
Banerji, The Hon. Justice Rai Bahadur Baba Lalit Mohan	Ditto.
Ashworth, The Hon. Mr. Justice Ernest Horatio, I.C.S.	Additional Puisne Judge
Ismail Ahmed, The Hon. Mr. Justice ..	Ditto. do.
Kendal, Hon. Mr. Justice C.E.B., J.P., I.C.S. ..	Acting Puisne Judge.
J. E. Podley, I.C.S. ..	Registrar.
Porter, Wilfred King, Bar-at-Law ..	Law Reporter.
Uma Shankar Bajpai, M.A., LL.B. ..	Government Advocate.

CHIEF COURT OF OUDH—LUCKNOW.

Stuart, The Hon. Sir Louis, Kt., O.E., I.C.S. ..	Chief Judge.
Wazir Hassan, The Hon. Justice Saïyid, D.A., LL.B.	Judge.
Ashworth, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Ernest Horatio J.P., I.C.S.	Do. Additional J.P.
Gokaran Nath Misra, The Hon. Justice Pandit, M.A., LL.B.	Do.
Muhammad Raza, The Hon. Justice Khan Bahadur Saïyid, B.A., LL.B.	Do.
Pullan, Hon. Mr. Justice Agerton George Popplawell, J.P., I.C.S.	Acting Judge.
Nanmatha Nath Upadhyaya Pandit ..	Registrar.
Thomas, G. A. ..	Government Advocate

	Rs. 10.	Rs. 50.	Rs. 100.	Rs. 500.	Rs. 1,000.	Rs. 5,000.	in money.	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1. Bengal	92,211	256,485	113,880	122,397	14,208	10,039	2,336	0
2. Bihar and Orissa	38,765	69,901	30,323	57,939	5,531	4,456	960	1
3. United Provinces	8,411	63,716	58,715	84,900	11,892	9,990	244	5
4. Punjab	16,441	85,507	83,631	118,782	28,031	11,900	2,789	7
5. Delhi	243	1,673	1,430	2,748	701	646	1,821	700
6. North-West Frontier Province	2,288	5,553	5,336	7,172	1,431	1,033	148	5
7. Burma	2,092	18,110	15,080	28,677	5,424	3,087	280	0
8. Central Provinces and Berar	4,086	80,713	25,487	34,980	5,426	3,925	867	0
9. Assam	3,634	17,275	10,425	8,374	856	500	44	0
10. Ajmer-Merwara	531	1,957	1,651	1,447	137	91	10	7
11. Coorg	143	1,788	465	568	39	11	18	0
12. Madras	83,217	247,844	85,041	127,733	15,789	11,784	1,934	0
13. Bombay	6,815	47,753	39,507	67,772	12,482	8,383	614	0
14. British Deccan	487	1,560	847	557	180	131	59	0
TOTAL, 1926	259,739	840,891	471,970	644,536	102,751	66,737	12,777	0
1924	243,786	707,091	423,012	583,777	84,106	60,301	12,215	0
1925	232,538	775,769	415,058	541,405	80,846	57,055	11,786	0
1922	226,186	709,014	432,905	567,856	86,270	62,187	12,865	0
1921	212,499	732,504	424,110	552,230	82,849	60,271	12,621	0
TOTALS ..	242,281	851,041	473,381	681,180	82,914	58,001	12,291	0
1920	252,766	864,173	460,938	559,434	73,971	52,773	11,589	0
1918	206,355	832,754	428,465	492,409	62,886	48,072	8,387	0
1917	206,225	919,308	400,612	517,131	61,140	40,889	7,528	0
1916	305,761	935,140	463,294	511,417	60,405	39,680	7,076	0

* Details not given of 4 Madras suits in 1918, 0 in 1919, and 21 206 in 1921, and of 5,437 Bombay suits in 1921, 7,104 in 1922, 6,574 in 1923, and 8,014 in 1924.
(a) Includes 5,625 Suits against "Superior Courts."
(b) 43 cases transferred to Settlement Courts.

THE INDIAN POLICE

The police administration in India is in the hands of the Provincial Governments in their Reserved Departments. The numbers in the force are about 200,000 officers and men. In addition to these there are about 30,000 officers and men of provincial military police, of whom more than half belong to Burma, the remainder being in Bengal and Assam. The North West Frontier Constabulary is an armed semi-military force maintained in the Government of India in the N. W. Frontier Province. Its Chief Officer is the Commandant, under whom are Assistant Commandants. The total cost of maintaining the Force has greatly risen in recent years on account of increases of pay and allowances made on account of the increased cost of living. The total cost of the Civil Police in 1923, the latest year for which figures are available, was Rs. 10,62,05,639. The cost of military Police force by Provincial revenues in the same year was Rs. 1,36,02,471. In large cities the Force is concentrated and under direct European control; in the mofussil the men are scattered throughout each District and located at various Outposts and Police stations. The smallest unit for administrative purposes is the Outpost which generally consists of 3 or 4 Constables under the control of a Head Constable. Outpost Police are maintained to patrol roads and villages and to report all matters of local interest to their superior, the Sub-Inspector. They have no

to keep open communication section against the raids question whether they Each Outpost is under is controlled by an officer Inspector.

The Superior Staff of a Province consists of one or more Deputy Inspectors, whom come the District Police and Assistant Superintendents. Besides this Superior Staff, the Secretary of State for India, the highest in the Service, the highest in the Deputy Superintendents, corresponds with that of the Superintendent of Police in the Sub

Each Provincial Government has a Superior Officer of the state, the Superintendent to control the police in its province. Besides the District Police there are in the province such special branches as the Special Branch, the control and so on. The military Special Police in Malabar since the 1901 there

Distribution of Police.—The following table shows the area of each Province of Police of all ranks employed in it in 1923-26, the latest year for which published —

	Square miles.
Bengal	78,842
Assam	63,015
United Provinces	106,295
Punjab	99,846
North-West Frontier Province	13,419
Central Provinces and Berar	99,870
Burma	233,707
Madras	142,260
Pombay	123,621
Bihar and Orissa	83,161
Baluchistan	54,223
Ajmer-Merwara	2,711
Coorg	1,582
Delhi	593

Organisation of Police.

The Police Station Officer (the Sub-Inspector) is responsible for the investigation of all cognisable crimes, that is to say, all offences in which the Police can arrest without a warrant from a Magistrate, which occur within his jurisdiction; he is also held responsible for the maintenance of the public peace and the prevention of crime. From the point of view of the Indian Ryot, he is the most important Police Officer in the District and may rightly be considered the backbone of the Force.

Superior to the Sub-Inspector is the Inspector who holds charge of a Circle containing 4 or 5 Police Stations. His duties are chiefly those of supervision and inspection. He does not ordinarily interfere in the investigation of crime unless the conduct of his subordinates renders this necessary.

The Inspector is usually a selected and experienced Sub-Inspector. Each District contains 3 or 4 Circles, and in the case of large Districts, is divided into 3 Sub-divisions—one of which is given to an Assistant Superintendent of Police, a European gazetted Officer. The Police Force in each District is controlled by a District Superintendent of Police, who is responsible to the District Magistrate (Collector or Deputy Commissioner) for the detection and prevention of crime and for the maintenance of the public peace, and, to his Deputy Inspector-General and Inspector-General, for the internal administration of his Force. Eight or ten Districts form a Range administered by a Deputy Inspector-General, an officer selected from the ranks of the Superintendents. At the head of the Police of each Province is the Inspector-General who is responsible to the Local Government for the administration of the Provincial Police.

Separate but recruited from the District Force is the Criminal Investigation Department, which is under the control of a specially selected European Officer of the rank and standing of a Deputy Inspector-General. The Criminal Investigation Department, usually called the C. I. D., is mainly concerned with political inquiries, seditious cases and crimes with ramifications over more than one District or which are considered too important to leave in the hands of the District Police. It is a small force of Sub-Inspectors and Inspectors who have shown their ability and intelligence when working in the mofussil and forms in each Province a local Scotland Yard.

The larger Cities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras have their own Police Force, independent of the Inspector-General of Police, and under the control of a Commissioner and 2 or more Deputies. For Police purposes each city is divided into divisions; in Calcutta each division is in charge of a Deputy Commissioner of Police; in Bombay and Madras of a Superintendent, these officers being selected from the European ranks of the City Force. In Bombay, however, the Superintendents are Gazetted Officers, and two of them are Indians. Each division is sub-divided into a small number of Police Stations, the station being in charge of an Inspector assisted by Deputy Inspectors, Indian Sub-Inspectors and European Sergeants.

The Supreme Government at Delhi and Simla keeps in touch with the Provincial Police by means of the Director of Criminal Intelligence and his Staff. The latter do not interfere in the Local Administration and are mainly concerned with the publication of information regarding international criminals, inter-provincial crime and Political enquiries in which the Supreme Government is interested.

Recruitment.—The constable is enlisted locally. Certain castes are excluded from service and the formation of cliques by filling up the Force from any particular caste or locality is forbidden. In some Provinces a fixed percentage of foreigners must be enlisted. Recruits must produce certificates of good character and pass a medical test. They must be above certain standards of physical development. The constable rises by merit to the rank of Head Constable and, prior to the Police Commission, could rise to the highest Indian subordinate appointments. Since 1906, his chances of promotion have been greatly curtailed; this has certainly lowered the standard coming forward for service in the Force in the lower ranks.

The Sub-Inspector, until 1906, was a selected Head Constable, but Lord Curzon's Commission laid down that Sub-Inspectors should be recruited direct from a socially better class of Indians. In most Provinces, eighty per cent. of the Sub-Inspectors are selected by nomination, trained for a year or 18 months at a Central Police School, and, after examination, appointed direct to Police Stations to learn their work by actual experience. It is too early to judge this system by results, but it has no doubt great disadvantages and undetected crime in India is increasing rapidly.

An Inspector is generally a selected Sub-Inspector. Direct nomination is the exception, not the rule.

The Deputy Superintendent, a new class of officer, instituted on the recommendation of the Commission, is an Indian gazetted officer and is the native Assistant to the District Superintendent of Police. He is either selected by special promotion from the ranks of the Inspectors or is nominated direct, after a course at the Central Police School.

Prior to 1893, the gazetted ranks of the Force were filled either by nomination or by regimental officers seconded from the Army for certain periods. In 1893, this system was abandoned and Assistant Superintendents were recruited by examination in London. On arrival in India, they were placed on probation until they had passed their examinations in the vernacular, in law, and in riding and drill. The establishment of Police Training Schools in 1908 has done much to improve the training of the Police. Probationer, and selection by examination has given Government a better educated officer but open competition does not reveal the best administrators and should be tempered, as in the Navy, by selection.

Internal Administration.—The District Force is divided into 2 Branches—Armed and Unarmed. As the duties of the armed branch

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 us gang of d a o s a e n n e and bu e y office Eur p an
 = atrolled on a n a ba they a s r e o 30 y a be o e he
 armed and drilled and taught to shoot afc pen-on, un es h can obtain
 military methods. The unarmed branch are ficate invaliding him from th
 called upon to collect fines magisterially inflic period of service in an Eastern
 ed serve summonses and warrants, control rally admitted to be too long a
 traffic, destroy stray dogs, extinguish fres of the Force would be consid
 enquire into accidents and non-cognizable if Government allowed both
 offences. The lower grades are clothed and men to retire after a shorter pe

STATISTICS OF POLICE WORK.

The undesirability of attaching undue importance to statistical results as a test of the merits of police work was a point upon which considerable stress was laid by the Indian Police Commission, who referred to the evils likely to result from the prevalence among subordinate officers of an impression that the advancement of an officer would depend upon his being able to show a high ratio of convictions, both to cases and by persons arrested, and a low ratio of crime. The objection applies more particularly to the use of statistics for small areas; but they cannot properly be used as a basis of comparison even for larger areas without taking into account the differences under which the police work is added. They can at the best in imperfectly the degree of success the police carry out that in their duties, which consists in the prevention of crime. These considerations are emphasized in recent orders of the Government of India. Subject to these considerations the figures below may be taken as an indication of the volume of work done by the police, and of the wide differences in the conditions and the statistics of crime in the different provinces. They are given for the year 1923—

Administrations.	Number of Cases pending from previous Year.	Number of Offences reported.	Number of Persons Tried	Persons who were disposed of	
				Discharged or Acquitted	
Bengal	5,577	207,882	158,451	61,402	
Bihar and Orissa .. .	3,251	47,603	28,487	9,718	
United Provinces .. .	5,293	111,080	67,823	10,855	
Punjab	8,568	53,070	51,109	20,522	
North-West Frontier Province ..	1,446	6,791	7,858	3,571	
Burma	6,070	81,668	72,404	24,416	
Central Provinces and Berar ..	2,280	37,052	18,430	4,863	
Assam	1,098	14,659	10,347	2,798	
Ajmer-Merwara	421	5,014	3,648	320	
Cooch	144	638	605	70	
Malabar	14,253	162,473	160,912	20,008	
Pomday	7,431	140,782	135,782	18,789	
Hyderabad	204	4,977	4,390	225	
Delhi	509	4,176	2,951	1,012	
TOTAL, 1923 ..	56,554	877,880	712,697	176,453	
TOTALS ..	1924 ..	54,907	887,747	708,558	130,111
	1923 ..	56,314	846,664	649,101	124,821
	1922 ..	59,772	857,334	651,466	127,025
	1921 ..	56,762	842,945	617,154	124,328
	1920 ..	61,193	851,087	626,874	119,405
	1919 ..	57,002	950,706	670,542	124,211
	1918 ..	44,741	833,405	590,795	107,620
	1917 ..	43,764	823,950	602,015	104,819
	1916 ..	42,022	850,624	628,351	110,243

Province	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040	2041	2042	2043	2044	2045	2046	2047	2048	2049	2050	2051	2052	2053	2054	2055	2056	2057	2058	2059	2060	2061	2062	2063	2064	2065	2066	2067	2068	2069	2070	2071	2072	2073	2074	2075	2076	2077	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082	2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2088	2089	2090	2091	2092	2093	2094	2095	2096	2097	2098	2099	2100	2101	2102	2103	2104	2105	2106	2107	2108	2109	2110	2111	2112	2113	2114	2115	2116	2117	2118	2119	2120	2121	2122	2123	2124	2125	2126	2127	2128	2129	2130	2131	2132	2133	2134	2135	2136	2137	2138	2139	2140	2141	2142	2143	2144	2145	2146	2147	2148	2149	2150	2151	2152	2153	2154	2155	2156	2157	2158	2159	2160	2161	2162	2163	2164	2165	2166	2167	2168	2169	2170	2171	2172	2173	2174	2175	2176	2177	2178	2179	2180	2181	2182	2183	2184	2185	2186	2187	2188	2189	2190	2191	2192	2193	2194	2195	2196	2197	2198	2199	2200	2201	2202	2203	2204	2205	2206	2207	2208	2209	2210	2211	2212	2213	2214	2215	2216	2217	2218	2219	2220	2221	2222	2223	2224	2225	2226	2227	2228	2229	2230	2231	2232	2233	2234	2235	2236	2237	2238	2239	2240	2241	2242	2243	2244	2245	2246	2247	2248	2249	2250	2251	2252	2253	2254	2255	2256	2257	2258	2259	2260	2261	2262	2263	2264	2265	2266	2267	2268	2269	2270	2271	2272	2273	2274	2275	2276	2277	2278	2279	2280	2281	2282	2283	2284	2285	2286	2287	2288	2289	2290	2291	2292	2293	2294	2295	2296	2297	2298	2299	2300	2301	2302	2303	2304	2305	2306	2307	2308	2309	2310	2311	2312	2313	2314	2315	2316	2317	2318	2319	2320	2321	2322	2323	2324	2325	2326	2327	2328	2329	2330	2331	2332	2333	2334	2335	2336	2337	2338	2339	2340	2341	2342	2343	2344	2345	2346	2347	2348	2349	2350	2351	2352	2353	2354	2355	2356	2357	2358	2359	2360	2361	2362	2363	2364	2365	2366	2367	2368	2369	2370	2371	2372	2373	2374	2375	2376	2377	2378	2379	2380	2381	2382	2383	2384	2385	2386	2387	2388	2389	2390	2391	2392	2393	2394	2395	2396	2397	2398	2399	2400	2401	2402	2403	2404	2405	2406	2407	2408	2409	2410	2411	2412	2413	2414	2415	2416	2417	2418	2419	2420	2421	2422	2423	2424	2425	2426	2427	2428	2429	2430	2431	2432	2433	2434	2435	2436	2437	2438	2439	2440	2441	2442	2443	2444	2445	2446	2447	2448	2449	2450	2451	2452	2453	2454	2455	2456	2457	2458	2459	2460	2461	2462	2463	2464	2465	2466	2467	2468	2469	2470	2471	2472	2473	2474	2475	2476	2477	2478	2479	2480	2481	2482	2483	2484	2485	2486	2487	2488	2489	2490	2491	2492	2493	2494	2495	2496	2497	2498	2499	2500	2501	2502	2503	2504	2505	2506	2507	2508	2509	2510	2511	2512	2513	2514	2515	2516	2517	2518	2519	2520	2521	2522	2523	2524	2525	2526	2527	2528	2529	2530	2531	2532	2533	2534	2535	2536	2537	2538	2539	2540	2541	2542	2543	2544	2545	2546	2547	2548	2549	2550	2551	2552	2553	2554	2555	2556	2557	2558	2559	2560	2561	2562	2563	2564	2565	2566	2567	2568	2569	2570	2571	2572	2573	2574	2575	2576	2577	2578	2579	2580	2581	2582	2583	2584	2585	2586	2587	2588	2589	2590	2591	2592	2593	2594	2595	2596	2597	2598	2599	2600	2601	2602	2603	2604	2605	2606	2607	2608	2609	2610	2611	2612	2613	2614	2615	2616	2617	2618	2619	2620	2621	2622	2623	2624	2625	2626	2627	2628	2629	2630	2631	2632	2633	2634	2635	2636	2637	2638	2639	2640	2641	2642	2643	2644	2645	2646	2647	2648	2649	2650	2651	2652	2653	2654	2655	2656	2657	2658	2659	2660	2661	2662	2663	2664	2665	2666	2667	2668	2669	2670	2671	2672	2673	2674	2675	2676	2677	2678	2679	2680	2681	2682	2683	2684	2685	2686	2687	2688	2689	2690	2691	2692	2693	2694	2695	2696	2697	2698	2699	2700	2701	2702	2703	2704	2705	2706	2707	2708	2709	2710	2711	2712	2713	2714	2715	2716	2717	2718	2719	2720	2721	2722	2723	2724	2725	2726	2727	2728	2729	2730	2731	2732	2733	2734	2735	2736	2737	2738	2739	2740	2741	2742	2743	2744	2745	2746	2747	2748	2749	2750	2751	2752	2753	2754	2755	2756	2757	2758	2759	2760	2761	2762	2763	2764	2765	2766	2767	2768	2769	2770	2771	2772	2773	2774	2775	2776	2777	2778	2779	2780	2781	2782	2783	2784	2785	2786	2787	2788	2789	2790	2791	2792	2793	2794	2795	2796	2797	2798	2799	2800	2801	2802	2803	2804	2805	2806	2807	2808	2809	2810	2811	2812	2813	2814	2815	2816	2817	2818	2819	2820	2821	2822	2823	2824	2825	2826	2827	2828	2829	2830	2831	2832	2833	2834	2835	2836	2837	2838	2839	2840	2841	2842	2843	2844	2845	2846	2847	2848	2849	2850	2851	2852	2853	2854	2855	2856	2857	2858	2859	2860	2861	2862	2863	2864	2865	2866	2867	2868	2869	2870	2871	2872	2873	2874	2875	2876	2877	2878	2879	2880	2881	2882	2883	2884	2885	2886	2887	2888	2889	2890	2891	2892	2893	2894	2895	2896	2897	2898	2899	2900	2901	2902	2903	2904	2905	2906	2907	2908	2909	2910	2911	2912	2913	2914	2915	2916	2917	2918	2919	2920	2921	2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JAILS

Jail administration in India is regulated generally by the Prisons Act of 1894, and by rules issued under it by the Government of India and the local governments. The punishment prescribed in the Indian Penal Code for various offences includes imprisonment (which may include short periods of solitary confinement), and simple imprisonment. Accommodation has also to be provided in the jails for civil and under-trial prisoners.

The origin of all jail improvements in India in recent years was the Jail Commission of 1880. The report of the Commission, which consisted of only two members, both officials serving under the Government of India, is extremely long, and reviews the whole question of jail organization and administration in the minutest detail. In most matters the Commission's recommendations have been accepted and adopted by Local Governments, but in various matters, mainly of a minor character, their proposals have either been rejected or modified as unsuitable to local conditions, abandoned as unworkable after careful experiment or accepted in principle but postponed for the present as impossible.

The most important of all the recommendations of the Commission, the one that might in fact be described as the corner stone of their report, is that there should be in each Presidency three classes of jails: in the first place, large central jails for convicts sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment; secondly, district jails at the head-quarters of districts; and, thirdly, subsidiary jails and "lock-ups" for under-trial prisoners and convicts sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. The jail department in each province is under the control of a Inspector-General, who is generally an officer of the Indian Medical Service with jail experience, and the Superintendents of certain jails are usually recruited from the same service. The district jail is under the charge of the civil surgeon, and is frequently inspected by the district magistrate. The staff under the Superintendent includes, in large central jails, a Deputy Superintendent to supervise the jail manufactures, and in all central and district jails one or more subordinate medical officers. The executive staff consists of jailors and warders, and convict petty officers are employed in all central and district jails, the prospect of promotion to one of these posts being a strong inducement to good behaviour. A Press Note issued by the Bombay Government in October, 1915, says:—"The cadre and emoluments of all ranks from Warder to Superintendent have been repeatedly revised and altered in recent years. But the Department is not at all attractive in its lower grades. At the moment are the insufficiency of Central Prisons and the difficulty of obtaining good and sufficient warders."

The Jails Committee.—Since the introduction of the reformed constitution the maintenance of the Indian Prisons falls within the sphere of provincial Governments, and is subject

to all India legislation. The obvious advisability of proceeding along certain general lines of uniform application led lately to the appointment of a Jails Committee, which conducted the first comprehensive survey of Indian prison administration which had been made for thirty years. Stress was laid by the Committee upon the necessity of improving and increasing existing jail accommodation; of recruiting a better class of warders, or providing education for prisoners; and of developing prison industries so as to meet the needs of the consuming Departments of Government. Other important recommendations included the separation of civil from criminal offenders; the adoption of the English system of release on license in the case of adolescents; and the creation of children's courts. The Committee found that the reformatory side of the Indian system needed particular attention. They recommended the segregation of habituals from ordinary prisoners; the provision of separate accommodation for prisoners under trial; the institution of the star-class system, and the abolition of certain practices which are liable to harden or degrade the prison population.

Employment of Prisoners.—The work on which convicts are employed is mostly carried on within the jail walls, but extramural employment on a large scale is sometimes allowed, as, for example, when a large number of convicts were employed in excavating the Jhelum Canal in the Punjab. Within the walls prisoners are employed on jail service and repairs, and in workshops. The main principle laid down with regard to jail manufactures is that the work must be penal and industrial. The industries are on a large scale, multifarious employment being condemned, while care is taken that the jail shall not compete with local traders. As far as possible industries are adapted to the requirements of the consuming public departments, and printing, tent-making, and the manufacture of clothing are among the commonest employments. Schooling is confined to juveniles; the experiment of teaching adults has been tried, but literary instruction is unsuitable for the class of persons who fill an Indian jail.

The conduct of convicts in jail is generally good, and the number of desperate characters among them is small. Failure to perform the allotted task is by far the most common offence. In a large majority of cases the punishment inflicted is one of those classed as "minor." Among the "major" punishments feters take the first place. Corporal punishment is inflicted in relatively few cases, and the number is steadily falling. Punishments were revised as the result of the Commission of 1883. Two notable punishments then abolished were shaving the heads of female prisoners and the stocks. The latter, which was apparently much practised in Bombay, was described by the Commission as inflicting exquisite torture. Punishments are now scheduled and graded into major and minor. The most difficult of all jail problems is the internal maintenance of order among the prisoners, for which purpose paid

warders and constables employed. With this bound up the question of a special class of well-behaved prisoners which was tried from 1905 onwards in the Thana Jail.

Juvenile Prisoners.—As regards "youthful offenders"—i.e., those below the age of 15—the law provides alternatives to imprisonment, and it is strictly enjoined that boys shall not be sent to jail when they can be dealt with otherwise. The alternatives are detention in a reformatory school for a period of from three to seven years, but not beyond the age of 18; parent or guardian on the latter executing a bond to be responsible for the good behaviour of the culprit; and whipping by way of school discipline.

The question of the treatment of "young adult" prisoners has in recent years received much attention. Under the Prisons Act, prisoners below the age of 18 must be kept separate from older prisoners, but the recognition of the principle that an ordinary jail is not a fitting place for adolescents (other than youthful habituals) who are over 15, and therefore ineligible for admission to the reformatory school, has led Local Governments to consider schemes for going beyond this by treating young adults on the lines followed at Borstal, and considerable progress has been made in this direction. In 1905, a special class for selected juveniles and young adults was established at the Dharwar Jail in Bombay; in 1908 a special juvenile jail was opened at Alipore in Bengal; in 1909 the Nektila jail in Burma and the Tanjore jail in Madras were set aside for adolescents, and a new jail for juvenile and "juvenile adult" convicts was opened at Bareilly in the United Provinces; and in 1910 it was decided to concentrate adolescents in the Punjab at the Borstal lines. Other measures had previously been taken in some cases; a special reformatory system for "juvenile adults" had, for example, been in force in two central jails in the Punjab since the early years of the decade, and "Borstals in Bengal. But the public is slow to appreciate that it has a duty towards prisoners, and but little progress has been made in the formation of Prisoners' Aid Societies except in Bombay and Calcutta, though even in those cities much remains to be done.

Reformatory Schools.—These schools have been administered since 1899 by the Education Department, and the authorities are directed to improve the industrial education of the inmates, to help the boys to obtain employment on leaving school, and as far as possible to keep a watch on their careers.

Transportation.—Transportation is an old punishment of the British Indian criminal law, and a number of places were formerly appointed for the reception of Indian transported convicts. The only penal settlement at the present time is Port Blair in the Andaman Islands.

Commission of Enquiry, 1919.—A committee was appointed to investigate the whole system of prison administration in India with special reference to recent legislation and experience in Western countries. Its report, published in 1921, was summarised in the

Indian Year Book, 1922 (pages 670-671). Another of reforms were advocated but, owing to financial stringency, it has not yet been possible to introduce some of the more important of them.

Fines and Short Sentences.—Those sections of the Indian Penal Code, under which imprisonment must be awarded when a conviction occurs, should be amended so as to give discretion to the court. Sentences of imprisonment for less than twenty-eight days should be prohibited.

The Indeterminate Sentences.—The sentence of every long-term prisoner should be brought under revision, as soon as the prisoner has served half the sentence in the case of the non-habitual, and two-thirds of the sentence in the case of the habitual, remission earned being counted in each case. The revision should be carried out by a Revision Board, composed of the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Sessions Judge and a non-official. In all cases, the release of a prisoner on parole should be made subject to conditions, breach of which would render him liable to be remanded to undergo the full original sentence. The duty of seeing that a prisoner fulfils the conditions on which he was released should not be imposed upon the police or upon the village headman, but special officers, to be termed parole officers, should be appointed for the purpose. These parole officers should possess a good standard of education, though not necessarily a university degree, and should both protect and advise the released prisoner and report breaches of the conditions of release.

Transportation and the Andamans.—If any fresh attempt at colonisation is made, it should be in an entirely new locality. A fresh attempt at colonisation in the Middle Andaman Island at Port Blair on the present lines is not recommended. The entire abandonment of the Andamans as a place of deportation is not recommended. Deportation to the Andamans should cease, except in regard to specially dangerous prisoners and any others whose removal from Indian jails is considered by the Government to be in the public interests. The existing restrictions as to age and physical condition of prisoners sentenced to transportation to the Andamans should, unless special medical grounds exist in any particular case, cease to apply. The Indian Penal Code should be amended by the substitution of rigorous imprisonment for transportation. In provinces where the available prison accommodation will not permit of the immediate cessation of deportation of all but selected prisoners, the Star class should be the first, and the habitual the last, to be detained in Indian jails. No female should in future be deported to the Andamans, and these now there should be brought back to India and distributed among the Provinces to which they belong. In those Provinces where the jails are insufficient to detain prisoners now deported, additional accommodation should be provided as soon as possible.

Criminal Tribes.—The first essential of success in dealing with the criminal tribes is the provision of a reasonable degree of economic

comfort to the people. It is therefore of paramount importance to locate settlements where sufficient work at remunerative rates is available. Large numbers of fresh settlers should never be sent to a settlement without first as-

sessing whether there is work in the settlement. Commitment to settlements should, possible, be by gangs not by individuals. It is desirable to utilise both Government and private agency for the control of settle-

The variations of the jail population in British India during the five years are shown in the following table:—

	1925.	1924.	1923.	1922.
Jail population of all classes on 1st January	123,314	128,478	134,286	136,817
Admissions during the year	536,219	536,428	535,590	639,001
Aggregate	664,533	662,906	669,876	765,918
Discharged during the year from all causes	534,779	534,455	543,888	681,628
Jail population on 31st December	129,754	128,451	126,478	134,230
Convict population on 1st January	110,310	109,230	114,517	106,117
Admissions during the year	158,130	158,466	158,386	185,092
Aggregate	268,449	267,696	272,153	291,209
Released during the year	158,997	155,219	161,166	173,313
Transported beyond seas	616	571	329	1,514
Casualties, &c.	2,089	2,340	2,428	3,244
Convict population on 31st December.	111,395	110,399	109,814	114,817

More than one half of the total number of convicts received in jails during 1925 came from the classes engaged in agriculture and cattle tending, about 130,000 out of 158,000 are returned as literate.

The percentage of previously prisoners was 20.28 as against 19.6 while the number of youthful offenders was 34.2 to 34.8. The following table shows the nature and length of sentences of prisoners admitted to jails in 1923 to 1925:—

Nature and Length of Sentence.	1925.	1924.
Not exceeding one month	32,496	30,675
Above one month and not exceeding six months	64,286	64,938
“ six months “ “ one year	81,429	80,972
“ one year “ “ five years	23,299	24,975
“ five years “ “ ten “ “	3,581	3,856
Exceeding ten years	350	514
Transportation beyond seas—		
(a) for life	1,540	1,475
(b) for a term	117	114
Sentenced to death	938	942

The total daily average population for 1925 was 109,227, the total offences dealt with by criminal courts was 273, and by Superintendents 137,095. The corresponding figures for 1924 were 108,884, 214 and 133,865, respectively.

The total number of corporal punishments showed a decrease, viz., from 243 to 210. The total number of cases in which penal diet (with and without solitary confinement) was prescribed was 4,988 as compared with 6,325 in the preceding year.

Total expenditure increased from Rs. 1,58,81,900 to Rs. 1,65,56,712 in 1925. Cash earnings increased from Rs. 1, 24, 71, 604 to Rs. 2, 08, 577 in the Government.

The death rate in 1924 excluding men was 14.42 and including of both being below those for 1923 (16.0) and the decennial mean (22.2).

The Laws of 1927

BY

RATANLAL AND DHIRAJLAL,

Editors, "Bombay Law Reporter."

1. Indian Limitation (Amendment) Act.—Following the changes made by the Civil Justice

changes of a far-reaching character. An amendment has been made in section 29, whereby payment of interest, made after January 1, 1928, gives a fresh starting point of limitation, only if the fact of in the handwriting of payment or in writing.

The second amendment made is in section 27. An acknowledgment of liability made by a Hindu widow or other limited owner ensures against the reversioner. And where a liability has been incurred by the manager of a joint Hindu family on behalf of a Hindu undivided family it is deemed to have been made on behalf of the whole family (s. 3). This scope of Article 132 has been enlarged by an explanation which says that *Mulikans* and *Haggys* and the value of agricultural or other produce secured by a charge on immovable property are money charged upon immovable property (s. 4).

2. The Indian Registration (Amendment) Act.—In the year 1926, the Privy Council held in *Dugal Singh v. Indar Singh* (29 Bom. L.R. 1373) that where an agreement for the sale of immovable property contained a recital of payment of earnest money or purchase money, it was compulsorily registrable. The effect of the amendment is to negative that decision and a retrospective operation is given to the amendment. Thus, such agreements are valid even if they are not registered.

3. Steel Industry (Protection) Act.—The Act provides two safeguards for the protection of steel industry in India. Where it appears that steel articles of British manufacture are being imported into India at prices which render ineffective the protection granted to similar articles manufactured in India, the duty on the former articles may be further raised; and the same protection is given against similar articles of foreign manufacture imported into India. The Governor General in Council is empowered to appoint a Commission before March 31, 1934, to enquire if the further continuance of such protection is necessary.

4. The Currency Act.—This Act is the outcome of the recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance. It raised a volume of keen controversy on the question of ratio. The rupee is here stabilized at the rate of 1s. 6d. per rupee. As a step towards the attainment of that goal the sovereign and half-sovereign are demonetized in India (s. 2). Sections 4 and 5 lay on the Government of India a statutory obligation to buy gold or to sell gold or gold exchange at the gold points at the accepted gold parity of the rupee, i.e., Rs. 21-3-10 per tola of fine gold.

5. The Finance Act.—The Act gives the annual validity to the rates of postage and the scale for the levy of the income tax and super tax now existing. It has made some important changes. The stamp duty of one anna on cheques is abolished from July 1, 1927, the import duty on rubber stamps and rubber seeds and on hides and tea has been abolished. The import duty on unmanufactured tobacco has been raised from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1-8-0 per lb. while that on motor cars and motor cycles is reduced from 30 per cent to 20 per cent and on films and tubes is reduced from 30 per cent to 15 per cent ad valorem.

6. The Madras Salt (Amendment) Act.—In 1889, a flat rate of five per cent was levied on salt to meet the expenses incurred in maintaining the preventive staff. Since then, the duty on salt was reduced by fifty per cent and the pay of the staff had to be raised. The Act therefore abolishes the old rate and leaves it to the Central Board of Revenue to impose such a rate as would cover the expenses of the preventive staff.

7. The Provident Funds (Amendment) Act.—The benefit of the Provident Funds Act is here extended to persons employed in educational institutions or employed by bodies existing solely for educational purposes.

8. The Sea Customs (Amendment) Act.—The Sea Customs Act allowed a partial rebate of duty on goods which were deteriorated or damaged prior to entry only in those cases where the duty was leviable ad valorem; this privilege is now extended to duty leviable on quantity and not on value. This affects sugar and paper.

9. The Indian Limitation Second (Amendment) Act.—The amendment removes a great disability in the law of execution of decrees. An application for execution has always the tendency to lengthen out, and in many, if not in most, of the cases its duration is more than three years; but in order to keep the decree alive, the decree-holder was compelled to file a fresh application to execute the decree, regardless of the result of the pending application. This state of affairs only served to complicate matters. Now, however, the decree-holder has a period of three years from the date of disposal of his pending application within which to file another application to execute the decree. Further, where a decree-holder has recovered an amount in execution but has been ordered by the Appellate Court to refund it, the period of limitation to enforce the refund runs from the date of the appellate decree.

10. The Air Force and Amending Act.—Air Force in India has been placed on the statute is placed on a par with

The Laws of 1927

Naval Forces, and its officers subjected to the same restrictions as Army and Naval men are, in various Acts of the Legislature. There is also a far-reaching consequence. The Bill was drafted almost in the spirit of the Act in 1926. That date has a retrospective effect. The Bill where a document is executed and the attestations are made not in execution, but are made afterwards, the Bill is void though none of the attestations seen the actual execution of the document.

This extension of the law has caused by the Privy Council in *Shamji Putter v. Abdul*

Insolvency (Amendment) Act— This amendment is to speed up proceedings in Presidency towns, where a person who has obtained an adjournment from the Court fails to prosecute his order, his adjudication is to be cancelled by the Court, at liberty to present another application on the same facts. If the Court has been first obtained insolvent fraudulently obtains an order, it is liable to be cancelled *ex officio* or on the application of Assignee or any creditor.

Repealing and Amending Act— This Act makes small changes in a number of Acts which are of no interest to us.

Indian Bar Councils (Amendment) Act— In spite of great hopes raised at the Indian Bar Councils Act was to its provisions have for the most part so far a dead letter. Nothing has been done to carry out its provisions. An amendment has been passed and passed. The point of seniority among advocates by the dates of enrolment, and if he is a barrister on which he was called to the Bar, the Advocate General has the right of over all other advocates, and if he has pre-eminence over all advocates the Advocate General.

Indian Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Act— The object of this Act is to regulate the shipping of pilgrims. When a ship conveys pilgrims from any port, its master, owner or agent must file to the Pilgrim Officer (1) the name of the ship from which it is to sail; (2) the date of departure; (3) the number of passengers; (4) the price of such tickets; and (5) the date the ship is to sail from or touch. The above information should be placed in a prominent place in the ship. Failure to observe the above provisions attracts a penalty of fine Rs. 2,000. Where a ship is guilty of an offence, the owner or agent is liable to

pay compensation to each pilgrim at the rate of Rs. 1 per every completed day (200 C). If the proposed ship is unable to start on the appointed day, it is competent to the owner to substitute another ship of the same class and tonnage with the permission of the Pilgrim Officer (s. 209 D).

35. The Indian Divorce (Amendment) Act— Till recently, there was no officer corresponding with King's Proctor in England. The necessity for a King's Proctor was felt in Bombay in a divorce case tried by the late Sir D. B. Wadia some time ago. It is he who keeps a watch over divorce proceedings and makes it his business to see that no fraudulent or collusive decrees are snatched from the Court. Section 17-A is now added to the Indian Divorce Act. It creates the office of King's Proctor. It is his duty to show cause why a decree for dissolution of marriage should not be made absolute or should not be confirmed.

16. The Indian Forests Act— This Act consolidates the Indian Forest Act of 1878 and its six amending Acts. Part I sets out the definitions of terms used in the Act. Part II deals with the constitution of reserved forests, over the lands in which Government claim proprietary rights and the governance of such forests (ss. 3 to 27). The next Part (s. 28) deals with village forests, in which the village community have all the rights owned by Government in reserved forests. On such forests, the villagers have a right to take timber or other forest produce or pasture. Then come protected forests in which also Government have proprietary rights, though they are not reserved forests. In such forests Government grant licenses to persons to cut and remove the trees or to take the forest produce on payment of money, or cutting grass and pasturing of cattle and doing other things (s. 32). The commission or any offence with regard to such forests is visited with the penalty of imprisonment for six months or fine which may extend to five hundred rupees (s. 33). Chapter V provides for control over forests and lands not being the property of Government. Section 39 empowers Government to impose duty on timber and other forest produce; and the Chapter following defines the powers of control of timber and other forest produce in transit. Chapter VIII deals with the collection of duty and stranded timber. (a) Trespassing in a reserved or protected forest may be seized and impounded by any forest or police officer (s. 70). The constitution and powers of forest officers are defined in Chapter XI. Section 79 enacts that every person who is interested in a forest or who lives in a village adjacent to a forest is bound when called upon to assist a forest officer to extinguish a forest fire or to prevent it from spreading or to prevent the commission of any forest offence. Government have the right to recover any money due to them for any forest produce as if it was an arrear of land revenue (s. 82), and they possess a lien for it on the forest produce (s. 83).

17. The Indian Lighthouse Act— There were three separate Coast-light Acts for Madras, Burma and Sind. Each worked on a different principle, and all lacked in co-ordination. Difficulty was experienced in an uniform system

of collecting light-house dues. It is, therefore, found necessary to enact one unifying Act. The superintendence and management of all general light-houses are vested in the Governor General in Council (s. 5), who is also given the control of all local light-houses (s. 7). The same authority has the power to levy and collect all light-house dues (s. 9). If the Master of any ship refuses to pay such dues, the Customs Collector may seize the ship and detain the same until they are paid (s. 12). The light-dues payable at one port are recoverable at another (s. 16). The Master or owner who evades payment of light-dues is liable to pay a fine five times the amount of the payment (s. 17). Any ship belonging to His Majesty or the Government or to a Foreign Prince or State and not carrying cargo or passengers for freight or hire or any ship of a tonnage or less than fifty tons are exempt from payment of light-dues (s. 18).

18. The Indian Succession (Amendment) Act—Sections 229 and 236 of the Indian Succession Act have been so amended that now the consent of the husband is no longer necessary before probate or letters of administration can issue to a married woman. Section 1 has been added to the Married Women's Property Act, whereby a husband is not liable for the wife's breach of trust or devastation unless he has acted or inter-meddled in the trust or administration.

19. The Presidency Towns Insolvency (Amendment) Act—In the working of the above Act two defects were discovered which led to divergence of view between different Indian High Courts. The first one was as to the conflict between sections 7 and 31, which was responsible for differing views between Calcutta and Madras High Courts. It is now settled in favour of Calcutta by amending that debts can be realized by the Insolvency Court from the debtors of the insolvent only when the debts are admitted. The second amendment legalises the practice that existed in Bombay and Rangoon High Courts of calling upon an insolvent to file lists of creditors and debtors before the passing of an adjudication order.

20. The Bamboo Paper Industry (Protection) Act—The main object of this Act is effectually to exclude newspaper paper from any protective tariff. At the same time the protection cord is tightened round printing paper which contains no mechanical wood pulp as well as writing paper including ruled or printed forms and account and manuscript books and the binding therefor. A rate of one anna per pound or an *ad valorem* rate of 15 per cent whichever is higher is imposed on them.

21. The Indian Securities (Amendment) Act—Where a person holding a Government security loses it, there is an elaborate machinery to prevent fraud, before a duplicate security is issued to him. This machinery could well be avoided when the owner is dead, by his legal representative taking out a succession certificate to his estate. Such a representative also has now to pursue all the intricacies provided before he succeeds in obtaining a duplicate or a lost or stolen security. It is also made clear that

in such a case no interest can be claimed in respect of any period which has elapsed after the earliest date on which the demand could have been made for the payment of the amount due on such security.

22. The Societies Registration (Amendment) Act—The breach of the Societies Registration Act is extended to Societies for the diffusion of political education.

23. The Indian Tariff (Cotton Yarn) Amendment Act—Japanese yarn, which forms eighty per cent of the total import of foreign cotton yarn, is depressing the Indian mill industry to a great extent. There has been a five per cent *ad valorem* duty on such yarn but it is not enough to protect the Indian industry. An alternative duty of 1½ anna per pound has therefore been imposed which is to remain in force till March 31, 1930. It is expected that by then the double shift of women workers in Japan will cease, and there will remain no necessity of additional protection.

24. The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act—The import duty on machinery and mill stores used in textile industry is removed. The 2½ per cent import duty on printing machinery and material is also removed.

25. The Criminal Law (Amendment) Act—Early in 1927, one Haj Pat published a book called "Rangila Rasool" which contained a scurrilous attack on the prophet of Mahomeda. He was convicted by the Magistrate under s. 153A of the Indian Penal Code, but was eventually acquitted by the High Court at Lahore. About the same time a newspaper editor published another attack on the prophet in "Risala Varman." He too was convicted by the Magistrate. In view of the previous ruling of the Lahore Court above referred to a special bench of two Judges was constituted for hearing the appeal. The accused's conviction was upheld. These two cases revealed the unsatisfactory state of the law with reference to scurrilous writing. A new section 295A was therefore, added to the Indian Penal Code under which any person who, with the deliberate and malicious intention of outraging the religious feelings of any class of people by speech or writing, insults the religion or the religious feelings of that class, is liable to the punishment with imprisonment which may extend to two years, or with fine or with both. Scurrilous literature can be prohibited and copies for sale seized by Government. A prosecution under the section can start only after sanction from Government.

26. The Cantonments (Amendment) Act—A number of minor amendments has been introduced into the Cantonments Act. The President of a Cantonment Board remains his office though he is temporarily absent from the cantonment. The Local Government has the power to remove any member of the cantonment board who acquires a disqualification or who keeps absent from the meetings for three or successive months or who being a legal practitioner appears in a case against the cantonment board. It is now the privilege of the Local Government to permit the levy of any ordinary tax by the cantonment board. It is permissible to the

and in preference to the Imperial Bank provided the previous sanction of the Local Government is obtained to such course.

27 Indian Emigration (Amendment) Act—The object of this is to simplify the inspection of emigrants and to bring into force the resolutions arrived at the eighth session of the International Labour Conference at Geneva.

28 The Income-tax (Amendment) Act—This Act remedies a defect which has been discovered in the assessment of tea companies for the purpose of income tax.

29 The Aden Civil and Criminal Justice High Court Jurisdiction (Amendment) Act—An appeal now lies to the High Court of Bombay against the judgment or order of the Resident in Aden or of an Additional Sessions Judge when such appeal is allowed by the Criminal Procedure Code. But no appeal shall

exceed Rs. 500. An appeal against acquittal shall lie to the High Court. The Resident has now the power of reserving any point of law arising in any proceedings pending before him for the opinion of the High Court.

30 The Indian Divorce Second (Amendment) Act—Hitherto, relief under the Indian Divorce Act could be obtained only by the Christian party to a mixed marriage. The Act is now amended so that even the non-Christian party to such a marriage may apply for relief under the Act.

31. The Assam Labour and Emigration (Amendment) Act—The expenditure of the Assam Labour Board is met from a cess on employers in Assam. Owing to changed conditions of labour in Assam, the cess could not be levied from garden-sardars. The Act is so amended that the cess can be levied from the garden-sardars.

Labour.

Various causes have combined to give added importance to the great group of human activities concentrated under the generic term of Labour. India is still a predominantly agricultural country and more than seventy per cent. of its people are dependent on the soil for their livelihood. Nevertheless a process of industrialization has gone steadily forward. Calcutta and Bombay are great manufacturing centres. Whilst the jute mills dominate Calcutta and the cotton mills Bombay, there has grown up round these industries a substantial body of other manufactories. Another considerable manufacturing centre has developed at Cawnpore, with cotton, wool and leather factories. The textile industry of Bombay has overflowed into the mofussil, and Ahmedabad and Sholapore are considerable centres of manufacture, with a lesser one at Broach. In the Central Provinces the cotton mills of Nagpur are famous throughout India. The Province of Bihar and Orissa is the centre of the great coal mining trade, having absorbed the bulk of the coal mines formerly included in the Province of Bengal. It also embraces the most remarkable example of scientific industrialism in India in the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur, where in what was jungle fifteen years ago a considerable city is springing up, which will produce over a million tons of steel a year, and house subsidiary industries which combined with the iron and steel works will probably maintain a city of a quarter of a million in the near future. The railway works of the North-West-

ern Railway form the core of the industrialism of the Punjab, where other manufactories are developing. The industrial expansion in India may be judged from the number of factories coming under the operation of the Indian Factories Act of 1911 as amended by the Act of 1922, which amounted to 5,408 for the whole of British India during the year 1924 and rose in 1925 to 6,926. The number of operatives in the same years were 1,455,592 and 1,494,958 respectively, the figures being of the daily average. The industrial development of the Punjab is certain in the comparatively near future to receive considerable impetus from the fruition of vocational education and the completion of the vast hydro-electric schemes.

Social Consciousness.

Side by side with this industrialization there has grown an increased social consciousness of the responsibility of the community towards Labour. The Government of India passed its first Factory Act in 1881 and amended it in 1891. But experience showed that these Acts permitted considerable abuses and largely as the result of the agitation caused by *The Times of India* in Bombay in 1905 against the excessive hours worked in the Bombay textile mills inquiries were set afoot which resulted in the passing of a new Act which limited the hours of labour in 1911. With the constitution of the League of Nations, India as a signatory thereto became a participant in the decisions of the League on Labour.

India was represented at the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919 and by her ratifying various conventions it became obligatory on her to enact legislation giving effect to the decisions of the Conference. Another International Labour Conference was held at Genoa in 1920 to consider a number of questions relating to seamen, such as the hours of labour, manning scales, accommodation, the provision for finding employment and other cognate questions and the Third and Fourth Sessions of the Conference were held at Geneva in 1921 and 1922. The Fifth Session of the Conference assembled on 22nd Oct. 1923 and dealt with only one item of importance—factory inspection. The Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference was held in Geneva from the 16th June to the 5th July 1924. Forty countries were represented at the Conference. The agenda of the Conference comprised (1) Development of facilities for utilisation of workers' leisure, (2) equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards compensation for accidents, (3) weekly suspension of work for twenty-four hours in glass manufacturing processes where tank furnaces are used; and (4) night work in bakeries. The Seventh Session was held at Genoa on the 21st May 1925. The agenda consisted of four items—(1) the report by the Director of the International Labour Office; (2) equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards compensation for accidents; (3) weekly suspension of work for 24 hours in glass manufacturing processes where tank furnaces are used; and (4) night work in bakeries. The Eighth Session of the Conference was held at Geneva on the 26th May 1926 and the Ninth Session immediately after on the 7th June. The Eighth Session dealt with the question of the simplification of the Inspection of Emigrants on Boardships. The Ninth Session was devoted entirely to the consideration of maritime problems—the main question dealt with being the International Codification of the Rules relating to Seamen's articles of agreement, and general principles for the inspection of the conditions of work of seamen. India was represented at all of these Conferences. In 1922 India was admitted as one of the eight countries of industrial importance after protracted examination of

the grounds of her claim by experts appointed by the League of Nations. India therefore assumes responsibility for giving effect to the decisions of these Conferences if she ratifies them.

There has been a considerable extension of what is known as **Welfare Work**, and although this so far depends on the individual activities of employers of labour the work is progressing well. The Sixth International Labour Conference which dealt with the question of the utilisation of workers' spare time resolved that the International Labour Office should collect periodic information on the action taken in various countries for the development of facilities for the proper utilisation of the time during which workers are not actually employed. In May 1926, the Government of India requested all Local Governments to collect information on this subject from employers' and employees' associations and associations of social workers who conduct welfare work for the benefit of workers. The results of this enquiry which the Government of India hope to publish during the course of this year will be of considerable interest. Further there is the ascendant Trade Union movement in India. This movement lies rather more on the surface than in deep roots, but it flares up in times of labour unrest and is nominally at all events focused in The All India Trade Union Congress. The frequency of strikes and the lack of any means to hasten a solution have given rise to careful investigation of the possibility of establishing Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration. The increase of industrial unrest in the winter of 1920-21 led to the stimulation of public interest in labour questions. The fact that several of the more protracted strikes occurred in public utility services strengthened the demand that some efforts should be made towards a solution of the problem. In nearly every strike or lock-out of importance which has occurred in the last six years there has been a fairly strong demand from some section of the public for reference of the points at issue to arbitration. The last few years have therefore seen a remarkable change in the attitude of the State and the community towards Labour, which under the more democratic constitution which now obtains is assured of a hearing in the Legislatures.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY AND INSPECTION.

The conditions of factory labour until 1913 were regulated by the Indian Factories Act of 1881, as amended in 1891. The chief provisions of the amended Act were Local Governments were empowered to appoint inspectors of factories, and certifying surgeons to certify as to the age of children. A mid-day stoppage of work was prescribed in all factories, except those worked on an approved system of shifts, and Sunday labour was prohibited, subject to certain exceptions. The hours of employment for women were limited to 11, with intervals of rest amounting to at least an hour and a half; their employment between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. was prohibited, as a general rule, except in factories worked by shifts. The hours of work for children (defined as persons below the age of 14) were

limited to seven, and their employment at night time was forbidden; children below the age of nine were not to be employed. Provision was made for the fencing of machinery and for the promulgation of rules as to water supply, ventilation, the prevention of overcrowding, etc.

Hours Fixed.

The next Factory Act was finally passed into law as Act XII of 1911.

The new Act extended the definition of "factory" so as to include seasonal factories working for less than four months in the year, shortened the hours within which children, and, as a general rule, women, may be employed, and further restricted the employment of women by night by allowing it only in the

of concern and provision for securing the health and safety of the operatives, making inspection more effective, and securing generally the better administration of the Act. The most important feature of the Act, however, was the introduction of a number of special provisions applicable only to textile factories. The report of the Factory Commission showed that excessive hours were not worked except in textile factories. The Act for the first time applied a statutory restriction to the hours of employment of adult males by laying down that, subject to certain exceptions, "no person shall be employed in any textile factory for more than twelve hours in any one day." It is also provided in the case of textile factories that no child may be employed for more than six hours in any one day, and that (subject to certain exceptions, among which are factories worked in accordance with an approved system of shifts) no person may be employed before 5-30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. (the new limits laid down generally for the employment of women and children).

The Amending Acts of 1922 and 1923.

The ratification by India of the conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919 necessitated radical revision of the Indian Factories Act of 1911. This was undertaken during the year 1921 and the Indian Factories Amendment Act, 1922 (11 of 1922) introduced a series of important amendments. The new provisions, which applied to all factories, except those of small factories, drastic restriction of the exempting provisions, etc. The Act was further amended in 1923. The principal object of the Amending Act of 1923 was the removal of a difficulty which had arisen in connexion with the law relating to the weekly holiday.

The Amending Act of 1926.

The experience gained during the three years which immediately followed the revision of the Act in 1922 indicated that the Amending Act had worked smoothly on the whole and that the main principles followed in 1922 commanded general acceptance. It was not considered necessary, therefore, to modify any of the main principles of the Act, but several administrative difficulties had arisen in connexion with some sections of the Act—one such difficulty relating to Section 21 which provided for intervals of rest. In practice it had proved difficult to enforce the provisions of this section in some industries. Local Governments were asked in June 1923 to consider a possible solution of the difficulty and to bring to the notice of the Government of India any difficulties which might have arisen in connexion with other provisions. On receipt of their replies, a Conference of Chief Inspectors of Factories was convened. The Conference recommended a number of alterations designed by allowing greater elasticity in some directions and by increasing control in others to make for smoother working. The Factories Amendment Act of 1926 was, therefore, based on the recommendations of that Conference and

included the widening of the definition of "factories" so as to bring within the control of the Act such establishments as Electrical Generating Stations, Water Works, etc., the prevention of the issue of age certificates by Certifying Surgeons to children who are not fit for employment, the prevention of cleaning machinery in motion even by men in cases where Local Governments are of opinion that the work is attended by danger to the operatives; a clearer definition of the periods prescribed for intervals of rest, and while still preventing the employment of children in two factories on the same day, the permitting of women to work in two factories on the same day provided that the limits for hours of work are not exceeded.

The Present Law.

In the following paragraphs it is intended to give the more important provisions of the present law on the subject by combining the Act of 1911 with the Amending Acts of 1922, 1923 and 1926. The Amending Act of 1923 came into force on the 1st July 1923 and that of 1926 on the 1st June 1926. The Act extends to the whole of British India including British Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Provinces.

Hours of Employment.

Rest periods in factories.—(1) In every factory there shall be fixed,—

(a) for each person employed on each working day—

(i) at intervals not exceeding six hours, periods of rest of not less than one hour, or

(ii) at the request of the employees concerned, periods of rest, at intervals not exceeding five hours, of not less than half an hour each, the total duration of the periods of rest on that day not being less than one hour for each period of six hours' work done.

Provided that, in lieu of the period provided under sub-clause (i) or sub-clause (ii) there may be fixed for each male person employed for not more than eight and a half hours on each working day, at the request of the employees concerned, and with the previous sanction of the local Government, a period of rest of not less than half an hour so arranged that no such person shall work for more than five hours continuously and

(b) for each child working more than five and a half hours in any day, a period of rest of not less than half an hour.

(2) The period of rest under clause (b) shall be so fixed that no such child shall be required to work continuously for more than four hours.

Weekly Holiday.—(1) No person shall be employed in any factory on a Sunday, unless—

(a) he has had, or will have, a holiday for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday, and

the manager of the factory has previously in writing notified the Inspector of his intention so to employ the said person and of the day which is to be substituted and has at the same time affixed a notice to the same effect in the place mentioned in section 36.

Provided that no such substitution shall be made as will result in any person working for more than ten consecutive days without a holiday for a whole day.

(2) Where in accordance with the provisions of sub-section (1) any person is employed on a Sunday in consequence of his having had a holiday on one of the three days preceding that Sunday, that Sunday shall, for the purpose of calculating the weekly hours of work of such person, be deemed to be included in the preceding week.

Employment of Children.—With respect to the employment of children in factories the following provisions shall apply:—

(a) no child shall be employed in any factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted under section 7 or section 8 showing that he is not less than twelve years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate;

(b) no child shall be employed in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening;

(c) no child shall be employed in any factory for more than six hours in any one day.

Employment of Women.—With respect to the employment of women in factories the following provisions shall apply:—

(a) no woman shall be employed in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening;

(b) no woman shall be employed in any factory for more than eleven hours in any one day.

Prohibition of Employment of Person in two Factories on Same Day.—No person shall employ, or permit to be employed, in any factory any child or, save in such circumstances as may be prescribed, any other person whom he knows, or has reason to believe, to have already been employed on the same day in any other factory.

Hours of Employment to be fixed.—The manager of a factory shall fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in such factory, and no person shall be employed except during such hours.

Limitation of Working Hours per Week.—No person shall be employed in a factory for more than sixty hours in any one week.

Limitation of Working Hours per Day.—No person shall be employed in any factory for more than eleven hours in any one day.

Exceptions.

Where it is proved to the satisfaction of the Local Government:—

(a) that any class of work in a factory is in the nature of preparatory or complementary work which must necessarily be carried on outside the limits laid down for the general working of the factory or

(b) that the work of any class of workers is essentially intermittent; or

(c) that there is in any class of factories any work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons; or

(d) that any class of factories supplies the public with articles of prime necessity which must be made or supplied every day; or

(e) that in any class of factories the work performed by the exigencies of the trade or by its nature, cannot be carried on except at (i) stated seasons or (ii) at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces;

the Local Government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the local official Gazette, exempt on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, and in such area as may be specified in the notification,—

in case (a) such class of work from all or any of the provisions of sections 21, 27 and 28;

in case (b) work of the nature described from all or any of the provisions of sections 21, 22, 26, 27 and 28.

in case (c) work of the nature described from the provisions of sections 21, 22 and 28.

in cases (d) and (e) such class of factories from the provisions of section 23.

in case (e) (ii) such class of factories from the provisions of section 26.

The system of inspection is being steadily improved by the appointment of more whole-time inspectors with good technical qualifications in the principal industrial centres. The principle of appointing women as factory inspectors has already been accepted by the Government of Bombay and a beginning was made in the year 1924 by the appointment of Dr. Tehmina I. H. Cama as a whole-time Inspector of Factories.

The Government of India have repealed the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act of 1859 with effect from 1st April 1924.

The Indian Mines Act, 1923.—The Indian Mines Act, 1923, received the assent of the Governor-General on the 23rd February 1923. It extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Southall Parganas, and came into force on the first day of July 1924. By this Act the definition of a mine was made clear, and the weekly hours of employment were limited to 60 hours for work above ground and 54 hours for work below ground.

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING

In many of the States in India the question of proper and adequate housing is engaging the attention of all public bodies and governments to an increasing extent. Employers themselves are becoming increasingly alive to this burning question and whenever finances permit tenements are constructed for the housing of the workmen. In cases where housing is provided the amounts charged for rent are just sufficient to cover the interest charges on the capital outlay. In Bombay City, where the housing question was one of great difficulty a few years ago, the City Improvement Trust and the Development Directorate of the Government of Bombay have done much useful work in endeavouring to solve the problem. The scheme originally outlined by the Development Directorate for Industrial Housing aimed at a construction programme of 50,000 tenements providing accommodation for a quarter million people and to be completed within a period of eight years. This scheme was conceived in the boom period when labour conditions in Bombay were probably abnormal. By the end of December 1925 the Directorate had 16,541 tenements completely ready for occupation out of which 5,182 were let. The total number of chawls completely ready is 207. Government have decided that until the tenements now provided are fully occupied no additional land is to be taken up for Industrial Housing and that no new schemes are to be embarked upon without Government approval.

The average economic rent works out at Rs. 16 per month. All the tenements are now *Nahanis*. The rents fixed for month for each tenement, vary at Worli to Rs. 8-8-0. On this basis there is an annual loss of lakhs and this is being met from other sources.

The City Improvement Trust also made very good progress of providing industrial houses had a total number of 8,493 by the end of December 1925, on tenements were let for living shops, 59 as godowns and 16 tenements were reserved for Muccadams, for offices and Superintendents' Quarters. Each tenement inclusive of a verandah varied from 125 square feet to 200. The majority of the tenements with the maximum floor space average rent for a tenement in Trust Chawl works out at Rs. 5-0-0. The maximum permissible population of a tenement is 37,699. The actual population of these tenements, at the end of 1925, was 26,088 or 23,779 adults.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

Complete statistics in connexion with Industrial Disputes are now available for the whole of India. The importance that is being attached to the weapon of strike by the workmen in this land may be gathered from the figures published in respect of the industrial disputes in British India for which statistics have been collected.

The year 1925 was one of the worst years in the history of industrial relations in the country. The number of disputes reported was 184 as against 133 in the preceding year. The number of workers involved in these disputes was 270,423 and the number of working days lost amounted to 25,578,129.

The corresponding figures for 1924 were 212,462 and 8,780,918. The increase was due entirely to the strike in the Bombay

cent, were successful in whole or presents a slightly higher proportion of strikes than in the preceding corresponding figures for 1926. They indicated that there was a strike in that year than in any of the preceding years. The number of strikes recorded was lower than that of any year since 1914 when the collection of statistics began. The total number of working days lost in strikes and lock-outs was 25,578,129 against an average of 10,000,000 in the preceding five years. In few of the strikes were the workmen gaining any concession.

Province.	Number of Disputes.	Number of Workpeople Involved.
Bengal	57	141,808
Bombay	57	25,201
Madras	2	131
Central Provinces and Berar	4	1,514
United Provinces	3	1,310
Punjab
Bihar and Orissa	3	5,700
Assam	1	500
Burma	1	10,647
British India	123	186,811

The following data given above reclassified according to different classes of Industries.—

Industry.	No. of disputes.	No. of Men involved.	Days lost.
Cotton Mills.	57	23,713	79,027
Jute Mills.	34	129,951	769,022
Engineering Works.	4	1,224	8,707
Conservancy.	13	5,484	25,512
Railway Workshops.	3	4,900	10,500
Oil fields.	1	10,847	139,845
Oil works.	1	551	4,685
Printing works.	2	90	670
Tea estate.	1	500	1,000
Coal fields.	1	200	1,200
Miscellaneous.	12	5,055	62,913
Total.	128	186,811	1,097,478

The next two tables show the causes of disputes by Provinces and Classes of Industries.

Causes of Disputes by Provinces.

Province.	Pay.	Bonus.	Personnel.	Leave and Hours.	Others.
Bengal.	27	3	3	11	8
Bombay.	27	1	22	..	7
Madras.	2
Central Provinces and Berar.	3	1
United Provinces.	5
Punjab.
Bihar and Orissa.	2	..	1
Assam.	1
Burma.	1	..	1
British India.	60	4	31	11	22

Causes of Disputes by Classes of Industries.

Industry.	Pay.	Bonus.	Personnel.	Leave and Hours.	Others.
Cotton Mills.	24	1	22	..	10
Jute Mills.	12	2	5	9	4
Engineering Works.	2	1	1
Conservancy.	9	..	1	..	3
Railway Workshops.	1	..	2
Oil Field.	1
Oil Works.	1
Printing Works.	1	..	1
Tea Estate.	1
Coal Fields.	1
Miscellaneous.	8	1	3
Total.	60	4	31	11	22

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Results by Provinces.

Province	Successful.	Partially Successful
Bengal	6	7
Bombay	5	5
Madras
Central Provinces and Berar
United Provinces	1
Punjab
Bihar and Orissa
Burma
British India	12	12

Results by Classes of Industries.

Class of Industry.	Successful.	Partially Successful.
Cotton Mills	5	6
Jute Mills	2	3
Engineering Works	2
Railways Work-shops	2	1
Conservancy	1
Oil Mills
Oil Works
Printing Works
Tea Estate
Coal Fields
Miscellaneous	2
Total	12	12

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Of recent years much attention has been paid to the settlement of industrial disputes. The baffling character of such disputes is that they are so often sporadic, breaking out without warning, grievances being formulated after striking instead of before. When such strikes occur there is no organised body of workers with whom to negotiate. The Government of Bengal took the leading part and in March 1922 appointed a committee which laid stress on the

value of Works Committees and institution of Conciliation Courts. disputes in public utility serv. favoured the appointment of a p. the Local Government could dis. stituting a Board to enquire into. The Bombay Government, which explored the ground informally, similar committee in November reported in February 1923.

TRADE DISPUTES LEGISLATION.

The valuable suggestions made by an Industrial Disputes Committee appointed in Bombay were considered both by the Government of Bombay and by the Government of India. On the 11th March 1923, the Hon. Sir Maurice Hayward, Home Member of the Bombay Government, made a statement in the Bombay Legislative Council to the effect that details were being worked out by the Government of Bombay in connexion with the drafting of a Bill to give effect to the recommendations of the Committee, and that, as soon as Government were satisfied on these points, legislation would be introduced in the Local Council as early as possible after the sanction of the Government of India had been obtained.

In July 1924, the Government of India informed the Government of Bombay that as they considered that this subject was one for All-India legislation, the Government of India were themselves preparing a Bill for early introduction in the Legislative Assembly and that the Local Government should not introduce the Bill which it contemplated doing in its own Council.

The Government of India prepared a Bill to make Provision for Enabling the Investigation and Settlement of Trade Disputes and this was published in August 1924. This Bill may be considered as being very wide and comprehensive in scope and extent. It covers all workmen including employees of the Government of India and of any Local Government. An important distinction is made between the general body of workmen by dividing these into employees in Public Utility Services and other employees. In the case of public utility services and in those services specially notified as such by the Governor-General in Council, it is provided that it shall not be lawful for any employer to declare, or enforce a lockout or for any workman to

take part in a strike on account of any dispute unless due notice of the proposed lockout or strike has been sent to the prescribed officer. Such strikes or lockouts are not permitted until the expiry of thirty days after notice has been served in cases where no order has been made for reference of the dispute to a Board and until the expiry of ninety days after notice has been served in cases where such an order has been made or until the expiry of seven days after the publication of a report by a board whichever of the two dates may be earlier.

There is no separate provision in the Bill for Courts of Enquiry, Board of Arbitration or for Conciliation. The functions of these two separate institutions in Industrial Disputes legislation are vested in the Government of India Bill with one body which is to be called the Board of Investigation and Conciliation. The members of these Boards are to be selected from permanent panels of (1) representatives of employees, (2) representative of employers, and (3) persons to be appointed as Chairmen. The Government of India and each Local Government are to construct their own panels. The functions of these Boards are to endeavour to bring about a settlement of any dispute by a thorough investigation of the circumstances and causes of each dispute. The Government of India do not appear to be inclined to present this Bill to the Legislative Assembly just at present. No official declaration in connexion with this matter has been published but a special remark made by His Excellency the Viceroy in his speech at the annual meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon at Calcutta in 1925 is significant. His Excellency said: "The question of providing means of conciliation in trade disputes has been thoroughly explored, but it would be premature to legislate on this question until the Trades Union Bill has become law."

TRADE UNION LEGISLATION.

In March 1921, Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., moved a Resolution in the Legislative Assembly recommending that steps should be taken to provide legislation for the registration of Trade Unions and for the protection of Trade Unions. In September 1921, the Government of India addressed all Local Governments for their views, after consulting the interests concerned, on the question of the principle of such legislation and with regard to the form which it should take. On receipt of their replies, a Bill was drawn up and this was again circulated for opinion. The Bill to provide for the Regis-

tration of Trade Unions and in certain respects to define the Law Relating to Registered Trade Unions in British India was introduced in the Simla Session of the Legislative Assembly on the 31st August 1925 and was referred to a Select Committee. It was passed by the Legislative Assembly on the 5th February and by the Council of State on the 25th February and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 25th March 1926. The Trade Union Act was brought in to force on 1st June 1927.

The following paragraphs give the more important provisions of the Act:-

DEFINITIONS.

Registrar.—"Registrar" means a Registrar of Trade Unions appointed by the Local Government under section 3, and "the Registrar," in relation to any Trade Union, means the Registrar appointed for the province in which the head or registered office, as the case may be, of the Trade Union is situated.

Trade Dispute.—"Trade Dispute" means any dispute between employers and workmen or between workmen and workmen, or between employers and employers which is connected with the employment or non-employment, or the terms of employment or the conditions

of labour, of any person, and "workmen" mean all persons employed in trade or industry whether or not in the employment of the employer with whom the trade dispute arises.

Trade Union.—"Trade Union" means any combination, whether temporary or permanent formed primarily for the purpose of regulating the relations between workmen and employers or between workmen and workmen, or between employers and employers, or for imposing restrictive conditions on the conduct of any trade or business and includes any federation of two or more Trade Unions.

REGISTRATION.

Mode of Registration.—Any seven or more members of a Trade Union may, by subscribing their names to the rules of the Trade Union and by otherwise complying with the provisions of this Act with respect to registration, apply for registration of the Trade Union under this Act.

Provisions to be contained in the Rules of a Trade Union.—A Trade Union shall not be entitled to registration under this Act, unless the executive thereof is constituted in accordance with the provisions of this Act, and the rules thereof provide for the following matters, namely:—

- (a) the name of the Trade Union,
- (b) the whole of the objects for which the Trade Union has been established,
- (c) the whole of the purposes for which the general funds of the Trade Union shall be applicable, all of which purposes shall be purposes to which such funds are lawfully applicable under this Act;
- (d) the maintenance of a list of the members of the Trade Union and adequate facilities for the inspection thereof by the officers and members of the Trade Union;
- (e) the admission of ordinary members who shall be persons actually engaged or employed in an industry with which the Trade Union is connected, and also the admission of the number of honorary or temporary members as officers required under section 22 to form the executive of the Trade Union;
- (f) the conditions under which any members shall be entitled to any benefit assured by the rules and under which any fine or forfeiture may be imposed on the members;

(g) the manner in which the rules shall be amended, varied or rescinded;

(h) the manner in which the members of the executive and the other officers of the Trade Union shall be appointed and removed;

(i) the safe custody of the funds of the Trade Union, an annual audit, in such manner as may be prescribed, of the accounts thereof and adequate facilities for the inspection of the account books by the officers and members of the Trade Union; and

(j) the manner in which the Trade Union may be dissolved.

Cancellation of Registration.—A certificate of registration of a Trade Union may be withdrawn or cancelled by the Registrar—

- (a) on the application of the Trade Union to be verified in such manner as may be prescribed, or
- (b) if the Registrar is satisfied that the certificate has been obtained by fraud or mistake, or that the Trade Union has ceased to exist or has wilfully and after notice from the Registrar contravened any provisions of this Act or allowed any rule to continue in force which is inconsistent with any such provision, or has rescinded any rule providing for any matter provision for which is required by section 6:

Provided that not less than two months' previous notice in writing specifying the ground on which it is proposed to withdraw or cancel the certificate shall be given by the Registrar to the Trade Union before the certificate is withdrawn or cancelled otherwise than on the application of the Trade Union.

RIGHTS AND LIABILITIES OF REGISTERED TRADE UNIONS.

Objects on which General Funds may be spent.—The general funds of a Trade Union not be spent on any other objects than the following, namely:—

- (1) the payment of salaries, allowances and expenses to officers of the Trade Union;
- (2) the payment of expenses for the administration of the Trade Union, including audit of the accounts of the general funds of the Trade Union;
- (3) the prosecution or defence of any legal proceeding to which the Trade Union or any member thereof is a party, when such prosecution or defence is undertaken for the purpose of securing or protecting any rights of the Trade Union as such or any rights arising out of the relations of any member with his employer or with a person whom the member employs;
- (4) the conduct of trade disputes on behalf of the Trade Union or any member thereof;
- (5) the compensation of members for loss arising out of trade disputes;
- (6) allowances to members or their dependants on account of death, old age, sickness, accidents or unemployment of such members;
- (7) the issue of, or the undertaking of liability under policies of assurance on the lives of members, or under policies insuring members against sickness, accidents or unemployment;
- (8) the provision of educational, social or religious benefits for members (including the payment of the expenses of funeral or religious ceremonies for deceased members) or for the dependants of members;
- (9) the upkeep of a periodical published, mainly for the purpose of discussing questions affecting employers or workmen as such;
- (10) the payment, in furtherance of any of the objects on which the general funds of the Trade Union may be spent, of contributions to any cause intended to benefit workmen in general, provided that the expenditure in respect of such contributions in any financial year shall not at any time during that year be in excess of one-fourth of the combined total of the gross income which has up to that time accrued to the general funds of the Trade Union during that year and of the balance at the credit of those funds at the commencement of that year; and

(11) subject to any conditions contained in the notification, any other object notified by the Governor-General in Council in the Gazette of India.

Institution of a separate Fund for Political purposes.—(1) A registered Trade Union constitute a separate fund, from contributions levied for or made to that fund,

from which payments may be made, for the promotion of civil and political interests of its members, in furtherance of any of the objects specified in sub-section (2).

(2) The objects referred to in sub-section (1) are:—

- (a) The payment of any expenses incurred either directly or indirectly, by a candidate or prospective candidate for election as a member of any legislative body constituted under the Government of India Act or of any local authority before, during or after the election in connection with his candidature or election; or
- (b) the holding of any meeting or the distribution of any literature or documents, in support of any such candidature or prospective candidature; or
- (c) the maintenance of any person who is a member of any legislative body constituted under the Government of India Act or of any local authority; or
- (d) the registration of electors or the selection of a candidate for any legislative body constituted under the Government of India Act or for any local authority; or
- (e) the holding of political meetings of any kind, or the distribution of any political literature or political documents of any kind.

(3) No member shall be compelled to contribute to the fund constituted under sub-section (1); and a member who does not contribute to the said fund shall not be excluded from any benefits of the Trade Union or placed in any respect either directly or indirectly under any disability or at any disadvantage as compared with other members of the Trade Union (except in relation to the control or management of the said fund) by reason of his not contributing to the said fund; and contribution to the said fund shall not be made a condition for admission to the Trade Union.

Criminal Conspiracy in Trade Disputes

—No officer or member of a registered Trade Union shall be liable to punishment under sub-section (2) of section 120-B of the Indian Penal Code, in respect of any agreement made between the members for the purpose of furthering any such object of the Trade Union as is specified in section 15, unless the agreement is an agreement to commit an offence.

Immunity from Civil Suit in certain Cases.

—(1) No suit or other legal proceeding shall be maintainable in any Civil Court against any registered Trade Union or any officer or any member thereof in respect of any act done in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute to which a member of the Trade Union is a party on the ground only that such act induces some other person to break a contract of employment, or that it is in interference with the trade, business or employment of some other person to dispose of his capital or of his labour as he will.

maining cases will fall under the scale for temporary disablement. The rate of payment for temporary disablement is half wages for adults and two-thirds wages for minors, subject to a maximum of five years, and for minors, two-thirds wages or whole monthly wages after they have attained the age of 15 years, subject in each case to a maximum amount of Rs. 30, and to a maximum period of 5 years. This maximum of 5 years is not of great importance, as experience shows that the number of such cases which last more than six months is insignificant. During the first six months of these payments they can only be commuted to a lump sum if both parties agree; after payments have gone on for six months, either party can apply for commutation. In its treatment of the difficult question of dependents the Indian Act allows only husbands and wives, parents and minor children to claim compensation, and it makes the compensation a fixed sum independent of the number of those relations. The administration of the Act and the settlement of disputes is entrusted to special Commissioners, with a very simple procedure, wide powers and restricted opportunities for appeals.

Only two Provinces have so far appointed full-time Commissioners. In Bengal, Mr. M. H. B. Lethbridge, I.C.S., is the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation; and in the Bombay Presidency, Mr. N. M. Patwardhan, Barrister-at-Law, has been appointed a full-time Commissioner with an immediate jurisdiction extending over Bombay City, the Bombay Suburban District, the Districts of Ahmedabad, Broach, Surat, Khandesh and Sholapur and the whole of the B. B. & C. I. Railway line coming within the Bombay Presidency. In the Madras Presidency, the Labour Commissioner is also the Commissioner for workmen's compensation. In the other Provinces and in the Districts of Bengal and Bombay which are not under the jurisdiction of the Provincial full-time Commissioners, the District Magistrates and Subordinate Judges have been appointed ex officio Commissioners.

The annual report of the working of the Act in the Bombay Presidency including Surat for the year 1926 shows that in addition to 19 applications which were pending at the beginning of the year, 242 applications were filed during the year and 7 were received for disposal from other Commissioners as against two applications pending at beginning, 232 filed and 3 received from other Commissioners during the year 1923. Of these 268 applications, 55 related to fatal accidents, 82 to permanent disablement, 13 to temporary disablement and 101 to distribution of compensation. Five applications related to recovery of compensation under Section 31 and the remaining two were miscellaneous. All but 26 applications were disposed of during the year, the claims paid having been contested only in 102 cases. Out of the contested applications 21 were allowed in full, 54 in part and the remaining 27 were dismissed. Of the remaining applications, 7 were transferred to other Commissioners for disposal, 5 were withdrawn, one was dismissed for non-appearance, two were summarily dismissed under rule 21, 124 were admitted by the opposite party and one was allowed ex-parte.

During the year 1926 Rs. 1,38,259-13-6 were deposited of which Rs. 1,17,273 represented the amount of compensation deposited under Section 8 (1) for fatal accidents and Rs. 20,986-13-6 represented the amount of compensation deposited under Section 8 (2) in respect of non-fatal accidents, as against Rs. 93,074-0-0 and Rs. 16,353-7-2 respectively during 1925. Of the total amount of Rs. 1,58,800-3-6, Rs. 1,33,233-3-6 were paid out to various claimants thus leaving a balance in the hands of the Commissioner of Rs. 25,566-0-0 at the end of the year. Of the amount of Rs. 1,33,233-3-6 that was paid out Rs. 1,765-0-0 represented the amount of three deposits that were returned to the employers under Section 8 (4), there being no dependants. The total number of cases in which compensation was awarded during the year amounted to 196 of which 194 were in respect of adults and 2 in respect of minors. Of these 194 cases, 122 related to fatal accidents, 86 to permanent disablement and 6 to temporary disablement. Of the two cases relating to minors one was for fatal accident and the other for permanent disablement.

At the beginning of the year 1926 there were 9 applications for registration of agreements pending. In addition 214 applications were received during the year. Of these 223 applications, 219 were in respect of permanent disablement and the remaining 4 for commutation of half-monthly payments for temporary disablement. In all 205 agreements were registered involving a total amount of compensation of Rs. 45,490-10-5. During the year 1926 three appeals were filed in the High Court of which one was dismissed under Order XXI rule 2 clause (i) of the Civil Procedure Code. In another the order of the lower court was confirmed and the third was still pending. In a fourth case that was taken up to the High Court as the claim was below Rs. 300 there was no appeal and the party, therefore, chose to file a revision petition under Section 115 of the Civil Procedure Code. The High Court held that the Commissioner was not a Court within the meaning of Section 115 of the Code and therefore dismissed the petition for revision.

Proposed Labour Legislation.

Largely as a result of the demands of Labour in Indian Legislatures in the Press and elsewhere, the Government of India have at present under contemplation the provision of legislation (1) for defining the limits within which wages must be paid; and (2) for the regulation of Deductions made from Wages or Payments in respect of Fines.

The Prompt Payment of Wages.

In September 1924, the Government of India requested all Local Governments to furnish particulars regarding the periods by which wages are paid in organised industries and the delays which are associated with their payment. The results of the enquiry for the Bombay Presidency were published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1925 and for all India in a special bulletin issued by the Department of Industries and Labour—Bulletin No. 34, 'Periods of Wage Payment.' The information collected revealed a state of affairs which could not be regarded as other than unsatisfactory. The delays which

to the economic difficulties of the workers.

In July 1926 the Government of India addressed all Local Governments for their views, after consulting the interests concerned, on the provisional proposals drawn up with regard to the form which the legislation for the control of this matter should take. It was pointed out that systematic delays in payment are particularly associated with payments on a monthly basis—a month being the period most commonly employed for the calculation of wages. It is no uncommon thing—in fact, it appears to be the rule in certain industries for monthly wages to be systematically withheld until a fortnight after the close of the month to which they relate, and cases have been reported where wages had been withheld for considerably longer periods. It was suggested to the Government of India that, as the evil is particularly associated with monthly payments, employers should be compelled to adopt shorter periods of wage payments. This was one of the arguments put forward in support of Diwan Chaman Lal's Weekly Payments Bill. This Bill when it was referred to Local Governments for consideration met with such general opposition that the Government of India were compelled to oppose its consideration in the Legislative Assembly. The Government of India do not think that any Bill of this kind is likely to receive the support of public opinion or to prove effective in its operation; but, whilst not accepting the view that the general system of monthly payments is a satisfactory one, they recognise that if the abuses referred to can be checked or eliminated by legislation it is the duty of Government to introduce such legislation.

The scheme outlined proposes to set statutory limits to the time within which wages must be paid. In the case of monthly workers the limit proposed is seven days, for fortnightly workers four days, for weekly workers two days and for daily workers one day. It is suggested that it should be left to the employers, subject to the approval of the Local Government, to fix the date on which the month should commence. The difficulties arising out of the fact that in some cases when wages are paid at piece rates intricate valuations may be required to calculate wages are proposed to be met by prescribing that, in such cases, the payment within the statutory limits laid down of seventy-five per cent.

should be confined only to such establishments as are covered by the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act, and that the inspection staff of the Factories and the Mines Departments through some form of summary procedure.

Regulation of Deductions from Wages for Fines.

In June 1926, the Government of India requested all Local Governments to procure information on the extent of the practice in India by which employers in industrial concerns are empowered to inflict fines upon their workmen. Suggestions have been made in the Central Legislature. In the Press and elsewhere that the system of inflicting fines upon workmen is common in Indian industrial establishments, and that it constitutes an evil of such proportions that steps should be taken either to abolish the system altogether or to reduce it to such dimensions as to prevent abuse.

The experience of Western countries with regard to the subject has in many cases led to more or less elaborate legislation on the subject. The main provisions of the English Law are contained in the Truck Act of 1896. In several other countries the power to impose fines and make deductions from wages is regulated by law. Sometimes a limit in the shape of a maximum percentage of wages is imposed; generally, deductions can only be made in accordance with a code of regulations duly posted in the factory or other establishment; and frequently the law contains the statutory provision that sums paid as fines must be credited to funds devoted in some manner or other to the benefit of the workers.

The Government of India have not at present sufficient information at their disposal regarding the degree to which the system of imposing fines is prevalent in India, the forms which it takes, or the extent, if any, to which it is in practice abused to enable them to form any definite conclusions. The object of the enquiry is to ask Local Governments to furnish them with such information as they are able to collect on the subject, after consultation with the interests concerned, and to favour them with their views on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise, to counter any abuses which may be found to prevail.

WAGES.

In Agriculture.—There is much discussion, with no very definite conclusions, as to whether wages have kept pace with the cost of living. Conditions vary so markedly between Province and Province that it is difficult to give exact figures. Different Provincial Governments have, at different times, made enquiries into the wages of labourers mainly in agriculture. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay published a Report in 1924 of an enquiry into Wages in Agriculture which

gave the average daily earnings of three classes of agricultural labour, viz., skilled labour, ordinary labour, and field labour, in each of the 26 districts of the Bombay Presidency, separately for urban areas and rural areas, and for each of 28 years from 1900 to 1922. The figures for each year from 1923 to 1928 have been published in the General Administration Reports of the Bombay Presidency. The wages prevailing in other provinces for similar types of labour do not compare unfavourably with wages in the Bombay Pre-

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i n g t h e l a s t t w e l v e y e a r s a n d t h a t
c o n d i t i o n o f t h e I n d i a n l a b o u r e r h a s
T h e c o n s t r u c t i o n o f a r e a l w a g e
o r i s n o t a l w a y s i n d i c a t i v e o f t h e
b e r i a l c o n d i t i o n o f a n y g r o u p o f
h e u t i l i t y o f s u c h a n i n d e x n u m b e r
l i n e d t o a p a r t i c u l a r c o m p a r i s o n
g i v e n d a t e a n d p r o v i d e d a l w a y s
s o s e t s o f f i g u r e s s h o w i n g m o n e y
t h e c o s t o f l i v i n g a t t w o p a r t i c u l a r
c o n t r a t e s c o m p i l e d, t h e r e a l w a g e
v e r a t t h e l a t e r d a t e a s c o m p a r e d
c o n d i t i o n o f t h e w o r k m a n a t t h e

Agricultural Wages (Nominal).

Numbers for the Bombay Presidency (including Sind) 1913=100.

Urban Areas.			Rural Areas.		
Field labour.	Ordinary labour.	Skilled labour.	Field labour.	Ordinary labour.	Skilled labour.
179	184	180	159	148	166
189	192	193	170	162	179
200	200	196	171	171	187
193	196	209	178	181	191
221	208	221	206	181	211
221	204	216	188	181	215

struction of accurate real wage correspond with the index nominal wages given above is not account of the inapplicability general cost of living index a particular group of workers in centre to the Presidency as a

Cotton Mill Industry.—An enquiry by the Labour Office of the Government into Wages and Hours of the Cotton Mill Industry for August 1923 covered a total number of 351,219 in 186 mills in the Bombay and in the States within its territories. The important results of this are (1) a decline in the number of employed owing to more rigorous action under the new Factory Act, the figure as high as 10.4 per cent. for men, 9.2 per cent. for women, 11.2 per cent. for piece-workers;

(2) the average monthly earnings per head in August 1923 as compared with May 1921 were at the same level in Bombay, slightly over in Ahmedabad and lower in Solapur, Baroda State and other Centres in the Presidency; (3) the potential monthly earnings for all work-people in the Presidency would have amounted to Rs. 22-1-0 per head per month had all work-people worked for a full working month of 27 days at the rates of average daily earnings which prevailed in August 1923—the difference between this and the actual monthly earnings amounting to Rs. 2-8-0 or 12 per cent.; (4) the total Wages Bill in the cotton mill industry in August 1923 amounted to Rs. 72,22,000 for the number of work-people covered in the enquiry; (5) the average hours of labour per day amounted to 10 hours and 5 minutes for men, 9 hours and 35 minutes for women and 5 hours for half timers or children; (6) the number of holidays recommended in the Bombay Mills by the Millowners' Association during the year 1923 amounted to 57; and (7) except in Solapur no bonuses were paid for service in the year 1923.

71 Showing table showing the daily average earnings per capita of workers in occupations classified according to age and sex groups :—

						Bombay City.	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur
						Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Men—								
Jobbers	{ Time.	2 15 2	2 1 5	1 10 10
					{ Piece.	4 1 0	4 2 10	2 12 4
2 loom weavers	Piece.	1 11 3	1 10 5	1 9 4
Mule Side Piecers	{ Time.	1 4 9	1 1 4	0 14 5
					{ Piece.	1 7 2	..	.
Ring Side Piecers	Time.	1 0 4	0 15 6	0 11 1
Ring Followers	Time.	0 14 4	0 11 10	0 8 2
Rulers	Piece.	0 12 4	0 12 9	
Winders	Piece.	0 13 4	0 13 8	0 9 8
Drawing Frame Tenters	Piece.	1 3 0	1 0 2	0 11 7
Slubbing Frame Tenters	Piece.	1 5 8	1 3 0	0 12 10
Intermediate Frame Tenters	Piece.	1 3 11	0 15 11	0 12 3
Roving Frame Tenters	Piece.	1 2 7	0 14 11	0 10 7
Women—								
Ring Spinning Side Piecers	Time.	0 13 2	0 14 11	0 9 10
Ring Spinning Followers	Time.	0 12 7	0 11 0	0 7 0
Rulers	Piece.	0 12 6	0 12 7	0 6 0
Winders	Piece.	0 13 8	0 11 10	0 6 6
Big Lads*—								
Ring Spinning Side Boys	Time.	0 14 2	0 12 7	0 9 9
Spinning Boys	Time.	0 11 3	0 10 11	0 8 1
Roving Frame Tenters	Time.	0 11 4	0 10 11	0 7 11
Children—								
Spinning †	Time.	0 6 10	0 5 3	0 4 8
Roving	Time.	0 6 9	0 5 9	0 5 2

* By "Big Lads" is generally meant boys between the ages of 15 and 17, but includes men who are not considered as sufficiently bodied to be employed.

† Children are workers, boys and girls, more than 12 years and under 15.

The third Labour Office Enquiry into Wages in the Cotton Mill Industry, Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur was held in 1926 on the basis of the Muster of this enquiry will be published in due course.

OFFICIAL ORGANISATION

The Government of India and several Local Governments have set up special machinery for dealing with Labour issues, and there are Labour officers with the Governments of Bengal, Madras and Burma whilst the Bombay Government, on the advice of the informal committees whose recommendations have been mentioned above, constituted a special Labour Office in the Secretariat.

In a resolution of Government in the Home Department, dated 29th April 1921, the functions of the Labour Office in Bombay were set out as follows :—

(i) **LABOUR STATISTICS AND INTELLIGENCE.**—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages, hours of labour, family budgets, strikes and lock-outs, and similar matters;

(ii) **INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.**—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop, it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise; and

(iii) **LEGISLATION AND OTHER MATTERS RELATING TO LABOUR.**—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing laws. The Labour Office publishes a monthly journal entitled the *Labour Gazette* which is a journal for the use of all interested in obtaining prompt and accurate information on matters specially affecting labour in India and abroad. The address of the Labour Office is :—**SECRETARIAT, BOMBAY.**

Director of Information and Labour Intelligence and Registrar of Trade Unions—Mr. J. P. Gennings, Bar-at-Law J. P.

Investigators.—Mr. S. R. Deshpande, B.A., B. Litt. (Oxford); Mr. N. A. Mehran, B.A.; (also Asst. Registrar of Trade Unions.) Mr. A. S. Bajan, B.A., LL.B.

Lady Investigators.—Mrs. K. Wagh; Miss G. Pimpalkhars; Miss S. Dabholkar.

LABOUR ASSOCIATIONS.

ALL-INDIA TRADE UNION CONGRESS.

President.—Mr. C. F. Andrews.

Vice-Presidents.—(1) Mr. Thengdi

(2) „ Daud

(3) „ B. N. Mukerji

General Secretary.—Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A.,
C/o Servants of India
Society, Sandhurst Road,
Bombay.

Organising Secretary.—Mr. S. H. Jhabvala.

Assistant Secretaries.—(1) Mr. R. E. Bakhle.

(2) „ S. A. Dange.

Treasurer.—Mr. F. J. Ginwalla, 123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

CENTRAL LABOUR BOARD FOR BOMBAY.

President.—Raj Sahib Chandrika Prasad.

Vice-President.—F. J. Ginwalla, B.A.,

123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

Hon. Gen. Secretary.—S. H. Jhabvala, B.A.,

123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

The names and addresses of the officials of other trade unions in the Bombay Presidency are published regularly every quarter by the Labour Office in the *Labour Gazette*.

Domestic Servants.

relationship of master to servant in India is a subject to which attention is frequently drawn in the Press by complaints about the deterioration of domestic servants and the steps to which employers are subjected for neglecting action of discharged servants. The subject is most commonly propounded for consideration on the part of servants is registration, a view to checking the use of false names, or "chits," and to enabling the master to obtain certain information as to the character of the persons they employ. This procedure is of German origin, for the German Servants' Ordinances (Gesindeordnungen) supplemented in 1854 by a law, only to agricultural labourers and domestic servants, which punishes breach of contract, and since then various State laws with reference to domestic servants have been passed in Germany. The conditions are not, however, for the servant keeping class in India is much larger than in Europe, as also is the number of servants kept by each individual. The attempt in the East to deal with the subject by legislation was made in Ceylon, dealing with the registration of domestic servants in that Colony is comprised in Ordinance No. 28 of 1871. It extends to all domestic servants, hired by the month and receiving monthly wages, and the word "domestic" includes head and under-head, female servants, cooks, coachman, gardeners and house and garden coolies. The Ordinance came into operation in 1871 and empowers the Governor to appoint for the whole island or for any town or district, to which the Ordinance is made applicable, a Registrar of all domestic servants, who is to be under the general supervision and control of the General of Police. A registry is kept by the Registrar of all domestic servants employed in his town or district, and he has therein the names of all the servants, the places in which they are employed at the time of such registration, the dates of their engagements and such memorandum of previous services or antecedents as they are to have recorded in the register. The Registrar must, previous to his entering details, satisfy himself as to the credit of the statements made to him. Any person who may not have been a domestic servant before, but who is desirous of entering service, has to submit an application to the Registrar, and if the Registrar is satisfied there are reasonable grounds to believe that the applicant is a fit and proper person to be employed in domestic service he shall enter his name in the register, recording what he has been able to ascertain respecting the person's antecedents with the names of any persons who are certified as to his respectability. If the Registrar is unable to produce satisfactory evidence as to his fitness for domestic service the Registrar may grant him "provisional registration," to be thereafter converted into "regular" registration according to the requirements of subsequent service. If the Registrar is of opinion that the applicant is not a fit and proper person he should withhold registration, but in such a case he must report his reasons to the Inspector-General of

Every person whose name has been registered in the general registry is given a pocket register containing the full particulars of the record made in the general registry. No person can engage a servant who fails to produce his pocket register or whose pocket register does not record the termination of his last previous service if any. On engaging a servant the master has to enter forthwith in the pocket register the date and capacity in which such servant is engaged and cause the servant to attend personally at the Registrar's office to have such entry inserted in the general registry. Similarly, in case the master discharges a servant he must insert in the pocket register the date and cause of his discharge and the character of the servant. Provided that if for any reason he be unwilling to give the servant a character or to state the cause of his discharge he may decline to do so. But in such a case he must furnish to the Registrar in writing his reasons for so refusing. If the servant on dismissal fails to produce his pocket register the master must notify that fact to the Registrar. Whenever any fresh entry is made in the pocket register the servant is bound to attend the Registrar's office to have such an entry recorded in the general registry. Every servant whose name is registered shall if he subsequently enters service in any place not under the operation of the Ordinance, attend personally at the nearest police station on his entering or leaving such service and produce his pocket register to the principal officer of police at such station in order to enable the police officer to record the commencement or termination of the service. The police officer has then to communicate it to the Registrar of the town or district in which such servant was originally registered.

Various penalties of fine as well as of imprisonment are imposed for violation of any of the acts required to be done or duties imposed by the Act on the various persons mentioned below. As respects masters if they fail to fulfil any of the duties imposed on them by the Act they expose themselves to a liability of their being fined to the extent of Rs. 20. Similarly a servant, who fails to fulfil any of the duties imposed on him by the Act is liable to pay a fine not exceeding Rs. 20. But in case he gives any false information to the Registrar or to any other person on matters in which he is required by this Ordinance to give information, he is liable to a fine not exceeding Rs. 50 or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding 3 months. A fee of 25 cents is charged to the master on engaging a new servant. A like fee of 25 cents is charged to the servant on his provisional registration, or on registration being confirmed, or for registration of previous service or antecedents. But in case of loss or destruction of the pocket register the servant has to pay one rupee for the issue of a duplicate pocket register.

A similar Ordinance (No. 17 of 1914) has been introduced in the Straits Settlements, where its operation has been limited to such local areas as may be declared by the Governor in Council and its application within such areas has been restricted to the class of householders who are expected to desire the benefit of the provisions

Routes between India and Europe

The Indian port for the direct journey to and from Europe is Bombay. There are ordinarily five lines or steamers by which the journey to and from the West *via* Bombay can be performed, either by sea all the way, or—and in some cases only—by sea part of the way and by rail across Europe. They are the P. & O., the Anchor Line, the City and Hall Line, the Lloyd Triestino and the British India line. The Natal line steamers are available for Western passages only, the steamers sailing round the Cape on their Eastward voyages. There are ordinarily other services between Calcutta and

the West, by steamers sailing round Ceylon, and several lines connect Colombo with Europe. Of the latter the Orient, the Messageries Maritimes, the Bibby Lines, N.Y.K., Australian Commonwealth, and Royal Dutch Lines are the chief besides the P. & O. The Bibby and Henderson services extend to Rangoon. The new railway between India and Ceylon greatly increases the importance of the Colombo route for Southern India. The shortest time between London and Bombay is 15 days *via* Marseilles. The following are the fares which are convertible at approximately current rates of exchange.

Peninsular and Oriental S. N. Co.

FARES FROM BOMBAY OR KARACHI.				1st Saloon.			2nd Saloon.	
				A Rate. £	B Rate. £	C Rate. £	A Rate. £	B Rate. £
Free passages (single and return) are granted between Karachi and Bombay by British India Steamer.								
To Plymouth or London by sea, Single	94	84	74	82	56
" " Return	164	147	130	108	98
To Marseilles, Single..	86	76	66	58	52
" Return	150	133	115	102	92
To " Malta or Gibraltar, Single	88	78	68	59	53
" " Return	154	137	119	103	93
To London from Calcutta	70	56	..

By the **British India S. N. Co.**, fares to London by sea from Bombay or Madras are:—single 1st saloon £86; 2nd saloon £52. Return £110 and £91. Bombay to Marseilles £62, and 2nd saloon £50. Return : £109 and £98.

By the **Anchor Line** fares to Liverpool from Bombay or Karachi are:—1st saloon Rs 800 single and Rs. 1,400 return. To Marseilles:—Rs. 747 and (return from Liverpool) Rs. 1,347.

By Ellerman's "**City**" and "**Hall**" Lines fares from Bombay or Karachi to Liverpool, 1st saloon are:—

Single Rs. 853, return Rs 1,498.
2nd saloon single Rs. 640, return Rs. 1,120.
From Bombay or Karachi to Marseilles.
1st saloon single Rs. 800, return Rs. 1,447.
2nd saloon single Rs. 600, return Rs. 1,087.
Calcutta to London.
1st saloon single Rs. 907, return Rs. 1,587.
2nd saloon single Rs. 693, return Rs. 1,213.

By **Bibby Line** fares from Rangoon to London.

1st saloon single £76.
1st saloon return £132.
Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon single £68.
Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon return £120.

The **Bibby Line** fares from Colombo are as follows:—

Colombo Marseilles single £58.

Colombo Marseilles return £101.

Colombo London single £66.

Colombo London return £115.

Colombo Marseilles returning from Liverpool or, London £169.

The **Bibby Line** steamers carry 1st class passengers only.

By **Henderson Line** fares from Rangoon to Liverpool, 1st saloon are:—single £65, return (available for 4 months) £100, (available for 2 years) £117.

By **Lloyd Triestino Line** fares from Bombay to Brindisi, Venice or Trieste are:—

1st class £66, 2nd class £54. Return rates available for 2 years at one and three-fourth fares.

Sailings from Bombay every second Wednesday Alternately for Brindisi, Venice and Trieste and Naples and Genoa.

INDIAN TRAIN SERVICE

The distance and allowance from Bombay to the principal centres of the part of India are as follows:

	Miles.	1st Class.	2nd Class
Delhi, B. G. & C. I. Railway, via new Nagda-Muttra direct route	805	Rs. 2. 13 0	Rs. 1. 15 0
Delhi, G. I. P. Railway, via Agra	957	85 13 0	42 25 0
Simla via Delhi	1,137	122 12 0	61 7 0
Calcutta, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Jubbulpore & Allahabad	1,349	123 1 11	67 9 6
Calcutta, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Nagpur	1,223	115 3 6	57 10 6
Madras, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Raichur	704	70 3 0	30 9 0
Lahore, via Delhi	1,152	112 12 0	56 14 0

* Oct. to April inclusive. May to Sept. Rs. 115-5-0 & 57-11-0 only.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

At the General Meeting of the Suez Canal Company, held in Paris in 1927, the Chairman said that in consequence of the exceptional circumstances benefiting the early part of 1925, operations for the corresponding period of 1926 did not show equally good returns. Fortunately, however, during the remainder of the past 12 months traffic was such that, in the aggregate, 1926 was able to show a diminution of only some 5372,000 gold francs on 1925 figures. On the other hand, owing to the sterling rate being on the average about 50 per cent. higher in 1926 than during the previous year, receipts during the last 12 months when converted into francs gave a figure much greater than that for 1925—namely, 746,547,365fr. (increase of 137,889,650fr. on 1925 figures). Expenditure showed an increase of 7,169,843fr. being 68,727,176fr. in all. This increase was derived in the main from the enlarged expenditure in France due to the depreciation of the franc. Work in the canal demanded an increase of about 2,000,000fr.

Increase in Dividend.—Taking these amounts into account, and after earmarking 49,000,000fr. for amortization funds, with the sum carried forward from 1925, there was a disposable balance of 679,810,635fr. Of this sum it was proposed to allocate 598,892,394fr. for dividend distribution, whereby a dividend of 544,017fr. (32s. net) would be paid to shareholders against 300fr. 10s. 6d. Whilst proposing this dividend, they wished to and did hope that the of the exchange that should be so, they were fully convinced that the extraordinary reserve, the constitution of which the shareholders approved during the past years, would enable them to avoid any decrease of revenue of the shares up to the time when the progress of the traffic would take that upward trend which characterized it before the war.

Traffic Figures.—As to general traffic in 1926, there were 4970 passages through the Canal, representing a net tonnage of 26,069,877 tons, or a falling off of 761,556 tons on figures for the preceding year, and an increase of 850,495 tons on 1924 passages. Traffic in ballast amounted to 2,023,812 tons net, being 7.6 per cent. of the total traffic against 9.6 per cent. in 1925. Although British-owned steamers still head the list, their tonnage has fallen to 1,047,561 tons. Still, this represents 57.4 per cent. of the total. As was the case in the previous year, countries next in order are the Netherlands, Germany and France. Traffic in Port Said of vessels not passing through the Canal amounted to 1,402,000 tons.

There was a diminution of 1,100,000 tons as regards goods carried through the Canal, the decrease only affecting return cargoes. The effect of the English strike was shown by the passage of 200,000 tons of coal from Bengal, Southern Africa, Australia, and Japan; 600,000 tons of rubber were carried. Having regard to the general return to normal currency conditions in Europe, the future outlook was promising.

Record traffic in 1927.—A steady improvement in Suez Canal traffic and revenue returns was noticeable during the first six months of 1927, and a new record was set for tonnage and receipts. The total number of commercial transits through the canal was 2,774, on which tolls of 106,828,000 gold francs were paid, as compared with 2,569 vessels and tolls amounting to 83,560,000 gold francs during the corresponding period of 1926.

Movement of Shipping.—In the 1927 period 14,502,000 tons of shipping passed through the canal, of which 7,868,000 tons were northbound and 6,634,000 tons southbound, whereas in the first half of 1926 the transiting tonnage totaled 13,050,000, of which 7,041,000 tons went northward and 6,014,000 tons southward.

Mail ca s through the ca a ce e d 1 500 000 tons and this t al a m than t f any preceding s-a-month period ever recorded in the history of the Suez Canal. The increase was chiefly in German mail services (147,000 tons), of which 78,000 tons was recorded for the Hamburg-Amerika Line, and 68,000 tons for the Norddeutscher Lloyd. There was also an increase of 91,000 tons in British mail vessel traffic, 84,000 tons in Italian, and 63,000 tons in Dutch.

Shipp g o all of t... principal maritime nations which participated in the traffic of canal showed increases when compared with the corresponding period of 1926. That British registry comprised a larger share of whole than that of all other nations combined and kept its usual rank in the canal traffic at 57.1 per cent. of the total traffic, as against 57.7 per cent. during the 1926 period, followed by vessels of Dutch, German, French, Italian, Japanese, United States, and Norwegian registry, in the order named.

Traffic through the Suez Canal, by nationality, during January-June.

Nationality.	1926.		1927.	
	Number of transits.	Net tonnage.	Number of transits.	Net tonnage.
British	1,380	7,526,000	1,195	8,277,000
Dutch	272	1,421,000	285	1,501,000
German	263	1,021,000	246	1,293,000
French	169	855,000	169	881,000
Italian	177	709,000	180	707,000
Japanese	78	468,000	78	471,000
American	55	345,000	59	369,000
Norwegian	66	280,000	75	250,000
Danish	37	156,000	50	163,000
Greek	17	48,000	27	81,000
All others	54	227,000	81	319,000
Total	2,503	13,035,000	2,774	14,502,000

Improvement Schemes.—It was announced in 1914 that from and after January 1st, 1915, the maximum draught of water allowed to ships going through the Suez Canal would be increased by 1 ft., making it 30 ft. English.

The maximum permissible draught of ships using the Canal was 24 1/2 feet in 1870; in 1890 ships drawing 25 1/2 feet could make the passage; and during the following 24 years the increase has been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorized to 29 feet.

The scheme of improvement adopted by the Company on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which are Sir William Matthews and Mr. Anthony Lester, is a comprehensive one, and the details suggest that it will meet the needs of the big ship.

A 40 foot Channel.—The declared policy of the Canal Company in regard to the deepening of the Canal is to offer a slightly greater depth of water than that available in ports east of Suez. It is claimed that, with the exception of Sydney, there is no eastern port which at low tide has a greater depth of water than that now provided in the Canal throughout the full length of nearly 105 miles. In any case the work in hand should meet the needs of any ship likely to be built for the eastern trade during the next few years.

When the Canal was opened in 1869, the width was 72 feet and the depth about 20 feet 3 inches. In June, 1913, the width at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches had been increased to a minimum of

147 feet 6 inches over a length of about 85 mi and to a width of 328 feet over a distance about 20 miles. The latest scheme makes provision for a depth of 40 feet throughout and for a widening up to 198 feet 8 inches: the south section, and the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and east sections, where a minimum width of 147 feet 6 inches is believed to be sufficient for requirements of the immediate future.

The work of enlarging the capacity of Canal presents no special difficulty on the engineering side. A good deal of sand is occasionally driven into the channel at Port Said by storms, but a remedy for this will be found in extension of the west breakwater by about 2,700 yards at a cost of over £4,000,000. The construction of this extension, which has been in hand for the past two years, is making satisfactory progress. The Suez Honda are being adequately dredged in accordance with agreement between the Egyptian Government and the Company.

Almost up to the end of 1915 the works extending the jetty to the west of Port Said works of capital importance for the protection of the entry to the Canal, were pushed uninterruptedly. In November, however, want of hydraulic line, the manufacture of artificial rocks for this jetty was interrupted. The submarine foundations in stone and cut of the new jetty were, as a matter of fact, completed to a length of 2,500 metres; the protection blocks were laid for 1,040 metres, and caissons for over 800 metres. The protection of Channel is thus secured, and there is no need for any apprehension as to its future.

Thirty years ago, a tour in India was possible only to the wealthy, the leisured and those who had friends in the country. The cost of the journey was very high, the methods of transportation were very slow; and the facilities for travel were so indifferent that he was a bold man who consigned himself to the mercies of the country without a sheet of letters of introduction. Now the mail which is posted in London on Thursday night, reaches Bombay in 14 days, and the passenger can travel by the same route and with the same speed as the mail. A dozen lines have covered the sea route between Europe and India and Ceylon with a plexus of regular services. The Indian Railways provide facilities on the trunk lines unsurpassed by the *trains-de-luxe* of Europe, and the Indian hotel has grown into a really comfortable caravan-serai.

In the touring season, which extends from November to March, there is the attraction of a perfect climate. It is never very hot; in the North indeed it is really cool, it is always fine and fresh and bracing. If there is one country in the world to which that elusive term applies, here we have at the season when the tourist arrives the real "Indian summer." Then there is its infinite variety. India is in no sense a nation and never will be. Its peoples are wide as the Poles as under, each has its own art, its own architecture, its own customs and its own civilisation. A certain superficial resemblance runs through each; beneath lies a never-ending variety which age cannot wither nor custom stale.

The Grand Tour.—People coming to India for the first time so often ask—"Where shall I go?" Well, wherever else the tourist may go whatever else he should leave out, he should omit nothing on the Grand Tour. It is the foolish custom nowadays to sneer at those who follow the beaten tracks, but the visitor who shuns any part of the orthodox journey across India misses what nothing else can repay. **Bombay** is by far the most convenient point of departure, for here "the world end steamers wait" here is one of the finest cities in the British Empire, and here the traveller can best complete his outfit and arrangements. From Bombay stretch northwards the two great trunk lines of India. One the **Bombay, Baroda & Central India Railway**, leads through the pleasant garden of Gujarat to Ahmedabad,

the ancient Moslem capital of the Province containing fine examples of Mahomedans and Jain architecture; thence to Abu for the famous Jain temples of Dilwara, and on to Ajmere, Jajpur and Agra. The other by the **Great Indian Peninsula Railway** carries the tourist over the Western Ghats by a superb mountain railway to Gwalior, whose rock fortress rises like a giant battleship from the plain, and so on to Agra. Of the glories of the Taj Mahal, Agra Fort, and the deserted city of Fatehpur Sikri it were supererogatory to speak. Another easy stage leads to Delhi that amazing collection of cities, dominated by the little Ridge where British valour kept the mutinous hordes at bay, and finally drove them from the city by a feat of arms unsurpassed in history. Then from Delhi the Last Indian line leads comfortably to Benares, Lucknow and Calcutta with the opportunity of an excursion to Cawnpore, if the spirit moves. The great charm of the Grand Tour is that it reveals the best that India can show. This route has the additional advantage that it fits in with any digressions which the time and purse of the traveller may permit. No one who can spare the time should fail to push northwards from Delhi to Peshawar, where the flower of the army keeps watch and ward over the Khyber, and up the dread Pass to the eyrie where the fort of Ali Masjid bars the way to all invaders. Calcutta is the best starting point for Darjeeling, though unfortunately the magnificent mountain panorama visible from there is often obscured at this season by mists. Then from Calcutta two alter natives open. A fine service of mail steamers leads to **Burma**, and one of the unforgettable memories of the East is a voyage down the Irrawaddy from Bhamo or Mandalay to Prome. Again, either direct from Calcutta, or *via* Burma, is an easy route to **Madras** and by way of Madras and Trichinopoly, with their peerless Hindu temples, back to Bombay or on through Tuticorin to Colombo. But indeed the possibilities of expanding this tour are endless. Bombay is the best centre for the rock temples of Elephanta, Kenheri, Karli, Ellora and Ajanta. Calcutta is only a short distance from Puri the one Indian temple where there is no caste, and perhaps the most remarkable Hindu temple in the country. From Calcutta also start the river steamers which thread the steamy plains of Bengal and run to the tea gardens of Assam.

SPECIMEN TOURS.

A number of specimen tours in India are given below. They are taken from one of Messrs^s Thos. Cook & Sons, Ltd.'s publications, from which firm further information may be obtained. The traveller will also find he can obtain assistance from the principal Shipping Agents and Railway Companies, or from Messrs. Cox & Co., Messrs. Grindlay & Co., and Lloyds Bank:

	1st Class.	2nd Class Rail, 1st Class Steamer.
FROM BOMBAY TO CALCUTTA.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces to Calcutta (including side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling).</i>	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Tour I. —From Bombay per B. B. & C. I. Railway <i>via</i> Ahmedabad, Abu Road (for Mount Abu), Ajmer, Jajpur, Delhi, Agra, Cawnpore, Lucknow and Benares to Calcutta, thence to Darjeeling, and back to Calcutta.	243 8	132 4

Specimen Tours

	1st Class	2nd Class
FROM BOMBAY TO CALCUTTA—contd.		
TOUR II. —From Bombay per G. I. P. Railway via Itarsi, Gwalior, Agra, Delhi, Tundla Junction, Cawnpore, Lucknow and Benares to Calcutta, thence to Darjeeling, and back to Calcutta	240 14	
FROM BOMBAY TO COLOMBO.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces, Calcutta and Southern India to Colombo (including side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling).</i>		
TOUR III. —From Bombay as in Tour No. I (via B. B. & C. I. Ry., Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence via Khurda Road, for Puri (Jugganath), Madras Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madras, Danushkodi and Talaimannar to Colombo	425 13	7
TOUR IV. —From Bombay as in Tour No. II (via G. I. P. Ry., Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence as in Tour No. III to Colombo (via Southern India)	423 3	2
<i>Via the North-West Provinces, Calcutta (including Darjeeling), Burma and Southern India</i>		
TOUR V. —From Bombay as in Tour No. I (via B. B. & C. I. Ry., Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon; British India Steamer to Madras, Rail via Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madras to Danushkodi; Steamer to Talaimannar and Rail to Colombo	618 4	4
TOUR VI. —From Bombay as in Tour No. II (via G. I. P. Ry., Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, thence as in Tour No. V. to Colombo	620 11	4
FROM BOMBAY TO RANGOON.		
<i>Via the North-West Province and Calcutta to Rangoon (including a tour in Burma, also including a side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling).</i>		
TOUR VII. —From Bombay as in Tour No. I (via B. B. & C. I. Ry., Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon	454 13	2
TOUR VIII. —From Bombay as in Tour II (via G. I. P. Ry., Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy, Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon	452 3	2
FROM CALCUTTA TO BOMBAY.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces.</i>		
TOUR IX. —From Calcutta via Benares, Lucknow, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Delhi, Rewari, Jaipur, Ajmer (for Udaipur), Abu Road (for Mt. Abu), Ahmedabad and Baroda to Bombay	159 12	
TOUR X. —From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Delhi, Rewari, Jaipur, Ajmer (for Udaipur), Abu Road (for Mt. Abu), Ahmedabad and Baroda to Bombay	157 10	
TOUR XI. —From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Gwalior and Itarsi to Bombay	139 7	
TOUR XII. —From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Delhi, Muttra, Agra, Gwalior and Itarsi to Bombay	155 3	

CIRCULAR TOUR FROM CALCUTTA.

TOUR XIII.—From Calcutta via Benares, Lucknow, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Bandikui, Jaipur, Delhi, and Allahabad to Calcutta

Extensions, Via Southern India to Colombo.

TOUR XIV.—From Bombay via Poona, Hyderabad, Wadi, Raichur, Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Dantushkodi, and Talai mannar to Colombo

TOUR XV.—From Bombay via Poona, Hyderabad, Wadi, Guntakal, Bangalore, Erode, Trichinopoly, Madura, Dantushkodi, and Talai mannar to Colombo

Extensions to above Tours.

From Ajmer to Udaipur and return
 From Abu Road to Mount Abu and return, one seat in motor (This excursion is strongly recommended, the scenery being very beautiful)
 From Delhi to Lahore and return via Umballa and Amritsar
 From Delhi via Bhatinda, Ferozepore to Lahore, returning via Amritsar, Umballa to Delhi
 From Calcutta to Darjeeling and return
 From Colombo to Kandy and return
 From Kurda Road to Puri (Jagannath) and return

(All fares subject to change without previous notice.)

HOTELS IN INDIA, BURMA, CEYLON AND

AGRA.—Cecil, Laurie's Great Northern, Metropole.	MUSSOORIE.—Cecil, Ch. Grand, Savoy.
AHMEDABAD.—Grand.	NAINI TAL.—Grand, Metr
ALLAHABAD.—Central, Grand.	OOTACAMUND.—Metropole
BANGALORE.—Cubbon, West End.	PESHAWAR.—Deans Hotel
BENARES.—Clark's, de Paris.	POONA.—Connaught House
BOMBAY.—Apollo, Grand, Majestic, Taj Mahal, Watson's.	RAJPORE.—Carlton.
CALCUTTA.—Continental, Grand, Great Eastern, Spence's.	RAIWALPINDI.—Flashman's
CAWNPORE.—Civil and Military.	SECUNDERABAD.—Montgomerie
COONOOOR.—Glenview.	SIMLA.—Cecil, Grand, Car
DARJEELING.—Grand (Rockville), Mount Everest Park.	SRINAGAR (Kashmir).—Ne
DELHI.—Cecil, Elysium, Maidens, Savoy.	SHIVAPURI.—Shivapuri.
GWALIOR.—Grand.	UDAIPUR.—Udaipur.
PULMAH (Kashmir).—Nedou's.	
JAIPUR.—Jaipur, Kaiser-i-Hind, Now.	Burma
JUBBULPORE.—Jackson's.	RANGOON.—Allendale, M
KARACHI.—Carlton, Bristol, Killarney, North Western.	St. Andrew.
KHANDALLA.—Khandalla.	MANDALAY.—Gambles H
KODAIKANAL.—Lakeview.	MYAYMYO.—Lizette Lodge.
KORSONG.—Clarendon.	
LAHORE.—Faletti's, Nedou's.	Ceylon
LANOUH.—Hamilton.	ANURADHAPURA.—Grand
LUCKNOW.—Carlton, Civil and Military, Hiltons, Royal.	BANDARAWELLA.—Bandari
MADRAS.—Condemara, Bosotto.	
MAHABLESWARR.—Race View, Frederick's.	
MATHERAN.—Granville, Rugby.	
MOUNT ABU.—Rajputana, Mount.	
MCKERR.—Viewforth.	
	KANDY.—Queen's, Suisse
	NUWARA ELIYA.—Carlton
	St. Andrew's.
	Malay
	IPOH.—Station.
	KUALA LUMPUR.—Empir
	PENANG.—Eastern and
	SINGAPORE.—Adair's, Eu

The New Capital.

The transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 13, 1911. It had long been recognised as necessary, in the interests of the whole of India, to de-provincialise the Government of India, but this ideal was unattainable as long as the Government of India was located in one Province, and in the capital of that Province—the seat of the Bengal Government—for several months in every year. It was also desirable to free the Bengal Government from the close proximity of the Government of India which had been to the constant disadvantage of that Province. To achieve these two objects the removal of the capital from Calcutta was essential: its disadvantages had been recognised as long ago as 1868, when Sir Henry Maine advocated the change. Various places had been discussed as possible capitals, but Delhi was by common consent the best of them all. Its central position and situation as a railway junction, added to its historical associations, told in its favour; and, as Lord Crewe said in his despatch on the subject, "to the races of India, for whom the legends and records of the past are charged with so intense a meaning, this resumption by the Paramount Power of the seat of venerable Empire should at once enforce the continuity and promise the permanency of British sovereign rule over the length and breadth of the country."

The foundation stone of the new capital was laid by the King Emperor on December 15, 1911, the finally selected site being on the eastern slopes of the hills to the south of Delhi, on the fringe of the tract occupied by the Delhis of the past. The land chosen is free from liability to flood, has a natural drainage, and is not man-made. It is not encumbered with monuments and tombs needing reverent treatment, and the site is near the present centre of the town of Delhi. A Committee consisting of Surgeon-General Sir C. P. Lucas, Mr. H. T. Keeling, O.S.I., A.M.I.C.E., and Major J. C. Robertson, I.M.S., was appointed to consider the comparative healthiness of the site and of an alternative one to the North of the existing city. Their report, dated 4th March, 1912, states that "the Committee, after giving full consideration to the various points discussed in the above note, is bound to advise the Government of India that no doubt can exist as to the superior healthiness of the southern site, the medical and sanitary advantages of which are overwhelming when compared with those of the northern site."

The Town Plan and Architecture.—A report by a Town-Planning Committee, with a plan of the lay-out, was dated 30th March, 1913. Work was begun in accordance with it and its main lines have been followed throughout. The central point of interest in the lay-out, which gives the motif of the whole, is Govern-

ment House, and two large blocks of Secretariats. This Government centre has been given a position at Raisina Hill near the centre of the new city. Sir Edwin Lutyens is the architect for Government House and Mr. Edward Baker for the Secretariats. The former building will cost approximately Rs. 140 lakhs and the latter groups some Rs. 124 lakhs. To the east of the forum, and below it, will be a spacious forecourt defined by trees and linked on to the great main avenue or parkway which leads to Indraprastha. Across this main axis will run an avenue to the railway station. Other roads run in different directions from the entrance to the forum. The axis running north-east towards the Jama Masjid will form the principal business approach to the present city. At the railway station a place will be laid out around which will be grouped the administrative and municipal offices, the banks, the shops and the hotels. The main roads or avenues range from 76 feet to 150 feet in width: with the exception of the main avenue east of the Secretariat buildings where a parkway width of 1,175 feet has been allowed. The principal avenues in addition to the main avenues are those running at right angles to the main east to west axis.

For a temporary capital, for the use of the Government of India during the period of the building of the new capital an area was selected along the Alipur Road, between the existing civil station of Delhi and the Ridge. The architecture and method of construction are similar to those adopted in the exhibition buildings at Allahabad in 1910; but the buildings will outlast the transitional period for which they are intended. They will subsequently be an asset of some value.

In October, 1912, by proclamation, there was constituted an administrative enclave of Delhi under a Chief Commissioner. This enclave was entirely taken from the Delhi district of the Punjab and its total area is 572 square miles. On the basis of the Census of 1911, the population of the area originally included in the Province was 3,98,209 and of the new area 1,552, or a total of 4,12,821. The population of the Municipal town of Delhi was 2,29,114. The plans of the New Capital are as follows:

It has been their aim "to express, within the limit of the medium and of the powers of its users, the ideal and the fact of British rule in India, of which the New Delhi must ever be the monument." The inspiration of the designs is manifestly Western, as is that of British rule, but they combine with it distinctive Indian

a u w h o t d o u s o n e t o t h e p n p s D h a i 99 Th. Government
of at u a l i n a u d a s c u n t y

Cost of the Scheme.—It was at first tentatively estimated that the cost of the new capital would be four million sterling and that sum was given in the original despatch of the Government of India on the subject. Various factors have since then increased the cost, the chief of these being the immense rise in prices since the war, and the Legislative Assembly were informed by Government on 23rd March 1921, that the revised estimates then amounted to 1,367 lakhs of rupees. This amount includes allowances for building new Legislative Chambers and Halls for Members of the Indian Legislature, which were not allowed for in the earlier estimates. The New Capital Enquiry Committee, in its report published in January 1923, estimated the total expenditure at Rs. 1,292 lakhs including Rs. 42 lakhs for loss by Exchange. This figure still stands. Actual expenditure up to January 1927, the latest date for which figures have been published, was Rs. 12.43 lakhs, of which Rs. 1,09,12,000 was spent upon the Secretariats.

The Project Estimate contains certain items such as land, residences, water supply, electric light and power, and irrigation on which recoveries in the form of rate or taxes will, in addition to meeting current expenditure, partially at any rate cover the interest on the capital outlay whilst there are other items on which some return on account of the sale of houses, general taxes and indirect receipts may be expected.

Progress of the work.—The construction of New Delhi has made satisfactory progress, having regard to the curtailment of the Budget allotment, in consequence of the war and the return of officers and other establishments to their civil work made possible a considerable speeding up of constructional operations provided money can be provided to pay for them. The Secretariats were so far advanced that there were transferred to them from Calcutta in October, 1924, the offices of the Accountant-General, Central Revenues, and the headquarters of the Royal Air Force in India were also housed in them in the winters of 1924-25 and 1925-26. The residential buildings for Government officers and staff of various grades nearly then completed. The whole of the civil side of Government moved for some years in old Delhi entered into their quarters in the new Secretariats on coming down from Simla in November, 1926. The present position is that all Government Departments including the Army Department, and R.A.F. Headquarters, have their offices in the new City buildings, on which the builders are completing the final details, but that Army Headquarters continue in the old "Temporary Secretariat," in Old Delhi. The Members of H. E. the Viceroy's Executive Council, except H. E. the Commander-in-Chief, live in their new official residences in the new capital. H. E. the Viceroy is expected to take up his residence in the new Government House there in the winter of 1929. His Excellency for the present resides at Viceroy Lodge in Old Delhi. The Commander-in-Chief continues at his old residence, Messia House, Old Delhi, and will similarly transfer to New

Delhi, devoted special consideration to the question whether their ordinary annual 7 months' residence in Delhi should be extended each year to 7 months, but up to the end of 1927 had announced no decision.

Art Decorations.—The Government of India in 1927 approved a scheme for the encouragement of Indian artists by providing facilities for the decoration of certain buildings in New Delhi. The outlines of the scheme are briefly as follows. A certain number of domes and ceilings in the New Secretariat Buildings at Delhi suitable for decoration will be selected. The various schools of art in India, as well as individual artists, have been invited through local Governments, to send in by the beginning of March 1928 small scale designs for approval by a Committee. After approval by the Committee both as regards the design and colour the pictures will be drawn out and painted to full size on canvas, and, if finally approved by the Committee, will be fixed according to the Marouflage process *in situ*. Other techniques, such as fresco or tempera, are optional. Artists or schools of art, who may send in small scale drawings, have to bear the initial expense of preparing them. If these are approved by the Committee, the out-of-pocket expenses will be paid in addition to a suitable honorarium. Government undertake to pay for the finished pictures drawn from approved sketches, but give no guarantee that the finished paintings will permanently be preserved. The Committee will consist of Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., Director-General of Archaeology in India, as Chairman, and one or more experts to be nominated by him as members. Government have intimated that historical or allegorical subjects will be given preference over religious ones.

Opinion of the Legislature.—Considerable discussion regarding the new works took place in the Assembly in 1921. The following unofficial resolution was carried:—
"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that in the interests of economy and of general convenience alike the execution of the programme of New Delhi works may be expedited and the necessary funds provided or raised so that the Secretariat and Legislative buildings and connected works including residences may be completed as early as practicable."

A non-official Member in the Legislative Assembly on 29th September, 1921, at Simla, moved a recommendation to Government "to appoint a Committee to inquire into the possibility of establishing a permanent Capital of India in a place possessing salubrious and temperate climate throughout the year." This proposal was ridiculed by several of his non-official colleagues and was eventually rejected without a division.

H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, on 12th February, 1923, laid the foundation stone of a large group of parliamentary buildings on a site close to the south-east of the Secretariats. The building is an imposing pile circular in shape, consisting in the main of three horse shoe-shaped Chambers for the Chamber of

Prasanna Chandra State and I sat
Assembly opened and surrounded by a
large dome over a Central Library connecting all
three Chambers.

H. E. the Viceroy (Baron Irwin) proceeded
in state to the new Legislative Buildings,
henceforward to be known as the Council
Buildings and formally declared them open
on 16th February, 1927. The India Legislature
began its sessions in them next day.

An India War Memorial.—H. E. the
Viceroy, on 10th February, 1921,
of an All-India War
Memorial at the southern end of the Central
Vista. The place chosen is a fine position in the
centre of the circular Princeps Park and the
construction of the building is well forward
but for economy's sake is being proceeded
with comparatively slowly.

The Memorial will take the form of a triumphal
arch spanning Kingsway, the avenue running
down the centre of the Vista. It will generally
be similar to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris,
but will be simpler in a way which will probably
increase its grandeur and dignity. The monu-
ment will reach a height of 160 feet and the
inner height of the arch will be 87 feet 6 inches
and the breadth 70 feet. Over the arch on both
fronts will appear in capital letters the single
word INDIA and this will be flanked on each
side by the initials MCM (i.e., 1900) whilst
immediately below them on the left-hand will
be the initials XIV (i.e., 14) and on the oppo-
site side the figures XIX (i.e., 19). Above
the Arch will be a circular stone bowl 11½ feet
in diameter. This is intended to be filled
with burning oil on great anniversaries and
other occasions so that there will be a
shining fire by night and a column of smoke
by day. The memorial is solely Indian in
purpose and will bear the names of Indian
regiments only.

Educational Institutions.—It was proposed
during 1914 that a higher college for Chiefs
should be established at Delhi and in 1919
conjunction a conference of Chiefs and Political
Officers was held at Delhi at which the Viceroy
presided. The proposal is still under considera-
tion. To implement it would require a capital
outlay of Rs. 12½ lakhs.

The Government of India further in the
Spring session of their Legislature in 1922
introduced and carried a Bill for the establish-
ment of a unitary, teaching and residential
university of India, the buildings for which
would be erected in the new capital. The
plan was to provide a local university on
the model recommended for Dacca University
by the Calcutta University Commission. The
provision of funds for the complete re-
alisation of the university must be a matter of
time and it was, therefore, decided to commence
work with the existing colleges in their present
buildings and to permit them gradually to mo-
dify their organisation. The initial work of
organisation was actively effected by the Exe-
cutive Council. Unfortunately the inability
of the Government of India to raise considerable
funds was a severe handicap. It was hoped
that H. E. the Viceroy would be able to lay
the foundation-stone of the university build-
ings in November, 1922, but this proved im-
practicable. The site for the new buildings
required has not yet been settled. Govern-
ment and the University Authorities are exa-
mining this point in consultation, particularly
with reference to the question whether to build
in the new capital or to utilise buildings that
may become available elsewhere. The general
question of the finances of the University was
in 1927 the subject of inquiry by a special
Committee appointed by Government. Its report
is with Government but up to the end of 1927
had not been published. For the present, the
University is housed in the temporary buildings
in old Delhi occupied by the Civil Secretariat
until last year.

Freemasonry in India.

In 1728 a dispensation was granted by the Grand Lodge of England to Geo. Poinsett, Esq., authorising him to "open a new Lodge in Bengal." After is known but the following year the Grand Master of India, Lodge was established in 1730, which in the Margravet Lists is distinguished by the arms of the East India Company, and is described as "No. 72 at Bengal in the East Indies." The next Provincial Grand Masters were James Dawson and Zach. Gee, who held office in 1740; after whom came the Hon. Roger Drake, appointed 10th April 1755. The last named was Governor of Calcutta at the time of the attack made on the settlement by Surajan Dowah in 1756. Drake witnessed the horrors of the Black Hole by escaping and was accused of deserting his post, but, though present at the retaking of Calcutta by Admiral Watson and Olive, it is improbable that he resumed the duties of his masonic office after the calamity that befell the settlement.

The minutes of the Grand Lodge inform us that William Mackett, Provincial Grand Master of Calcutta, was present at the meeting of that Lodge on the 17th of the "Lodges" which was appointed P. G. M. in 1762. At this period it was the custom in Bengal "to elect the Provincial Grand Master annually by the majority of the votes of the members present, from amongst those who passed through the different offices of the (Prov.) Grand Lodge and who had served as Dep. Prov. Grand Master." This annual election as soon as notified to the Grand Lodge of England was confirmed by the Grand Master without its being thought an infringement of his prerogative. In accordance with this practice, Samuel Middleton was elected (P. G. M. area) in 1767; but in passing it may be briefly observed that a few years previously a kind of roving commission was granted by Earl Ferrers in 1763-64 to John Blount, Commander of the "Admiral Watson," Indianan "for East India where no other Provincial Lodge is to be found." Middleton's election was confirmed October 31st, 1768, and, as the dispensation forwarded by the Grand Secretary was looked upon as abrogating the practice of annual elections, he accordingly held the office of D. G. M. Unfortunately the records of the P. G. L. date back only to 1774, and thus much valuable information is lost to us. This Grand Lodge continued working until 1792 when it ceased to meet. It seems that the officers were selected from only two Lodges much to the dissatisfaction of the other Lodges, and resulted in most of the dissatisfied bodies seceding and attacking themselves to the Athol or Ancient Grand Lodge. In 1813 at the Union both the Ancients and Moderns in Calcutta combined and gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge of England and have since been working peaceably under the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which was revived in that year and in 1840 created a District Grand Lodge.

Madras.—The earliest Lodge in Southern India (No. 222) was established in Madras in 1752. Three others were also established about 1760.

In the same year Capt. Edmund Pascal was appointed P. G. M. for Madras and its Dependencies, and in the following year another Lodge was established at Fort St. George. In 1768 the Athol (or Ancients) invaded this District and in 1782 established a Provincial Grand Lodge and both these Provincial Grand Bodies continued working peaceably side by side until the union. Indeed, though not generally known, these two Grand Bodies made an attempt at coalition long before any such movement was made by their parent bodies, the Grand Lodge of England, and the Ancient Grand Lodge, and Malder in his History of Freemasonry in Madras states that in a great measure they succeeded. At the Union in 1813 all the houses in Madras gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge. One event worthy of note was the initiation in 1776 at Trichinopoly of the eldest son of the Nawab of Arcot, Udag-ul-Aman, who in his reply to the congratulations of the Grand Lodge of England stated "he considered the title of English Mason as one of the most honourable that he possessed."

(This document is now stored in the archives of the United Grand Lodge.)

Bombay.—Two Lodges were established in this Presidency during the 17th century, Nos. 234 at Bombay in 1738 and 563 in Surat in 1768, both of which were carried on the lists until the union when they disappeared. A Provincial Grand Master, James Todd, was appointed but there is no record that he exercised his functions and his name drops out of the Freemasons' Calendar in 1799. In 1801 an Athol Warrant was granted (No. 322) to the 75th foot which was engaged in the Maratha War under Sir Arthur Wellesley. In 1818 Lord Moria was asked to constitute a Lodge to be known by the name of St. Andrew by eight Masons residing there and also to grant a dispensation for holding a Provincial Grand Lodge for the purpose of making the Hon Mountstuart a Mason, he having expressed a wish to that effect. The Petitioners further requested "that his name might be inserted in the body of the warrant, authorising them to instal him after being duly passed and raised a Deputy Grand Master of the Deccan." Of the reply to this application no copy has been preserved. Lodge Benevolence was established in Bombay in 1822.

In 1828 a Military Lodge "Orion-in-the-West" was formed in the Bombay Artillery and installed at Poona as No. 15 of the Coast of Coromandel. It seems from Lane's records that in 1830 it was discovered that this Lodge was not on the records of the United Grand Lodge of England. A Warrant was subsequently issued bearing date 19th July 1833. According to the early proceedings of this Lodge, members were examined in the Third Degree and passed to the chair in the Fourth Degree for which a fee of three gold mohars was charged. In the following year a second Lodge was established at Poona by the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which however left no trace of its existence. In 1835 the civilian element of "Orion" seceded and formed the "Lodge of Hope" also at Poona No. 802.

Here "Orion" unrecognized at home, aided in the secession of some of its members, who

received a warrant on the recommendation of the parent Lodge, from the Grand Lodge of England. Two years later it was discovered that no notification of the existence of "Orion-in-the-West" had reached England, nor had any fees been received, although these including quartermasters had been paid into the Provincial Grand Lodge, Coast of Coromandel. It was further ascertained that in granting a warrant for a Bombay Lodge the Provincial Grand Master of Coromandel had exceeded his powers. Ultimately a new warrant No. 208 was granted as already stated in 1833. Lodge "Perseverance" was started in Bombay No. 318 in 1833. Up to this time the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of England in India had not been invaded: but in 1839 Dr. James Burnes was appointed by the Grand Lodge of Scotland, F. G. M. of Western India and its Dependencies. No Provincial Grand Lodge however was formed until 1st January 1838. A second Scottish Province of Eastern India was started which on the retirement of the Marquis of Tweeddale was absorbed within the jurisdiction of Dr. Burnes, who in 1846 became Provincial Grand Master for all India (including Aden) but with the proviso, that this appointment was not to act in restraint of any future sub-division of the Presidencies. Burnes may be best described as being in 1836, in ecclesiastical phrase as a Provincial Grand Master "in partibus infidelium" for whatever Lodges then existed throughout the length and breadth of India were strangers to Scottish Masonry. But the times were propitious. There was no English Provincial Grand Lodge in Bombay and the Chevalier Burnes, whose nature had endowed with all the qualities requisite for Masonic Administration, soon got to work and presented such attractions to Scottish Freemasonry that the strange sight was witnessed of English Masons deserting their mother Lodges, to such an extent that these fell into abeyance, in order to give support to Lodges newly constituted under the Grand Lodge of Scotland. In one case, indeed, a Lodge "Perseverance" under England went over bodily to Scotland, with its name, jewels, furniture, and belongings, and the charge was accepted by Scotland. This Lodge still exists in Bombay and now bears No. 318 on the Register of Scotland. From this period, therefore, Scottish Masonry flourished, and English Masonry declined until the year 1848 when a Lodge St. George No. 897 on the Rolls of the Grand Lodge of England was again formed at Bombay, and for some years was the solitary representative of English Masonry in the Province. In 1844 Burnes established a Lodge "Rising Star" at Bombay for the admission of Indian gentlemen the result of which is seen at the present day. Thus the seed planted at Trichinopoly in 1776 by the initiation of Andat-al-Azari has borne fruit, resulting in the initiation of thousands of Indian gentlemen of all castes and creeds, and which has gone far to establishing that mutual trust between West and East, a distinguishing characteristic of Secretive Freemasonry. A Provincial Grand Lodge was re-established in Bombay in 1840, and converted into a District Grand Lodge in 1871.

The Grand Lodge of England.—All three Constitutions of the United Kingdom, the United Grand Lodge of England, the Grand Lodge of Ireland and the Grand Lodge of Scotland hold jurisdiction in India. By far the largest is the first; the next largest is the third and the number

of Lodges under Ireland is as yet small. The Grand Lodge of England divides its rule under Five District Grand Masters independent of each other and directly subordinate to the Grand Master of England by whom they are appointed.

Bengal.

32 Lodges. Rt. Wor. Bro. H. R. Nevill, C.I.E. (R.E.), F.C.S., P.G.D.; Dy. D. G. M. E. W. Stodd, P.A.L., Asst. D. G. M. D. C. L. W. J. W.

Madras.

77 Lodges. A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., F.C.S.

Bombay.

47 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. K. E. Sir L. O. Wilson, F.C., G.C.F.E., C.M.G., D.S.O., P.G.D. (Eng.), District Grand Master.

Punjab.

25 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. C. A. Barron, C.S.I., C.I.E., C.V.O., F.C.S., District Grand Master.

Burma.

16 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. The Hon'ble Sir Guy Balfour, Kt., K.C., District Grand Master.

The Grand Lodge of Scotland exercises its rule through a Grand Master of all Scottish Freemasonry in India, who is elected by the Brethren subject to confirmation by the Grand Master Mason of Scotland. Mr. H. P. Gibbs, A.M.E.B., etc., J.P., is the present incumbent of the office, and over 171 Lodges. Under him the several Districts are in charge of the following Grand Superintendents:—

Genl. Sir Claude Jacob, G. Surgt., Northern India.	
Col. G. B. Leard	Central "
Major A. E. Andrews	Southern "
H. T. Ashby	Eastern "

The Grand Secretary is R. W. Bro. Arthur W. S. Wise, J.P., 17, Murrumb Road, Fort. Bombay.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland granted a warrant to establish a Lodge at Kurnal in 1837, but it was short lived. An attempt was made in 1863 to establish a Lodge in Bombay, but on the representation of the Grand Secretary of England, to the Papary Grand Secretary of Ireland that it would be objectionable to create a third masonic jurisdiction in the Province, there being two already viz. English and Scottish, the Grand Lodge of Ireland declined to grant the warrant. In 1911, however, a warrant was sanctioned for the establishment of Lodge "St. Patrick" and since that year two other Lodges have sprung into being.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland has no District Grand Master in India at present, the Lodges corresponding direct with the Grand Lodge in Dublin. There are ten Lodges, 4 in Calcutta, 3 in Ceylon and 3 in Bombay.

Royal Arch Masonry.—Under England, the District Grand Master in any District is nearly always created also Grand Superintendant, his Deputy as Second and another Companion as Third Principal.

Under Ireland there is no local jurisdiction and under Scotland the office is elected subject to confirmation.

The five English Districts are constituted as under—

Bengal.

28 Chapters, Grand Supdt. H. R. Nevill, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

Madras.

17 Chapters, A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.C.S.

Bombay.

22 Chapters, M. Ex. Comp. Major General H. A. V. Cummins, C.P., C.M.G., Grand Superintendent.

Punjab.

21 Chapters, Most Ex. Compn. C. A. Barron, C.S.I., C.I.E., C.V.O., I.C.S., Grand Superintendent.

Burma.

6 Chapters, The Hon'ble Sir Guy Rathedge, Kt., K.C., Grand Superintendent.

Royal Arch Masonry under Scotland has a few Chapters in India. Craft Freemasonry, The Hon. Justice A. M. Kaji under whom there are about 30 Chapters in India. The Grand Secretary of all Scottish Freemasonry in India is also District Grand Scribe E. of Scottish R. A. Masonry.

There is one Irish Chapter in Calcutta.

Mark Masonry.—Under England, Mark Masonry is worked under the Grand Mark Lodge of England and Wales, and divided into separate Districts; but in most cases the District Grand Master is also District Grand Mark Master.

Bengal.

20 Lodges, C. D. Stewart, D. G. M.

Bombay.

18 Lodges, Rt. W. Bro. Sir Reginald Spence, District Grand Master.

Madras.

18 Lodges, A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.C.S., District Grand Master.

Punjab.

11 Lodges, Rt. W. Bro. Lt.-Col. G. T. Davys, C.B.E., District Grand Master.

Burma.

6 Lodges, Rt. W. Bro. Arthur Blake, District Grand Master.

The Mark degree is incorporated with the Royal arch degree in Irish Chapters. Mark degree is worked in some S. G. Lodges, but

mostly in R. A. Chapters, in which the Excellent E. A. M. and other degrees can be obtained. S. G. Chapters insist upon candidates being Mark Master Masons before exaltation. Mark degree in Craft Lodges is conferred by the Rt. W. Master in S. G. Craft does not recognise the ceremony of Rt. W. Mark Master. This is confined strictly to Chapters. Each Chapter has a Lodge of M. M. M. working under its charter. Separate charters for Mark Lodges are only issued by the G. Chapter of Scotland.

Other Degrees.—There are many side degrees worked in India, of the Ancient and Accepted Rite, no degree higher than the 18° is worked in India under England, but under Scotland the 30° is worked. The Knight Templar Degree is also worked in several places under both English and Scottish jurisdiction. There are fourteen 18th Degree Chapters working in India.

Roman Eagle Conclave No. 48, Bombay.

St. Mary's Commandery No. 49, Bombay.

R. A. Mariner, 72, 514 and 682, Bombay.

R. A. Mariner, 61, 81, 82 and 108, Madras.

B. A. Mariner, 98, 133, 219, 279 and 429, Punjab.

Secret Monitor, 14, 21, 34, 37, 40 and 42, Madras.

Benevolent Associations.—Each District works its own benevolent arrangements which include the Relief of Distressed Masons, educational provision for the children of Masons and maintenance provision for widows in poor circumstances.

All information will be given to persons entitled by the District Grand Secretary in each District. The names and addresses of District Grand Secretaries are given below:—

D. G. S., Bengal.

G. H. Davis, 19, Park Street, Calcutta.

D. G. S., Bombay.

Khan Bahadur Palanji N. Datar, P.D.G.W., Kodak House, Fort, Bombay.

D. G. S., Burma.

E. Meyer, D.G.S., E.C., Rangoon.

D. G. S., Madras.

S. T. Srinivasa Gopaki Chari, Freemasons' Hall, Egmore, Madras.

D. G. S., Punjab.

Jas. J. Evans, P.D.G.W., Freemasons' Hall, Lahore.

Scottish Constitution.—For information regarding the Benevolent Funds application should be made to Arthur W. S. Wise, J. P., 17, Mirzaban Road, Bombay.

Scientific Surveys.

Botanical Survey.—The Botanical Survey Department of the Government of India is under the control of a Director, who is assisted by three other officers. They are engaged in the examination and identification of plants and the study of floras. The Director is also in charge of the cinchona plantations in Burma.

In connection with the general question of post-war industrial policy, the Government of India decided in 1916 that every effort should be made to extend the area under cinchona in India, and deputed Colonel A. T. Gage, late Director of Botanical Survey of India, to explore land suitable for cinchona cultivation. As a result of his recommendations made in 1918 large areas in the Tavoy District of Burma were reserved for cinchona cultivation, and the first plantations were started there in 1920. A programme was adopted for planting 500 acres annually which would produce 30,000 lbs. per annum from 1925 onwards. Owing unfortunately to excessive rainfall in 1921-22 this plantation was entirely washed away, and the Tavoy scheme had to be abandoned. A fresh area was selected, however, in the Mergui District of Burma, and plantations were started there in 1922. The cultivation of cinchona here is still in the experimental stage.

At the instance of the Retrenchment Committee the area to be planted during the first four years has been limited to 250 acres per annum. The Governments of Bengal and Madras are also at the instance of the Government of India extending their cinchona plantations, and it is probable that Bengal should continue its work every year with the Government.

The actual demand for the drug in India is difficult to estimate. Eight million cases of malaria fever go to the hospitals and dispensaries every year. If each of these is treated with 150 grains of quinine, which may be taken as the minimum for the cure of a paroxysm, the demand for hospital and dispensary treatment alone would be 125,000 pounds a year. Patients do not get as much of the drug as they ought, because the cost of quinine is prohibitive. It is estimated that there are 100,000,000 sufferers from malaria who do not attend the hospitals. There is therefore somewhere and 1,500,000 pounds. In 1903, made quinine a State industry and cheapened its retail price consumption in that country enormously increased and malaria mortality was reduced from 15,000 to 3,000 a year. The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India says in a recent report that "it may be said that there is no question of the effective treatment of malaria in India until consumption of quinine approximates 500,000 pounds."

Geological Survey.—The ultimate aim of the Geological Survey of India is the preparation of a geological map of India upon the accuracy of which the solution of most geological problems ultimately depends. Maps accompany the reports on the various areas in the publications of the Department and a large amount of information is made available to the public. Such maps represent pioneer work which enables the Government to cut short

and to start geological map and mineral deposits of importance are frequently discovered. Such discoveries are published without delay and every endeavour is made to induce private firms to take up the exploitation of the mineral discovered. Collections of minerals, rocks and fossils are accumulated and exhibited in the public galleries of the Indian Museum, situated in the capital of Bengal. Some of the most interesting and scientifically valuable additions to the collections in recent years have been the remains of anthropoid apes of great age discovered at different places in the Siwalik Mountain chain. These mountains are a comparatively low range running parallel with the Himalayas for a great distance and at a short distance from them. They are in fact a huge bank of detritus washed down during the eons from the Himalayas. They are believed to have covered up in the course of their formation such a quantity of paleontological remains as exists nowhere else in the world. The discoveries of skeletons and fossils hitherto made have been the result of washaways after heavy rains or of other accidental circumstances and there exists no organisation or systematised method for either prosecuting discovery or collecting what chance brings to light. The Geological Survey also undertakes the examination and identification, without fee, of any minerals, rocks and fossils sent in by private observers. The publications of the Survey include the Memoirs, Records and Paleontologia Indica.

Zoological Survey.—A scheme for the formation of a Zoological Survey on the basis of the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, came into force in July, 1916. The proposals as sanctioned by the Secretary of State mainly are as follows:—The Headquarters of the Survey will be the Indian Museum. The scheme regarding the Zoological Survey entails the breaking up of the organisation now known as the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum into two parts, one of which will become a Government department under the title of the Zoological Survey of India, and will be primarily concerned with zoological investigation and exercise such advisory functions as may be assigned to it by Government, while the other part will remain as the office of the Trustees of

Indian Museum and was begun at the same time as the standard zoological collection of the Indian Empire, and as such to give every assistance in their power both to officials and to others, in the identification of zoological specimens submitted to them, arranging, if requested to do so, to send collections to specialists abroad for identification in cases in which no specialist is available in India. The Zoological Survey is also responsible for the Anthropological collections in the Indian Museum and in 1927 the additional appointment on the Staff of an anthropologist was created. The Director of the Survey was Dr. Anandale until April, 1924, when he died—within a month of receiving the honour of Fellowship of the Royal Society. Dr. Baini Prasad was appointed Acting Director in his place and continued in that capacity until July, 1925, when Lt Col. R. B. Scwell, I.M.S., M.A., F.R.S.E., I.L.S., F.R.S., was made Director.

Mammal Survey.—The Survey was instituted in the year 1912 with the object of making as complete a study as possible of the occurrence and distribution of Mammals in India, Burma and Ceylon, and with the further object of supplementing the collection of Indian Mammals at the Bombay Natural History Society's Museum and at the British Museum as well as at the Natural History Museums in India, the primary object of the Survey being the furtherance of our knowledge of Indian Mammalian fauna. Up to 1891 Naturalists in India had to rely for information on Dr. Jerdon's "Mammals of India" published in 1874. In 1884 R. A. Sterndale published his Natural History of Indian Mammals a purely popular work which did not add much to Jerdon's book. In 1881 a memorial prepared by Dr. Slater, Hon. Secretary to the Zoological Society and signed by Darwin, Hooker, Huxley, and other well known scientists, was presented to the Secretary of State for India. The memorial recommended that a series of Volumes dealing with the Fauna of India should be prepared and Dr. Blanford should be appointed its Editor. The memorial resulted in the publication in 1886-1890 of the Volume on Mammals in the "Fauna of British India" Series and since 1891 this volume has been the standard work on Indian Mammals. Blanford's book was however based on the information then available and the shortcomings of the book have been revealed in the light of more recent research. Further knowledge in regard to distribution and classification and the discovery of new species have rendered Blanford practically obsolete.

To remedy this defect, at the instigation of the authorities of the British Museum, the Bombay Natural History Society decided to institute what is now known as the Mammal Survey. Mr W. S. Millard, then Hon. Secretary of that Society, issued in an appeal to its members to enable the Society to engage the services of trained European collectors so as to make a systematic collection of the mammals of India, Burma and Ceylon. The response to the appeal resulted in over a lakh of rupees being raised between 1911 and 1920, partly by subscriptions from the Society's members, contributions from Indian Princes and grants from the Indian

Governments of Burma, Ceylon, Siam, and the N. E. India and America. By the outbreak of the war the Survey had been carried on over large areas of the country, the districts covered being—in Western India a portion of Sind, the whole of Gujarat, Kutch and Kathiawar; the Southern Maharatta country and Kanara in Southern India; in Coorg and Mysore; in the centre large tracts of the Central Provinces and some districts of Bengal and Behar; in Northern India the Society's collectors had worked over Kumaon, Darjeeling and Sikkim and the Bhutan Dnars. In Burma, collections were made along the Chindwin river, in Central Burma and in the Shan States, Pegu and a portion of Tenasserim. The whole of Ceylon was also systematically surveyed.

The material, which up to the outbreak of War comprised some 17,000 specimens, was forwarded to the British Museum where the collections were scientifically worked out by the late Mr. R. C. Wroughton, formerly Inspector General of Forests, Mr. Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Curator of Mammals at the British Museum, Mr. Martin C. Hinton and others. The results of their researches were published in a series of scientific papers in the Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society. The enormous mass of material then collected resulted in the discovery of large numbers of new forms and species and by increasing our knowledge of the distribution of Indian Mammalia has enabled the revision of Blanford's Mammalia to be undertaken and early in 1921 the Secretary of State for India commissioned Mr. R. C. Wroughton, since deceased, and Mr. M. C. Hinton to undertake the work.

When demobilization rendered it possible the work of the Survey which had been in abeyance during the war was resumed and a collector, Mr. C. Primrose, was sent to Assam and

working inland but owing to the impracticability of continuing his work in Burma during the monsoon, he was transferred to Gwalior where H. H. the Maharaja kindly accorded permission to work in his territories.

After working a portion of the Eastern Ghats the next move was to the Kangra District in the North-West Himalayas and then on to the Punjab Salt Range. Two other collectors worked in Southern India. Permission was once more obtained from the Nepal Government for a collector to resume the Survey work in that country. The work in Nepal was brought to a successful close early this year with a representative collection of interesting mammals and birds.

The Survey now has only one collector who is collecting in the foot hills of Himalayas and the Pindari Valley.

The Board of Scientific Advice.—This Board in accordance with a recommendation of the Income Retrenchment Committee is in abeyance. It consisted of the heads of the Meteorological, Geological, Botanical, Forest Service, Agricultural and Civil Veterinary

Department with scientific objects as much as time to time by the Government of India to serve upon it. It was established in 1902 to co-ordinate official scientific inquiry, to ensure that research work is distributed to the best advantage, and to advise the Government of India in prosecuting practical research into those questions of economic or applied science on the solution of which the agricultural and industrial development of the country so largely depends. The programme of investigation of the various departments were annually submitted to the Board for discussion and arrangement, and an annual report was published on the work done.

The Secretary to the Government of India (Department of Education, Health and Lands, was *ex-officio* President of the Board, which included the Director-General of Observatories, the Director of the Zoological Survey, the Surveyor-General of India, the Director Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar, the Inspector-General of Forests, the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, the Director of the Geological Survey, the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, the Librarian, Imperial Library and the Director of the Botanical Survey of India who was Secretary to the Board of Scientific Advice.

The Universities Conference, representing all Indian Universities, which met in Simla in 1920, recommended the revival of the Board, but the technical officers of the Government of India were of a different opinion and the Board continues in abeyance.

The Indian Research Fund.—The progress of this Fund and its Association like the Board of Scientific Advice, was seriously affected by the policy of retrenchment enforced in pursuance of the recommendations of the Inchaape Committee. Scientific research work is rapidly developing in India. In 1911 the sum of 5 lakhs (£38,000) out of the surplus opium revenue was set aside as an endowment for research into epidemic diseases in connection with the Central Research Institute at Kasauli. It was hoped that this sum might be largely augmented by private subscriptions. An Indian Research Fund Association was constituted, and a good deal of work was undertaken. Its objects were defined as "the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge and experimental measures generally in connection with the causation, mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases." Fresh investigations into kala azar and cholera were inaugurated, and an officer was deputed at the expense of the Fund to study yellow fever in the regions where it is endemic, with a view to taking steps to prevent its introduction into India. A further grant of 6 lakhs (£40,000) was made to the Central Research Fund from the opium surplus of 1911-12. It was decided to devote to research and anti-malarial projects 5 lakhs (£38,000) a year from Imperial revenue commencing in 1913-14. A new periodical "The Indian Journal of Medical Research," was instituted in 1913 for publication four times annually, as the official organ of the Research Fund. The journal was designed to deal with every

of science and medicine connected with medical and sanitary science, and all the work of what was being done in India for the advance of this work. In 1922 it was decided to devote the capital funds at the disposal of the Association to the erection of an Imperial Medical Research Institute and to the formation of a fund for its endowments. In the same year valuable results were achieved by Dr. Nishi Kanta De working in Calcutta on the chemistry of drugs used in treatment of leprosy and on the chemistry of the blood of lepers and resistant animals. The treatment of cancer, of influenza, of pneumonia, the histology and pathology of deficiency diseases and special problems concerning Indian (caliculi, kala azar, the action of quinine in malaria treatment were among the particular subjects of investigations specially dealt with by various research experts in 1922. Further substantial grants to the Research Fund have recently been made by Government.

Survey of India.—The work of the Survey of India Department falls under various heads, namely, the trigonometrical survey, topographical and forest surveys, special surveys and explorations, and map production. Cadastral surveys are now carried out by the Provincial Land Records and Settlement Departments.

In 1904 attention was drawn to the defective state of the topographical survey maps, and a Committee was appointed to report on the subject. To overtake the arrears of revisional survey and to secure that the map of India should be brought up to date and revised at proper intervals, they recommended a considerable increase of establishment and an increased expenditure of Rs. 2,10,000 a year for the next 25 years. They also made recommendations for altering the size and improving the quality of the maps. After further inquiry the Government of India decided that a scale of 1 inch to the mile would ordinarily be sufficient, reserved forest and special areas being surveyed on the scale of 2 inches to the mile, and the 3-inch scale employed for waste and barren tracts. The work of the Department has in recent years greatly been hampered by the general need for retrenchment in expenditure. On the other hand, its organisation has lately been improved by the creation of a new North-West Frontier Circle, under a separate Director, thus being the addition of a fifth Circle to the four already existing for all India and Burma. A recent valuable development has been the employment of aviators for survey work from the air in some parts of the country.

Indian Science Congress.—The Indian Science Congress was founded largely owing to the efforts of Prof. P. S. MacMahon and Dr. J. L. Simonsen. These two gentlemen worked jointly as Honorary General Secretaries of the Congress till 1921. The Asiatic Society of Bengal undertakes the management of the Congress finances and publishes annually the proceedings of the Congress. The objects are (1) to encourage research and to make the results generally known among science workers in India, (2) to give opportunities for personal intercourse and scientific companionship and thus to overcome to some extent one of the chief drawbacks in the life of workers in science in India, (3) to promote public interest in this end. A Congress is held

at different centres annually, and evening lectures open to the public form an important part of the proceedings of each Congress.

The Congress, which is progressive and vigorous, meets in January each year, the proceedings last for six days. The Head of the Local Government is Patron of the Congress; the Congress session is opened by a Presidential Address delivered by the President for the year. The President is chosen annually, the different sections being represented in turn. The sections are (1) Agriculture, (2) Physics and Mathematics, (3) Chemistry and Applied Botany, (4) Zoology and Ethnography, (5) Botany, (6) Geology, (7) Medical Research; when the sections meet separately each section is presided over by its own President also chosen annually. The mornings are devoted to the reading and discussion of the papers, the afternoons to social functions and visits to places of interests, in the evenings public lectures are delivered.

The Indian Research Fund Association.

This Association was formed in 1911. The objects of the Association are the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge, and experimental measures generally, in connection with the causation, mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases. The Association started a new periodical "The Indian Journal of Medical Research" in 1913 as the official organ of the Research Fund. This journal is published four times a year and deals with every branch of research directly or indirectly connected with medical and sanitary science and forms a record of what is being done in India for the advance of this work. Special Memoirs are also published from time to time by the Association. Certain sums have been reserved for the erection of an Imperial Medical Research Institute, but the project had to be abandoned during the post bellum economies. It is being reconsidered by an expert Committee during 1928. The activities of the Association, which were hampered by retrenchments recommended by the Income Committee have been revived. During 1927-28, 64 enquiries are being conducted all over India at an estimated cost of Rs. 13,62,205. The enquiries deal with plague, cholera, malaria, the dysentery, nutritional, helminthic febrile and other diseases. A Central Malaria Organisation or Malaria Survey of India has been constituted. This Organisation will stimulate and work in collaboration with provincial organisations of a similar nature. Two malariologists and one entomologist have been appointed to work in it. Raja Sir Krishna Chandra, Chajapathi Narayana Deo Garu, Rajah of Patialimedi, has given a donation of Rupees one lakh for the furtherance of research into problems of nutrition—the outlook is now brighter than it has been for some time.

The Survey of India.—The department is responsible for all topographical surveys; for

explorations and the maintenance of geographical maps of the greater part of Southern Asia for geodetic work, including the main trigonometrical framework which extends in some cases far beyond the frontiers of India, and control networks of precise levelling based on tidal observatories, tidal predictions and the publication of Tide Tables for nearly 40 ports between Suez and Singapore, the Magnetic Survey, astronomical observatories with seismographic and meteorological records at Dehra Dun and geodetic investigations of an international character, in regard to which India enjoys a unique position between the greatest highlands of the world and a deep ocean extending to the Antarctic. Indian geodesy has thus disclosed by far the largest known anomalies of gravitational attraction in the earth's crust, which have led to some of the most important developments of modern geodetic research.

While expending on topographical and geodetic work all funds allotted by Imperial Revenues, the department is also developing the policy of extending its services in various ways on public works. These miscellaneous operations include, all forest and Cantonment surveys and work for Boundary Commissions; many rivers, irrigation, railways and city surveys, and surveys of tea gardens, mining areas, &c., with a great deal of control levelling for them, miscellaneous administrative assistance and officers are given to the revenue surveys of various Provinces and States. The Printing offices do much work for other Government departments, such as printing special maps, illustrations for Archeological Reports, all diagrams for Patents, &c. The Mathematical Instruments Office gives valuable aid to all Government departments by ensuring a high standard of instrumental equipment especially in connection with optical work, and by the manufacture and repair of high-class instruments, which would otherwise have to be imported from abroad.

The department is also responsible for all survey operations required by the Army, and has been rapidly developing measures to meet the greatly increased complexity of modern military requirements, especially in connection with air survey. The development of air surveys for various civil purposes is also receiving all possible encouragement and assistance, while the latest methods of stereo-photography are being studied experimentally.

Administration is by the Surveyor General under the Education, Health and Lands Department of the Government of India. Headquarters offices are at Calcutta under the Assistant Surveyor General, and there are seven Directors, one for each of the five Survey Circles into which the country is divided, one for the Geodetic Branch at Dehra Dun, and one for the Map Publication and other technical offices at Calcutta.

Posts and Telegraphs.

POST OFFICE.

The control of the Posts and Telegraphs of India is vested in an officer designated Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs who works in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself consists on the postal side of two Deputy Directors General (who are officers of the rank of Postmaster-General), and six Assistant Directors General (whose status is similar to that of Deputy Postmasters-General).

For postal purposes, the Indian Empire is divided into nine circles as shown below, each of the first eight is in charge of a Postmaster-General and the Sind and Baluchistan Circle is controlled by a Deputy Postmaster-General—Bengal and Assam, Binar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, Central, Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Sind and Baluchistan. The Central Circle comprises roughly the Central Provinces and the Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The Postmasters-General are responsible to the Director-General for the whole of the postal arrangements in their respective circles, with the exception of those connected with the conveyance of mails by railways and inland steamers which are entrusted to three officers bearing the designation of Deputy Postmaster-General, Railway Mail Service. All the Postmasters-General are provided with Personal Assistants, while those in charge of the largest circles are also assisted by Deputy Postmasters-General. The nine Postal Circles and the jurisdictions of the three Deputy Postmasters-General, Railway Mail Service, are divided into Divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be and each Superintendent is assisted by a certain number of officials styled Inspectors.

Generally there is a head post office at the head-quarters of each revenue district and other post offices in the same district are usually subordinate to the head Office for purposes of accounts. The Postmasters of the Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras General Post Offices

and of the larger of the other head post offices are directly under the Postmaster-General. The Presidency Postmasters, indeed, have one or more Superintendents subordinate to them. When the duties of the Postmaster of a head office become so onerous that he is unable to perform them fully himself a Deputy Postmaster is appointed to relieve him of some of them, and if still further relief is required one or more Assistant Postmasters are employed. The more important of the offices subordinate to the head office are designated sub-offices and are usually established only in towns of some importance. Sub-offices transact all classes of postal business with the public, submit accounts to the head offices to which they are subordinate incorporating therein the accounts of their branch offices, and frequently have direct dealings with Government local sub-treasuries. The officer in charge of such an office works it either single-handed or with the assistance of one or more clerks according to the amount of business.

Branch offices are small offices with limited functions ordinarily intended for villages, and are placed in charge either of departmental officers on small pay or of extraneous agents such as school-masters, shopkeepers, landholders or cultivators who perform their postal duties in return for a small remuneration.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, who is an officer of the Finance Department of the Government of India and is not subordinate to the Director-General. The Accountant-General is assisted by Deputy Accountants-General, all of whom, with the necessary staff of clerks, perform at separate headquarters the actual audit work of a certain number of postal circles.

In accordance with an arrangement which has been in force since 1883, a large number of sub-post offices and a few head offices perform telegraph work in addition to their postal work and are known by the name of combined offices. The policy is to increase telegraph facilities everywhere and especially in towns by opening a number of cheap telegraph offices working under the control of the Post Office.

The Inland Tariff (which is applicable to Ceylon and Portuguese India except as indicated below) is as follows:—

	When the postage is prepaid.	When the postage is wholly unpaid.	When the postage is insufficiently prepaid.
<i>Letters.</i>	<i>Anna.</i>	Double the prepaid rate (chargeable on delivery).	
Not exceeding two and a half tolas ..	1		
Every additional two and a half tolas or part of that weight ..	1		
<i>Book and pattern packets.</i>			
Every 5 tolas or part of that weight ..	1		Double the deficiency (chargeable on delivery).

Post Office Tariffs

Packets

S n e
R p p

1 anna

The postage on packets of parcels manufactured or assembled in India to be prepaid in full.

Parcels (prepayment compulsory).

(a) Parcels not exceeding 440 tolas in weight:—

Not exceeding 20 tolas ..	Rs. 1. 0 2
Exceeding 20 tolas but not exceeding 40 tolas ..	Rs. 1. 0 3
For every additional 40 tolas or part of that weight ..	3 annas.

(b) Parcels exceeding 440 tolas in weight:—

Exceeding 440 tolas but not exceeding 480 tolas ..

Rs. 3 0

4 annas for every additional 40 tolas or fraction thereof up to 800 tolas.

Registration is compulsory in the case of parcels weighing over 440 tolas.

These rates are not applicable to parcels for Portuguese India.

In the case of parcels for Ceylon a registration fee of 2 annas is chargeable on each parcel in addition to the rates shown above.

Registration fee.

Rs. 2.

For each letter, postcard, book or pattern packet, or parcel to be registered 0 2

Ordinary Money Order fees.

On any sum not exceeding Rs. 10 .. 0 2

On any sum exceeding Rs. 10 but not exceeding Rs. 25 .. 0 4

On any sum exceeding Rs. 25 up to Rs. 500 .. 0 4

for each complete sum of Rs. 25, and 4 annas for the remainder; provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs. 10, the charge for it shall be only 2 annas.

Telegraphic money order fees.—The same as the fees for ordinary money orders plus a telegraph charge calculated at the rates for telegrams for the actual number of words used in the telegram advising the remittance, according as the telegram is to be sent as an "Express" or as an "Ordinary" message.

In the case of Ceylon the telegraph charge is calculated at the rates shown below:—

Express.—Rs. 2 for the first 12 words and 3 annas for each additional word.

Ordinary.—Rs. 1 for the first 12 words and 2 annas for each additional word. Telegraphic money orders cannot be sent to Portuguese India.

Value-payable fees.—These are calculated on the amount specified for remittance to the sender and are the same as the fees for ordinary money orders.

Insurance fees.—For every Rs. 100 of insured value 2 annas.

As regards Portuguese India see Foreign Tariff.

Acknowledgment fee.—For each registered article 1 anna.

The Foreign Tariff (which is not applicable to Ceylon or to Portuguese India except in respect of insurance fees for parcels and postage as follows:—

post of insurance fees for parcels and postage as follows:—

Letters.

To Great Britain and Northern Ireland .. 2 annas for the first ounce and 1½ annas for each additional ounce or part of that weight.

To other countries, colonies or places. .. 3 annas for the first ounce and 1½ annas for every additional ounce or part of that weight.

Postcards, Single .. 1½ annas

Reply .. 3 annas

Printed Papers.—1 anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight.

Business Papers.—For a packet not exceeding 12 ounces in weight .. 3 annas

For every additional 2 ounces or part of that weight .. 1 anna

Samplers.—1 anna for first 4 ounces and 1 anna per 2 ounces thereafter.

Parcels.

(i) Parcels not exceeding 20 lbs. in weight and addressed to Great Britain and Northern Ireland are forwarded as mails to the British Post Office, the rates of postage applicable to such parcels being as follows:—

Via
Gibraltar

For a parcel:—

Not over 3 lbs. .. 1 8 0

Over 3 lbs., but not over 7 lbs. .. 2 12 0

7 lbs. .. 3 15 0

11 lbs. .. 6 8 0

These parcels are delivered by the post office and the postage paid carries them to destination.

(ii) Parcels which exceed 11 lbs. but which do not exceed 50 lbs. (the maximum allowed) in weight are forwarded from India through the medium of the P. & O. S. N. Co., and are delivered at destination under arrangements made by that Company. The postage charge applicable to such parcels is twelve annas for each pound, or fraction of a pound. The parcels are delivered free of charge within a radius of one mile from the Company's Head Office in London; if addressed to any place beyond that radius, carrier's charges are levied from the addressee on delivery. Parcels thus forwarded through the P. & O. S. N. Co. cannot be insured during transit beyond India, but must, if they contain coin, etc., be insured during transit in India. No acknowledgment of delivery can be obtained in respect of these parcels, nor can such parcels be transmitted to Great Britain and Northern Ireland under the value-payable system.

Limits of Weight.

Letters—4 lbs. 8 oz.

Printed Papers and Business Papers—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, British Australasian Colonies, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, Togo (French), the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—5 lbs.

To Ceylon—No limit.

To all other destinations—4 lbs. 6 oz.

Samples—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, Togo (British), the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—5 lbs.

To Ceylon—200 talas.

To all other destinations—1 lb. 2 oz.

Packets—11 lbs.

Limits of Size.

Letters—1½ feet length by 1½ feet in width or depth. If in form of roll, 2½ feet in length and 4 inches in diameter.

Printed Papers and Business Papers—To Ceylon—2 feet in length by 1 foot in width or depth.

To all other destinations—1½ feet in length by 1½ feet in width or depth.

If in form of roll, dimensions in all cases are 80 inches in length and 4 inches in diameter.

Samples—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, Ceylon, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—3 feet in length by 1 foot in width or depth.

To all other destinations—1½ feet in length by 8 inches in width and 4 inches in depth.

If in form of roll, dimensions in all cases are 1½ feet in length and 6 inches in diameter.

Money Orders.—To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in rupee currency, the rates of commission are the same as in the case of inland money orders.

To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in sterling, the rates are as follows:—

	Rs. &
On any sum not exceeding £1	0 8
" " exceeding £1 but not exceeding £2	3 8
" " " £2 " " £3	0 8

On any sum exceeding £3

but not exceeding £4	0 10
" " " £4 " " £5	0 12
" " " £5 " " £12	0 12

for each complete sum of £5 and 12 annas for the remainder, provided that if the remainder does not exceed £1, the charge for it shall be 2 annas; if it does not exceed £2, the charge for it shall be 5 annas; if it does not exceed £3, the charge for it shall be 8 annas; and if it does not exceed £4, the charge for it shall be 10 annas.

Insurance fees (for registered letters and parcels only)

For insurance of letters and parcels to Mauritius, Iraq and British Somaliland and of parcels to Portuguese India, the Seychelles and Zanzibar—

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 200 5

For every additional Rs. 200 or fraction thereof 5

For insurance of letters and parcels to Great Britain and Northern Ireland and to British Possessions and Foreign countries other than those mentioned above and for insurance of letters to the Seychelles and Zanzibar—

Where the value insured does not exceed £12 5

For every additional £12 or fraction thereof 5

Acknowledgment fee.—3 annas for each registered article.

Magnitude of business in Post Office.

At the close of 1926-27 there were 107,721 postal officials, 22,747 post offices, and 161,259 miles of main lines. During the year, 1,298 million articles, including 51 million registered articles were posted; stamps worth Rs. 61 millions were sold for postal purposes; over 37 million money orders of the total value of Rs. 897 millions were issued, a sum of Rs. 273 millions was collected from tradesmen and others on V. P. articles; over 57 million insured articles valued at 1,932 millions of rupees were handled. Customs duty, aggregating over 8 million rupees was realized on parcels and letters from abroad, pensions amounting to Rs. 13.6 millions were paid to Indian Military pensioners and 13,400 lbs. of quinine were sold to the public. On the 31st March 1927, there were 2,318,442 Savings Bank accounts with a total balance of Rs. 295 millions and 53,548 Postal Life Insurance policies with an aggregate assurance of Rs. 101 millions.

TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Telegraphs.—Up to 1912 the telegraph system in India was administered as a separate department by an officer designated Director-General of Telegraphs who worked in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Commerce and Industry. In that year it was decided to vest the control of Posts and Telegraphs in a single officer as an experimental measure with a view to the eventual amalgamation of the two Departments.

In pursuance of this policy an experimental amalgamation of the two services was introduced in the Bombay and Central Circles from the 1st July 1912. The fundamental principles of this scheme which followed closely the system in force in the United Kingdom and several other European countries were that the radio and engineering work of the Telegraph Department should be separated, the former branch of work in each Circle being transferred to the

Postmaster-General assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable number of attached officers and a suitable number being controlled by a charge of the two Circles officer there were several Divisional Superintendents who were assisted by a number of attached officers.

In 1914 the complete amalgamation of the two Departments was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and introduced from 1st April. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the engineering side of a Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, with two Dy. Chief Engineers. For traffic work there is a Deputy Director-General, with an Assistant and an Assistant Director-General. On the 27th March 1920 a Controller of Telegraph Traffic was appointed to assist the Deputy Director-General in the inspection of offices and in controlling telegraph traffic. In the Circles the scheme which has been introduced follows closely on the lines of the experimental one referred to above. For telegraph engineering purposes India is divided up into five Circles, each in charge of a Director. For Burma special arrangements were considered necessary and the engineering work is in charge of the Postmaster-General who is a Telegraph officer specially selected for the purpose. These six Circles are divided into twenty-one Divisions each of which is in charge of a Divisional Engineer. On the 1st July 1922 Sind and Baluchistan Circle was formed with its headquarters at Karachi. This circle is in charge of a Deputy Postmaster-General. On the 31st March 1924 there were 7 Circles and 20 Divisions.

The telegraph traffic work is under the control of the Postmaster-General, each of whom is assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable staff of attached officers.

The audit work of the Telegraph Department is, like that of the Post Office, entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, assisted by a staff of Deputy and Assistant Accountants-General.

Inland Telegrams and Tariff.—Telegrams sent to or received from places in India or Ceylon are classed as Inland telegrams. The tariff for inland telegrams is as follows:—

	For delivery in India.		For delivery in Ceylon.	
	Private and State.		Private and State.	
	Ex-press. Rs. a.	Ordinary. Rs. a.	Ex-press. Rs. a.	Ordinary. Rs. a.
Minimum charge,	1 8	0 12	2 0	2 0
Each additional word over 12..	0 2	0 1	0 3	0 3
The address is charged for.				
<i>Additional charges.</i>				
Minimum for reply-paid telegram	Minimum charge for an ordinary telegram.			
Notification of delivery				
Multiple telegrams, each 100 words or less	4 annas.			
Collation	One half of the charge for an ordinary telegram of same length.			

	Rs.	
If both the offices of origin and destination are closed	2	
If only one of the offices is closed	1	
If the telegram has to pass through any closed intermediate office an additional fee in respect of each such office	1	
For acceptance of an Express telegram during the hours when an office is closed.		
Signalling by flag or semaphore to or from ships—per telegram		The usual inland charge plus a fixed fee of 8 annas
Boat hire		Amount actually necessary.
Copies of telegrams; each 100 words or less	4	annas.

	For delivery in India.		For delivery in Ceylon.	
	Press.		Press.	
	Ex-press. Rs. a.	Ordinary. Rs. a.	Ex-press. Rs. a.	
Minimum charge	1 0	0 8	1 0	
Each additional 6 words over 48 in respect of India, each additional four words over 32 in respect of Ceylon..	0 2	0 1	0 2	
The address is free.				

Foreign Tariff.—The charges for foreign telegrams vary with the countries to which they are addressed. The rates per word for private and state telegrams to countries in Europe are as follows:—

	Ordinary.		Deferred.		State (British Govt.)	
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
All countries in Europe (except France, Russia and Turkey) <i>via</i> Eastern S	3 0	1 0	0 0	3 0	3 0	3 0
Do. <i>via</i> Indo	8 0	1 0	0 0	8 0	—	—
Great Britain and Northern Ireland <i>via</i> I.R.T.	—	0 12	0 6	0 6	—	—
Most other countries in Europe <i>via</i> I.R.T.	—	10 0	0 8	0 8	—	—

Radio-Telegrams.—For radio-telegrams addressed to ships at sea from offices in India or Burma and stations at Bombay, Port Blair or Rangoon per word in nearly all cases.

g O and o B d
stations mentioned in paragraph 1 above:—

Total charge
per word.

Rs. a.

- (1) All Government or Private Radio-telegrams, excepting those mentioned in (2) to (5) below .. 0 10
- (2) British, Indian or Colonial Government Radio-telegrams to His Britannic Majesty's Ships or War or Royal Indian Marine Ships .. 0 6
- (3) Private Radio-telegrams to His Britannic Majesty's Ships or War .. 0 6
- (4) P

(a) For ten words or less, six annas per word, plus a fixed charge of Rs. 2-8-0.

(b) For more than ten words, ten annas per word.

(5) Radio-telegrams to Roumanian, Spanish and Swedish ships —

(a) For ten words or less, six annas per word, plus a fixed charge of Rs. 1-14-0.

(b) For more than ten words, nine annas per word.

The sender of a radio-telegram may prepay a reply. He must insert before the address, the instruction "R. P." followed by mention in Rupees and annas of the amount prepaid e.g., R.P. 7-8. This expression counts as one word.

DAILY LETTER-TELEGRAMS.

Daily Letter-Telegrams in plain language, which are dealt with telegraphically throughout are accepted on any day of the week, excluding Sundays and telegraph holidays, and are ordinarily delivered to the addressee after forty-eight hours. They are subject to the conditions prescribed for Deferred Foreign telegrams with certain exceptions as stated below.

The charge for a Daily Letter-Telegram is a quarter of the charge for a full rate telegram of the same length and by the same route subject to a minimum charge equal to the charge for 20 words at such reduced rate

L T f n m p D d
accepted during the closed hours of an office

On Indian lines Daily Letter-Telegrams are transmitted after Deferred Foreign telegrams.

In the Daily Letter-Telegram service the special instructions relating to prepayment of replies are admitted other special services are inadmissible in DLT Telegrams.

Packed messages, i.e., messages intended to be communicated to different persons, are not accepted in the text of Daily Letter-Telegrams

Daily Letter-Telegrams to Great Britain and Ireland via Eastern or India or I.R.T. are accepted at one-fourth the rate for ordinary telegrams, subject to a minimum of 20 words per telegram, including the indication DLT. The charge for a week-end telegram to Great Britain and Northern Ireland is 3 annas a word via Eastern or India and 2½ annas a word via I.R.T. subject to a minimum of 20 words per telegram including the indication IWT.

TELEGRAPHS.

ABBREVIATED LIST OF RATES * "via I. R. T."

COMPILED FROM FIGURES SUPPLIED BY THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

Effective from 1st October 1927 subject to revision without notice.

Only. Deid. D.L.T.
Rs. a. Rs. a. Rs. a.

Europe —

Great Britain and Northern Ireland ..	0 12	0 6	0 3
Irish Free State ..	0 13	0 6½	0 3½
Belgium ..	0 13	0 6½	..
Holland, France, Germany ..	0 14	0 7	..
Switzerland, Italy, Norway, Spain ..	0 15	0 7½	..
Other Countries in Europe ..	1 0	0 8½	..

South Africa "Via Empress" —
Union of South Africa

and S. W. Africa .. 1 7 0 11½ 0 6½

America:—

Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia etc. ..	2 4	0 10	0 5½
Manitoba ..	1 9	0 12½	0 6½
Vancouver B.C. ..	1 10	0 13	0 7
New York, Boston, etc ..	1 4	0 10	0 5½
Philadelphia, Washington etc. ..	1 6	0 11	0 5½

* No deferred rate to Yugoslavia and Turkey.

† This list is issued by the Traffic Manager, Indian Radio Telegraph Company, Ltd., Central Telegraph Office, Bombay.

	rd	hd
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	...
Chicago ..	1	8	0	13 0 6
San Francisco Seattle etc.	1	10	0	13 0 7
Buenos Aires—via I.R.T.				
London Marconi ..	2	7	1	31 ..
Rio de Janeiro—via I.R.T.				
London Marconi ..	2	5	1	21 ..
Valparaiso—via I.R.T.				
London Marconi ..	2	7	1	21 ..
Barrow—via I.R.T. London Marconi ..				
Jamaica—via I.R.T. London Marconi ..				
London Marconi ..	2	7	1	31 ..

Work and Telegrams (To Great Britain only), accepted for Saturday or any previous day or delivery on the following Monday—21 annas per word.

Day and Weekend Letter Telegrams—Minimum charge for 20 words.

Ordinary rate telegrams may be written in code.

Telegrams are accepted at all Government Telegraph Offices.

Usual rules apply regarding Registration, Reply Paid, etc.

Full lists published in Port and Telegraph Guide.

Growth of Telegraphs.—At the end of 1927-28 there were 80,305 miles of line and 155,888 miles of wire and cable, as compared with 511,968 wire including cable and 93,126 line including cable miles, respectively, on the 31st March 1921. The numbers of departmental telegraph offices were 257 and 164 (including 53 Coast Radio offices, respectively) while the number of telegraph offices worked by the Post Office rose from 1,634 to 3,352.

The increase in the number of paid telegrams dealt with is shown by the following figures:—

	1897-98.	1926-27
Inland ..	4,107,270	1,539,571
Foreign ..	860,382	1,068,064
Private ..	35,910	452,082
State ..	735,670	2,891,077
Press ..	5,956	30,306
	5,278	39,293
	5,754,415	19,022,902

The outturn of the workshops during 1926-27 represented a total value of Rs. 20,30,853. At the end of the year the total outlay of the Indian P. & T. Department to end of the year stood numbered 14,681. The total capital amounted to Rs. 12,14,34,780. The Net profit for the year was Rs. 10,24,962.

Wireless.—The total number of Departmental wireless stations open at the end of 1926-27 was twenty-four, viz., Allahabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Diamond Island, Jutogh, Kanpur, Lahore, Madras (3 stations), Mhow, Nagpur, Peshawar, Poona, Port Blair, Quetta, Rangoon (3 stations), Sandheads (two pilot-vessels), Secunderabad, and Victoria Point of which only Port Blair and Victoria Point booked telegrams direct from the public.

The new Duplex high-speed service between Rangoon and Madras continued to work satisfactorily, the Bandot system being employed generally for this circuit.

Telephones.—On the 31st March 1927 the number of telephone exchanges established by the Department was 271 with 15,041 straight line connections and 2,071 extension telephones. Of these exchanges, 112 were worked departmentally. The number of telephone exchanges established by Telephone Companies was 13 with 28,384 connections.

Sanitation.

The history of the sanitary departments in India goes back for about fifty years. During that period great improvements have been effected in the sanitary condition of the towns, though much remains to be done; but the progress of rural sanitation which involves the health of the great bulk of the population has been slow, and incommensurate with the thought and labour bestowed on the subject. "The reason lies in the apathy of the people and the tenacity with which they cling to domestic customs injurious to health. While the inhabitants of the plains of India are on the whole distinguished for personal cleanliness, the sense of public cleanliness has ever been wanting. Great improvements have been effected in many places; but the village house is still often ill-ventilated and over-populated; the village

site dirty, crowded with cattle, choked with rank vegetation, and poisoned by stagnant pools; and the village tanks polluted, and used indiscriminately for bathing, cooking and drinking. That the way to improvement lies through the education of the people has always been recognised."

Of recent years the pace has been speeded up as education progressed, education developed, and funds were available. In a resolution issued in May 23rd, 1914, the Government of India summarised the position at that time, and laid down the general lines of advance. This resolution (*Gazette of India*, May 25th, 1914) should be studied by all who wish to understand the attitude of the Government of India towards sanitation prior to the passing of the Reform Act of 1919. It will be found

Chief Causes of Mortality.—There are three main classes of fatal diseases and diseases affecting the abdominal organs, and lung diseases. Intestinal and skin ulcers and other indications of scurvy widely prevail. The table below shows the deaths from each of the principal diseases and from all other causes in British India rates per 1,000:—

Province.	Cholera.	Small-pox.	Plague.	Fevers.	Dysentery and Diarrhoea.	Respiratory Diseases.
Delhi .. {	50 .09	130 .26	80 .10	8,495 16.97	357 .71	4,298 8.58
Bengal Presidency. {	34,276 .7	17,436 .4	9 .9	874,228 18.8	21,836 .3	27,324 .4
Bihar and Orissa .. {	17,336 .5	14,382 .4	6,788 .0002	557,224 16.4	25,319 .7	6,917 .1
Assam .. {	6,235 .90	2,745 .40	..	98,015 14.30	9,188 1.34	5,601 .81
U. Provinces of Agra and Oudh. {	7,653 .17	9,373 .21	49,091 1.08	875,594 19.30	11,887 .23	26,177 .68
Punjab .. {	3,040 .15	7,038 .3	37,630 1.83	401,775 19.58	9,475 .43	54,276 2.0
N. W. F. P. {	116 .05	586 .27	217 10	35,358 16.61	183 .08	1,546 .72
C. P. & Berar {	124 .01	3,145 .23	5,223 .38	204,667 14.71	24,024 1.73	31,710 2.28
Madras Presidency. {	44,815 1.1	20,478 .3	2,014 .1	316,406 7.7	78,935 1.9	74,591 1.8
Coorg .. {	4 0.3	26 1.6	..	4,116 25.12	194 1.18	237 1.4
Bombay Presidency. {	37 .00	5,644 .29	12,401 .66	183,764 9.59	20,643 1.08	88,047 4.38
Burma .. {	1,932 .18	3,852 .36	4,064 .38	68,685 6.35	6,801 .63	10,580 .98
Ajmer Merwara. {	..	1,151 2.32	..	8,037 16.22	142 .29	203 .51
British India {	293,707 1.22	35,280 .23	361,843 1.50	4,007,662 16.80	230,222 .95	385,630 1.88
1924-25 .. {	115,645 .48	83,986 .36	117,717 .49	3,636,264 15.06	208,412 .86	326,577 1.35

The Public Health Commissioner in his annual review shows that the outstanding statistical data concerning health during the year 1925 are briefly as follows:—

(1) The birth rate fell down from 34.45 per mille in 1924 to 33.65 per mille in 1925,

(2) The death rate fell from 28.49 per mille in 1924 to 24.72 per mille in 1925;

(3) The infantile death rate fell from 189 in 1924 to 174 in 1925.

He shows that taking the year as a whole rainfall was within 25 per cent of the normal except in Orissa and the Madras Coast North where it was in moderate excess and in Baluchistan, Sind, Rajputana and Gujarat, where it was in large defect.

Birth ratios exceeded death ratios in all provinces except Coorg, where the death rate was in

excess by 3.05. Central Provinces (11.94), Bihar and Orissa (11.9), Bombay (10.09), Ajmer-Merwara (9.6) (9.3) were among the big birth incre. Throughout British India numbers as compared with 6,879,286 in the year a decrease of 911,368. Registrar exceeded registered deaths by 157 1,438,117 in 1924, all provinces except having contributed to this. The was 24.72 as against 28.49 in 1924 quennual mean of 27.74. The urban was 29.65 against 31.65 and the rural 24.80 against 28.19 in 1921. In Delhi Bihar and Orissa the rural rates exceeded urban ones; in Coorg the urban rate the rural one by 26.37 in Burma by in the United Provinces by 11.54.

The Health of the Army

mortality, 1,418,983 deaths, or 17.3 per cent during the first year of 1923 and 22.8 per cent respectively. In England and Wales the rates for 1924 and 1925 were 11.3 and 11.3 per cent respectively. The rate calculated on the births of the year was 17.4 as against 18.9 in 1923 and 17.5 in 1922. In 1924 (49.58 per mille) of deaths occurred during the first year against 48.1 in 1924 and this equals 86 per thousand life again in excess of the total rate in England and Wales, 7.7 per mille births registered. In over 10,000 inhabitants in the

United Provinces, Assam, Bombay Provinces and the rural areas of Bombay death rates decreased, while in the rural areas of Madras and "all similar towns" in Madras and Madras they increased. The accuracy of the figures is subject to the known inaccuracies in registration, as to which the Public Health Commissioner writes: "The checking which has been attempted in various provinces according to the ideas of the public health departments concerned. The prevailing impression, one gathers, is that little is able to be recorded anywhere: and it is difficult, with economic and other considerations, being what they are, to visualise any very or drastic amelioration."

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY.

The average strength of British Troops, R.N., R.A.F. and pensioners and the strength were also 5,632 women and 7,747 children, in India during 1924 with 58,614 in 1924. The following table shows the main facts as regards

Average Strength	Admissions to Hospital.		Deaths.		Invalids sent Home.		Invalids Discharged in India.		Average Cost per Soldier
	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.
2,719	1,652	607.6	14	5.15	46	17.65	1	0.37	10.54
57,378	28,069	628.6	160	2.89	972	16.94	25	0.44	17.01
5,632	2,203	407.1	23	4.08	92	16.34	1	0.18	76.79
7,747	875	11.3	101	13.04	12	1.53	1	0.13	36.93
	2,614	337.4							79.57
	901	..	11	
	57	

Statistics of Officers and other ranks for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 with those for 1925 separately for purposes of comparison:—

	Admissions.		Invalids.		Deaths.	
	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
..	567.5	567.2	16.30	7.03	5.14	
..	1,053.0	881.7	60.98	29.91	10.54	
..	676.7	791.9	20.99	13.91	6.71	
..	607.8	628.6	18.02	17.38	5.15	

The number of admissions, deaths, and invalids per 1,000 in 1923, 595.4 in 1923, 628.9 in 1922, 1,022.3 in 1921 and 580.5 in 1913. The appreciable diminution in disease during 1923 was mainly due to lessened malaria, which remains as before the principal cause of sickness in India. There were 165 deaths, or 2.89 per 1,000 of strength, compared with 4.20 per 1,000 in 1921, 3.75 in 1922, 4.72 in 1922, 6.95 in 1921 and 4.38 (average) in 1910-11. The figure for 1923 constitutes a record. The number invalided was 997 or 17.28 of the total strength, compared with 15 per 1,000 in 1924, 15.51 in 1923 and 8.03 (average) for 1910-14. The increase in this figure was solely due to diseases of the ear. In 1924 men invalided for diseases of the ear numbered 100 and in 1923 this figure rose to 104. Of all the invalids 253 had less than one year's service in the country and of these 137 suffered from diseases of the ear. The majority the same as before the war.

An analysis of the different causes of sickness shows an enormous preponderance of disease due to bites or mosquitoes and sandflies and shows the importance of preventive measures directed against these pests. The large number of hospital admissions for "inflammation of aridax tissue" is also attributed in some measure to the same causes, on account of the irritation of the bites and subsequent scratching and infection. The Northern Command as usual had the greatest incidence of malaria and Burma District of venereal disease. The figures for Waziristan are remarkably good and it is pointed out that most of the British troops there are concentrated at Rezmak, a hill station. They are 44 per cent better than in 1914 an improvement attributed to better housing and an increase in the ration allowance.

Indian.—The outstanding feature of the statistics for 1923 in regard to the Indian Army is that the ratios per 1,000 for admissions, deaths and average constantly sick are in each case a record low figure in the annals of the Indian Army. The following table shows the main health statistics by years:—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.	RATIO PER 1,000 OF STRENGTH.				Average period of illness of each soldier calculated on average strength.	Average duration of each case of sickness.
						Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.		
1910-14 (Average).	120,281	71,213	573	600	2,642	144.6	4.33	5.4	20.7	7.31	13.50
1915-19 (Average).	204,208	161,028	3,435	4,829	7,792	788.2	16.81	23.6	33.1	13.92	17.63
1920 ..	216,443	164,967	2,124	4,564	9,265	702.3	9.81	21.1	42.8	15.62	20.50
1921 ..	173,384	110,215	1,782	3,635	6,031	679.7	10.18	20.7	34.4	12.55	18.47
1922*	147,840	77,408	1,014	2,639	2,632	524.0	6.86	13.0	24.0	8.68	17.15
1923*	143,284	68,847	856	2,328	2,955	466.7	6.98	16.3	20.62	7.53	16.13
1924*	134,742	57,014	772	1,731	2,422	423.1	5.73	12.3	18.05	6.61	15.61
1925*	126,473	45,801	547	1,712	2,053	356.8	4.01	12.5	15.04	5.49	15.39

*The figures for stations outside India, i.e., Aden and Bushire have been included.

The admission rate (for 1925) is 356.8 per 1,000 and shows a decrease of 86.3 per 1,000 as compared with 1924. The ratio per 1,000 for deaths is 4.01 as compared with 5.73 and the ratio per 1,000 for average constantly sick 15.04 as compared with 18.05 in 1924.

The ratio per 1,000 for invalids is 12.5 and is the lowest since 1914. However, it is still more than double the figure for the quinquennial

period 1910-14. The hospital admission ratios for the chief diseases show a marked fall in the incidence of malaria. The early and short monsoon did not favour the occurrence of a malaria epidemic. There is a welcome improvement in the incidence of small-pox and of venereal disease. A slight increase is shown in influenza, the entire group of fevers, sandfly fever and diarrhoea.

MORTALITY FROM WILD ANIMALS

The total number of persons killed by wild animals in British India during 1925 amounted to 1,962, as against 2,587 in the previous year. Tigers were responsible for 974 deaths, leopards for 181, wolves for 285, bears for 82, elephants for 78, and hyenas for 6. Deaths were highest from tigers in Madras, from leopards in the Central Provinces and Berar, from wolves in the United Provinces, from bears in Bihar and Orissa and from elephants in Assam. Of the 376 deaths from "other animals," 73 were assigned to wild pigs and 98 to crocodiles and alligators. The highest number of deaths from all wild animals occurred in Madras (452). Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces and Berar coming next in order. The mortality from elephants showed a marked increase in provinces where these animals are found wild. There has been a not-

iceable decrease in deaths from all other animal except bears in almost all provinces.

Deaths from snake bite fell from 19,867 to 19,258. Decreases occurred in Madras, the United Provinces, the Punjab, Burma, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Berar and Assam; but Bombay and Bengal have reported slight increases.

During the year 21,605 wild animals were reported to have been destroyed, of which 1,609 were tigers, 4,080 leopards, 2,485 bears and 2,381 wolves. A sum of Rs. 1,55,867 was paid in rewards, against Rs. 1,69,795 in the previous year. The number of snakes destroyed in India proper decreased from 47,169, to 41,004 and the rewards paid for their destruction were Rs. 1,579 as against Rs. 1,405 in the previous year.

MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS.

There were 3,956 State-Public, Local Fund and Private-Aided Civil Hospitals and Dispensaries in India at the end of 1925 as compared with 3,689 in 1924, an increase of 287. The total number of patients treated was 41,145,578 (7,2075 in-patients and 40,402,003 out-patients) as compared with 38,886,240 (694,783 in patients and 38,886,249 out-patients) in 1924. The increase was noticeable in all provinces except Assam and the United Provinces. The greatest reduction was in Cachar district of Assam, partly due to the levy of a fee of one anna per out-door patient on each new case.

The number of Mental Hospitals throughout British India was 23, compared with 22 in 1924 and their total population 10,992 against 9,712 in 1924. The criminal population of the mental hospitals numbered 564 in 1925 against 569 in 1924.

There were in 1925 eight Medical College in India and 23 Medical Schools. There is at Dehra Dun an X-Ray Institute where training is given in radio-diagnosis, radio- and electric-therapy and radiology, the number of students in 1925 being 62. There are officially maintained X-Ray installations at Delhi and Simla.

LEPROSY IN INDIA.

It is exceedingly difficult to give anything approaching an accurate estimate of the total number of lepers in the Indian Empire to-day. The census figures of 1921 give the total as 102,513, as against 109,094 in 1911. But it is doubtful if this figure represents anything more than the more advanced cases and possibly a majority of this number are the begging and pauper lepers who are seen all over the country. Dr. H. Muir, M.D., F.R.C.S., the Leprosy Research Worker at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, says that "we think that it would not be an over estimate to put down the number of lepers in India somewhere between a half and one million."

Early in the year 1924, the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association was constituted in England, with H. R. H. The Prince of Wales as Patron, the Viscount Chalmers as Chairman of the General Committee and H. B. the Viceroy of India as one of the Vice-Presidents. Following its formation and in view of the good results being obtained from the newest treatment of leprosy, H. B. the Viceroy felt that the time was auspicious for the inauguration and carrying on of an earnest campaign with the object of ultimately stamping out leprosy from India.

His Excellency invited certain gentlemen representing various interests to form an Indian Council of the Association, which he formally inaugurated at a public meeting in Delhi on the 27th January 1925.

His Excellency is its President and Sardar Sahab Bahadur Singh, Puri, Honorary Secretary of the Association.

A special research worker on a salary of Rs. 1,200-75-1500 has been appointed for five years who is working under Dr. H. Muir, M.D., F.R.C.S., in the School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, Calcutta, where doctors are trained in the special treatment of leprosy.

The whole of the first year of the Indian Council was occupied with preliminary organising work and very early, in its second year, 1926 it began to put its work into operation. The Central Committee is under the usually adopted scheme vested with the task of promoting research, preparing and publishing propaganda material and arranging for the training of doctors in the diagnosis and treatment of leprosy. Measures for the accommodation and treatment of leprosy patients and other schemes of purely local interest are the concern of Provincial Committees working as agents of the Indian Council. One of the early decisions of the Council therefore related to the apportionment of the revenue of the Fund as between the Central and Provincial Governments. It was decided that the total revenue, less the income of contributions received from Ruling Princes, which according to their wishes, has been earmarked for the promotion of research under the direction of the Central Committee, should so be allocated that the amount distributed to

Provincial Committees should not be less than 50 per cent. of the total

Two circulars were early in 1926 issued to the Provinces setting forth in detail the approved plan of action for the Central and Provincial Committees. In pursuance of the proposals made in it permanent local Committees to administer the funds to be allotted to them from the head quarters and to direct and control the anti-leprosy campaign in their respective provinces were formed and by the close of the year all the Provinces has constituted branches. In order to secure uniformity in certain broad principles relating to the anti-leprosy campaign to be undertaken by the Provincial Committees and with a view to its conformity with the latest scientific information about the nature of the disease, the Indian Council issued in the early part of 1926 a "Memorandum on the method of conducting the anti-leprosy campaign in India." This document sought to bring out the following main points which according to the latest scientific researches should be the bases upon which all efforts ultimately to eradicate leprosy must rest.—

(1) Pauper lepers form only a small fraction of the leper population, and the disease is common among all classes of the community.

(2) Segregations is not the most appropriate method of dealing with lepers, for

(a) financially it would be impossible :

(b) any attempt to impose forcible segregation would drive patients, particularly those who are suffering from the earlier stages of the disease, to conceal their misfortune, and, as has been the case where such means have been adopted, only the more advanced and obvious lepers would be segregated.

(3) The majority of the advanced cases are not highly infectious and are less amenable to treatment, while the early cases in which the disease has made but little outward manifestation, can be controlled by treatment

(4) The strongest hope of stamping out the disease lies in providing facilities for the treatment of early cases.

The Indian Council, therefore, while it did not desire to minimise the usefulness of homes and asylums for the care of lepers, strongly recommended that the efforts of the Provincial Committees should, for the present at least be concentrated upon the establishment of dispensaries to serve the following objects :—

(a) to induce patients to come forward at an early stage in the hope of recovery instead of hiding their malady till it becomes more advanced, more infectious and less remediable; and so

(b) to shut off the sources of infection as the number of infectious cases will continually tend to diminish and the opportunities for infecting the next generation, will become fewer.

The Provincial Committees have all placed the question of the training of doctors and the starting of treatment centres where facilities will be available for the proper diagnosis and treatment of the disease, in the forefront of their programmes and their resources have in many cases been supplemented by local Governments by the grant of substantial financial assistance

A general appeal for funds was made on the formation of the Indian Council and closed in January 1926. Realisations produced Rs. 20,00,000. This was invested and forms the capital of the Association, to which it yields an annual revenue of Rs. 1,21,000.

CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT.

Amongst the most pressing problems of India's health is that presented by the appalling infant mortality. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 2 million Indian babies die, while many others survive only to grow weak and feeble from unhygienic surroundings during infancy. A noteworthy feature has been the further progress of the infant welfare movement, which owes much to the All-India Maternity and Child Welfare League initiated by Lady Chelmsford and also to the Indian Red Cross Society, which aims at gradually establishing a network of child welfare centres in most of the larger towns in India. The institution of an all India Baby Week, an undertaking to which Her Excellency the Countess of Reading has devoted great and successful enthusiasm has also given a stimulus to the work and promises to be an important perennial aid to its progress. In all the great centres of population work is now being done for the training of midwives, for the instruction of mothers and for the care of babies. Training centres for Indian and Anglo-Indian women have been opened in order to spread the elements of infantile hygiene to other parts of India. Most hopeful sign of all, Indian ladies are beginning to interest themselves in this work in large numbers. But such is the magnitude of the

field, that and consistent widespread effort on a scale hitherto impossible must be undertaken, if any appreciable reduction is to be made in the appalling mortality of young children. The admirable work done year by year by the National Association for supplying Female Medical Aid to the Women of India is recognised by the Government of India, which subsidises this organisation with a grant of Rs. 3,70,000 a year for the maintenance of the Women's Medical Service of India.

Centres of Activity.—The Child Welfare Directory gives the following list of places where the movement is already at work:

Bombay.—The centre of much active and enthusiastic welfare work; the Lady Willington Maternity Homes near the people's chawls being unique of their kind in India. The Bombay Infant Welfare Society founded by Lady Lloyd has already established 8 Infant Welfare Centres where prenatal, maternity and child welfare work is being carried on.

Poona.—The work carried out by the Seva Sadan Society of Poona deserves special mention in this connection. Child welfare centres have been established in several places throughout the Presidency and are in charge of Public

Health Nurses trained by the Seva Sadan Society. Certain of these Child Welfare centres are subsidised by the Bombay Branch of the Red Cross.

Surat.—The Henderson Ophthalmic Scheme for treating Ophthalmia Neonatorum and stemming "the enormous amount of preventible and curable blindness that is laying its shadow over the health, happiness and usefulness of this great portion of our Empire."

Bijapur.—Mr. Henderson, I.O.S., has now started the same beneficent work for blind babies as in Surat.

Delhi.—Work was started in 1914 by two lady health visitors brought out from England by the Government of India. Their salaries are now met by the Delhi Municipality, a substantial grant being paid towards them by Government; three infant welfare centres have been established and a comprehensive scheme for the training and supervision of indigenous *daies* is carried on. A training school for health visitors and midwife supervisors has been established in connection with this scheme and is financed by the Lady Chelmsford League. All particulars may be obtained from the Secretary Lady Reading Health School, Viceregal Estates, Simla (and Imperial Secretariat, Delhi).

Madras.—Under the Provincial Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League and of the Red Cross Society a number of Infant Welfare Centres have been opened in the City, also a school for training health visitors under Mrs. Chinuppi. M.B., the Medical Superintendent of the Co-operative Midwives Scheme, by means of which trained midwives are provided for the City and much antenatal, maternity and infant welfare work is carried on. There are also local centres of both the Red Cross and the Lady Chelmsford League in the Madras mofussil.

Punjab.—The Punjab Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League was founded in 1921 and has established an Infant Welfare Centre and a school for training health visitors in Lahore under two health visitors brought from England. Its object is to establish child welfare centres with a trained health visitor in charge in each district.

United Provinces.—Infant Welfare centres exist in the following places:—Agra, Allahabad, Bareilly, Cawnpore, Dehra Dun, Gonda, Ghazipur, Lucknow. Other places are also taking up the work, and decrease in infant mortality is noted as a result of the work in many places.

Bengal.—Work is undertaken by the Corporation of Calcutta, and by the Indian Red Cross Society in that town. The latter body is now also financing a Health School for the training of

workers. A centre at *Tuagkur* financed by Thos. Duff & Co., Ltd. cares for the infants of the operatives in the Jute Mills. A flourishing centre exists at *Dacca* where excellent work is being done.

Sind.—Karachi has two trained Health Visitors as well as 8 nurses, and there is a large amount of maternity work. Hyderabad is noted specially for its work among indigenous midwives.

Central Provinces.—In Nagpur city the work is being carried on by the Municipality very successfully. The Red Cross has also opened a centre in Civil Lines.

Rajputana.—Ajmer is the only centre at present.

N.W.F.P.—Dera Ismail Khan has a flourishing work, much appreciated by the people. Peshawar centre has had to be closed for want of a suitable worker.

Baluchistan.—A centre was established in Quetta in 1922, and has done steadily work.

Central India.—Indore has a centre financed by the Red Cross Society.

Bangalore.—Has an enthusiastic Committee with two Health Centres.

Indian States.—The following have undertaken definite Child Welfare work, while trained midwives are employed in a number of others: Kolhapur, Baroda, Jaipur.

So far all the schemes have devoted their attention to combating the prejudices of the mothers in respect of new-born children. In a land of so many languages and superstitious progress will necessarily be slow and India has yet to decide whether she will work intensively and try to rear a few well developed children as far as adolescence or extensively attempt to bring a large number of infants through the first critical months, only to have them perish at a later stage from the many ills that childhood is heir to in a land of great poverty, under-nourishment, epidemics and famine. In Western lands the Child Welfare Movement has no more marked characteristic than its inability to stop expanding. Its ramifications know no bounds. Its inevitable corollaries are endless, and like the banyan tree it will no doubt in India also develop innumerable fresh roots, medical supervision, dental clinics, better housing, open air playgrounds, etc., etc. But these are not yet its preliminary task is to educate the mothers of India to the enormity of allowing two million babies to perish every year and to convince them of the equally important fact that a high death rate always spells also a high damage rate of sickly, under-developed, incompetent citizen.

INDIAN RED CROSS SOCIETY.

When the war first broke out, what is generally termed Red Cross work was undertaken in India and Mesopotamia by the St. John Ambulance Association and by a number of provincial organisations working on independent lines. From August 1916, the central work was taken over by the Indian Branch of the Joint War Committee of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and the British Red Cross Society. The final

report of that Committee shows that up to June 1920 its total receipts amounted to Rs. 1,77,85,716 of which some 17 lakhs had been contributed by the British Red Cross Society. It had spent about 67 lakhs in Mesopotamia, nine lakhs on the Afghan War and Waziristan Expedition; in Mesopotamia and India combined it had spent on Red Cross objects in all about 117 lakhs.

It closed its career in June 1920 under the following circumstances. In the summer of 1919, an invitation had been received to join the International League of Red Cross Societies, having for its object the extension of Red Cross work in the sphere of purely civil activity. Though there was then no formally constituted Red Cross Society in India, the invitation was accepted, thus giving India a distinct position in a world wide League of humanitarian societies. A Bill to constitute an Indian Red Cross Society was introduced by Sir Claude Hill in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920, and duly passed into law as Act XV of 1920. This Act handed over the balance of the Joint War Committee to the new Society, and authorised it not only to direct the utilization for war purposes of the capital funds at its disposal but also to devote the interest, as far as possible, for civil purposes. As contemplated in the Act of Constitution of the Society, its activities are completely de-centralized, and are being carried on through twenty-two Provincial and State Branches under which there are numerous sub-branches.

The objects on which the funds of the Society may be spent are—

1. The care of the sick and wounded men of His Majesty's Forces, whether still on the active list or demobilised.
2. The care of those suffering from Tuberculosis, having regard in the first place to soldiers and sailors, whether they have contracted the disease on active service or not.
3. Child welfare.
4. Work parties to provide the necessary garments, etc., for hospitals and health institutions in need of them.
5. Assistance required in all branches of nursing, health and welfare work, ancillary to any organisations which have or may come into being in India and which are recognised by the Society.

ST. JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION, (Indian Council.)

The St. John Ambulance Association was founded in 1877, by the Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem in England, and has for its objects:—

- (a) The instruction of persons in rendering First Aid in cases of accident or sudden illness and in the transport of the sick and injured;
- (b) The instruction of persons in the elementary principles and practice of nursing, and also of hygiene and sanitation, especially of a sick room;
- (c) The manufacture and distribution by sale or presentation, of ambulance material, and the formation of ambulance depots in mines, factories, and other centres of industry and traffic;
- (d) The Organisation of Ambulance Corps, Invalid Transport Corps, and Nursing Corps;
- (e) And generally the promotion of instruction and carrying out of works for the relief of suffering of the sick and injured in peace and war independently of class, nationality, or denomination.

An Indian Council of the Association was constituted in 1910. It has since issued 1,20,488 certificates of proficiency in First Aid, Home Nursing, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and 5944 tokens such as Vouchers, Medallions

6. Home Service Ambulance Work.

7. Provision of comforts and assistance to members of His Majesty's Forces, whether on the active list or demobilised.

The Society has five grades of subscribing Members, namely, Honorary Vice-Presidents, Patrons, Vice-Patrons, Members and Associate Members. Their respective subscriptions are Rs. 10,000, Rs. 5,000, Rs. 1,000, Rs. 12 annually or a consolidated payment of Rs. 150 and anything between Re. 1 and Rs. 5 annually or consolidated payment of Rs. 50.

Constitution.—His Excellency the Viceroy is President of the Society. The Managing Body ordinarily consists of a Chairman to be nominated by the President and 25 members of the Society of whom 12 are the Vice-Presidents nominated by Provincial or State Branches, 3 elected by the Society at the Annual General Meeting from among the members of the Society and 5 nominated by the President.

The present Chairman of the Managing Body is the Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncrieff Smith, Kt. C.I.E., I.C.S., and the Organising Secretary Colonel Bhola Nauth, C.I.E., I.M.S. (Retd.)

Finances.—The operations of the Joint War Committee were brought to a close in June 1926 with a capital investment of the face value of Rs. 56,88,000 and Rs. 8,01,500-8-6 in floating and fixed deposit accounts. The Society has since invested further funds in various securities and its finances in the end of December 1926 stood at a capital investment of the face value of Rs. 67,53,000-0-0. The income derived from the capital of the Society, (which is 3½ lakhs at present) after providing for certain liabilities of the Central Society, is distributable under the Act to the Provincial Branches in proportion to their contributions to the Central "Our Day" Fund. A sum of Rs. 2,70,000-0-0 was so distributed to the Provincial Branches under this arrangement during the year 1926.

Labels and Pendants for special proficiency in those subjects. The object of the Association is not to rival, but to aid, the medical man, and the subject matter of instruction given at the classes qualifies the pupil to adopt such measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, or during the intervals between his visits.

In 1926 the Indian Council spent Rs. 47,235-5-7 in furthering its objects and closed the year with Govt. securities of the face value of Rs. 70,000. The Association has five grades of members, namely, Patrons, Honorary Councilors, Life Members, Annual Members and Annual Associates. Their respective subscriptions are Rs. 1,000, Rs. 500, Rs. 100, Rs. 5, and Rs. 2.

Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Irwin and Field-Marshal Sir William Birdwood as President, Lady President and Chairman respectively, with 17 members form the Indian Council. The general business of the Indian Council is conducted by an Executive Committee of which the Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncrieff Smith, Kt., C.I.E., I.C.S., is the Chairman, and Colonel Bhola Nauth, C.I.E. is the General Secretary.

Lunacy and Asylums in India

LUNACY AND ASYLUMS IN INDIA

on for mentally afflicted India is, like that for those of inadequate. In the condition of affairs as regards institutions for the care and sane is still worse as no at all so that those whose render their freedom a or the most part confined

Census Reports of 1921
of 318,942,480 (India)

and Burma), there are 72,907 persons making a proportion of insane to sane every 10,000.

In the United Kingdom the proportion of insane to sane is roughly 40 per 10,000. In New Zealand it is as much as 45 per 10,000. In reviewing these figures it must be borne in mind that those of the United Kingdom and New Zealand include the "feeble-minded" which is not included in the figures for British India.

INDIA.

	General population.			Insane population.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.
British	139,243,123	131,707,310	270,950,433	44,673	29,234
	24,752,431	23,230,616	47,992,047	8,478	5,020
	163,995,554	154,937,926	318,942,480	53,151	34,254

the 88,305 insanes of India exists accommodation in 1912, hence only one the total insane population afforded accommodation exist especially for their

gives the number of each province during 1921,

the total population of such institutions in each province and the number discharged and died.

The number of asylums has not changed.

There has been a decrease in the admissions and re-admissions during the year accounted for by the decrease in the number of military insanes.

No of Mental Hospitals	Admitted and readmitted during the year	Total Population of Mental Hospitals.			Discharged cured.	Died.	Daily average	
		Males.	Fe- males.	Total.			Strength.	Deaths.
4	224	999	173	1,172	85	55	977.03	80.61
1	70	410	97	507	35	22	436.97	32.78
1	70	300	54	354	32	5	291.61	4.90
3	296	1,201	309	1,601	172	142	1,287.16	204.52
1	322	929	264	1,193	144	99	875.27	52.17
1	99	346	93	439	36	17	361.94	11.75
6	535	1,529	473	2,002	235	150	1,459.00	66.80
3	1,337	983	312	1,295	143	107	941.58	128.47
2	204	984	188	1,150	76	103	944.76	117.98
22	2,136	7,730	1,850	9,640	972	623	7,607.21	780.90
22	2,157	7,771	1,941	9,712	1,017	676	7,695.24	788.68

The administration of Asylums is under the direct control of the Provincial Administrators and Officers. In the case of the so-called "Central" Asylums, that is to say, the Asylums at Madras, North Yeravda (Bombay Presidency), Lahore (Punjab), Agra (United Provinces of Agra and Oudh), Berhampore (Bengal), and Rangoon (Burma) as well as the Asylum at Ranchi the charge of the institution is in the hands of a whole-time medical officer who is termed the "Superintendent". He is usually, but by no means always, a trained alienist. The remaining Asylums are in the charge of the Civil Surgeon of the locality in which they happen to be situated. Not one of the existing Asylums in British India can be said to be up-to-date as regards construction, organisation, staffing or equipment. In every instance, even including the new Asylum for Burma which is now under construction in Rangoon, the custodial aspect of the institution has received the greatest amount of consideration with the result that only a very little attention has been paid to all that goes towards the remedial requirements of the institution. It will probably take some years yet to obtain in India proper recognition of the fact that an Asylum for persons suffering from mental diseases should be a place where the primary aim or the term, *raison d'être* is to treat and to cure every other consideration must be secondary to this fundamental concern in almost every country in the world makes any pretension to be regarded as the term "Asylum" has no value for all institutions dedicated to the care and treatment of the insane. To the lack of interest in Psychiatry that this term generally connotes and America, the nomenclature followed in the classification of mental disorders all official returns that deal with the types of insanity in the various Asylums in India are worthless. Even were a less objectionable classification of the varieties of mental disease introduced it would not be possible in the absence of properly trained personnel to render information that would be of any statistical value from a psychiatric point of view.

The following table shows the classification of the types of insanity recorded in the various Asylums in India for the year 1924-25.

The principal types of insanity treated during the year 1924-25 in the Lunatic Asylums of—

	Bengal.	Assam.	Bihar & Orissa.	United Provinces.	Bombay.	Madras.	Punjab.
dementia	24	6	13	128	100	61	125
mania	304	217	144	483	650	341	195
melancholia	139	183	29	165	361	180	79
epileptic insanity	33	21	27	100	93	49	77
Other forms of insanity	232	74	126	557	281	487	231
dementia	333	2	70	167	437	278	426

It will be seen from the foregoing that the great number of cases in the Asylums are known as "Mania" and "Melancholia." These terms "Mania" and "Melancholia" are nowadays regarded as obsolete. For purposes of comparison of the terms that are nowadays employed to distinguish psychopathic states with those that are still permitted to hold good in India the following extract has been made from a recent report published by the Union of South Africa:—

Infection Psychoses.
Exhaustion Psychoses.
Intoxication Psychoses.
Thyrogenous Psychoses.

Dementia Præcox.
Dementia Paralytica.
Organic Dementias.
Involution Psychoses.
Manic-depressive Psychoses.
Paranoia.
Epileptic Psychoses.
Psychogenic Neurosis.
Constitutional Psychopathic States.
Psychopathic Personalities.
Defective Mental Development.

Lunacy and Asylums in India.

543

As regards the incidence of insanity among the various races of India as well as the incidence of insanity in relation to occupation no really reliable information is obtainable in view of the comparative paucity of cases in proportion to the general population that come under observation. On the other the incidence by age is shown fairly well in the Census Report of 1911 to be as follows:

INDIA

AGE.	Insane.		Distribution of the insane by age per 10,000 of each sex.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
YEARS				
0-5	651	434		
5-10	2,905	1,852	102	139
10-15	4,098	2,700	347	385
15-20	4,386	3,076	833	878
20-25	5,519	3,379	940	1,028
25-30	6,861	3,382	1,118	1,095
30-35	7,281	3,818	1,370	1,013
35-40	3,901	2,940	1,310	1,126
40-45	1,316	3,486	976	790
45-50	3,332	3,157	660	806
50-55	3,132	2,492	574	571
55-60	1,465	1,006	368	705
60-65	1,683	1,471	239	297
65-70	602	439		
70 and over	1,070	1,006	587	795
unspecified	270	133		
Total for all India	54,151	34,154

A further result of the general apathy, both official and non-official, towards matters pertaining to psychiatry, the subject of "feeble-mindedness" has not yet come to be recognised as one that has any practical bearing on the welfare of the state as a whole with the result that there is no official institution for the care and education of feeble-minded children.

As regards the relation of insanity to crime, and more especially as regards the confinement of criminal insanes in jails, the report of the re-

cent Commission of Enquiry into the subject of Indian Jails (published in 1920) contains some valuable suggestions. As things are the ideas both as regards the theory and the practice of dealing with insanity and crime in India, embodied in the existing legislation can only be described as archaic.

(See also "Insanity in India" by Colonel G. A. W. Swens, I.M.S. and "Lunacy in India" by Major A. W. Overbeck-Wright, M.D., D.P.S., I.M.S.)

The Women's Medical Service for India

This Service is intended to help the native women of India, generally known as the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and is administered by the Executive Committee and Council of that Fund. The Government of India has so far allotted the sum of £5,000 per annum towards its maintenance. The present sanctioned cadre is forty-four first class medical women, with a training reserve of 8 women graduates in medicine of Indian Universities. Recruitment of the service is made (a) in India by a medical sub-committee of the Council which includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Honorary Secretary to the Council and the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service; (b) in England, by a sub-committee, including a medical man and two medical women conversant with conditions in India. These sub-committees perform the duties of a medical board examining candidates for physical fitness, and for return to duty after invaliding.

The Council determines what proportions of the members of the Service is to be recruited in England and in India respectively. In the original constitution of the Service, duly qualified medical women who are in the service of, or who have rendered approved service to, the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, are to have the first claim to appointment, and thereafter special consideration is to be paid to the claims of candidates who have qualified in local institutions and of those who are natives of India.

Qualifications.—The qualifications are that the candidate must be (a) a British subject resident in the United Kingdom or in a British Colony or in British India, or a person resident in any territory of any Native Prince or Chief under the suzerainty of His Majesty exercised through the Governor-General of India or through any Governor or other officer subordinate to the Governor-General of India. (b) Must be between the ages of twenty-four and thirty at entry. (c) She must be a first-class medical woman, i.e., she must possess a medical qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under the Medical Act, or an Indian or Colonial qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under that Act; but this condition does not apply at the original constitution of the Service to medical women in charge of hospitals who, in the opinion of the Council, are of proved experience and ability. (d) The candidate must produce a certificate of health and character. But the Council reserves the power to promote to the service ladies not possessing the above qualifications, but who have shown marked capacity. Members of the Service are required to engage for duty anywhere in India. After one year of probation has been satisfactorily passed their appointments are confirmed. The services of officers may be lent to Local or Municipal bodies, or to special institutions, which may be responsible for whole or part of the pay.

Pay.—The rates of pay are as follows:—
1st to 3rd year Rs. 450 per month.
4th to 8th " " 500 "

7th to 10th year	Rs.	50 pence	month
10th to 14th	600	"	"
14th to 18th	650	"	"
18th to 21st	700	"	"
21st to 24th	750	"	"
24th to 28th	800	"	"
28th and after	850	"	"

also an overseas allowance of Rs. 100 per month to those below 12 years' service and Rs. 150 per month to those of 12 years' service and over. But no member can be confirmed in the 500-rupee grade unless she has passed an examination in such vernacular as the Provincial Committee shall prescribe. In addition furnished quarters are provided free of rent or a house rent allowance to be determined by the Provincial Committee may be granted in lieu of it.

Officers of the Service are permitted to engage in private practice provided it does not interfere with their official duties, and the Provincial Committee has the power to determine whether such duties are thus interfered with. Except in very special cases retirement is compulsory at the age of fifty-five. An officer whose appointment is not confirmed or who is dismissed, is granted an allowance sufficient to pay her passage to England.

Leave Rules.—(a) Casual Leave, which is occasional leave on full pay for a few days and is not supposed to interrupt duty. (b) Leave on average pay is granted up to 2-11 of an officer's period on duty, according to Fundamental Rules. More than eight months' leave on average pay is not granted at one time. (c) Study leave may also be granted up to twelve months during the whole service. An allowance of 12 sh. per day is granted in addition to the average pay during study leave. (d) Extraordinary leave at any time at the discretion of the Executive Committee. (e) Leave not due may be granted subject to the following conditions:—(i) on medical certificate, without limit of amount; and (ii) otherwise than on medical certificate, for not more than three months at any one time and six months in all reckoned in terms of leave on average pay. (f) The maximum period of continuous absence from duty on leave granted otherwise than on medical certificate is 18 months. (g) When an officer returns from leave which was not due and which was debited against her leave account, no leave will become due to her until the expiration of a fresh period spent on duty, sufficient to earn a credit or leave equal to the period of leave which she took before it was due. There are no allowances during extraordinary leave. A doctor appointed in England receives a sum of £100 to cover her passage and incidental expenses. There are also allowances to cover the cost of journeys by rail and road.

There is also a Provident Fund, each member contributing monthly thereto ten per cent of her salary, the Association contributing an equal amount, and each subscriber's account being granted interest on the amount standing to credit at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, "or at such rate as the Council can invest without risk to the funds of the Association."

The life of a subscriber is terminated on resignation (except on account of ill-health) before completing five years' service, or in the event of dismissal. On retirement after approved service the sum which has accumulated to the credit of the subscriber is handed over to her.

FREE PASSAGES.—Officers of the Women's Medical Service are granted free return passages corresponding to those granted under the Life Concessions to officers of all-India services. The maximum number of return passages granted during an officer's entire term of service must not exceed four, the first falling due after 4 years service.

Lady Hardinge Medical College and Hospital.—The Lady Hardinge Medical College was opened by Lord Hardinge on the 17th February 1916. It is a residential Medical College staffed entirely by women, and was founded to commemorate the visit to Delhi, in 1911, of the Queen Empress. Lady Hardinge took the initiative in raising funds by public subscription to meet the cost of buildings and equipment. Thirty lakhs of rupees, in all, have been given for these purposes, mostly by the Ruling Princes and Chiefs of India. After Lady Hardinge's death in 1914, it was suggested by Her Imperial Majesty Queen Mary that the institution should serve as a memorial to its founder, and be called by her name.

The Governing Body includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Chief Engineer, Delhi Province, the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service, a representative elected by the All-India Association of Medical Women and the Surgeon to H. E. the Viceroy. The Honorary Secretary, who is also a member of the Governing Body, is the Deputy Secretary in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Deputy Accountant-General, Central Revenues, acts as Honorary Treasurer.

The College and Hospital, together with separate hostels for 100 Medical students and 70 nurses and residences for the medical and teaching staff, occupy a site of 55 acres in New Delhi (Raisina) within easy reach of the old city. The grounds are enclosed and adequate provision is made for the seclusion of both students and patients from outside observation. Strict observance of purdah cannot, however, be guaranteed in the case of students. As the

hospital is a residential one, women students, for example, necessary that students should, in their final year, attend a brief course of instruction on men patients at the Civil Hospital, Delhi. The College buildings contain a Library, Museum, Lecture Rooms, Laboratories and offices. Hostels are provided for Hindu, Moslem, Sikh and Christian students. The hospital is a modern building with accommodation for 200 in-patients and a commodious out-patients department. The College and Hospital are supported by a grant of Rs. 5,11,000 from the Government of India, supplemented by grants from Provincial Governments and Indian States. Students are prepared for the Intermediate Science Examination, and the M.B., B.S. degree of the Punjab University, with which the College is affiliated.

SENIOR STAFF.

- Principal and Professor of Midwifery and Gynaecology*—Miss G. J. Campbell, M.D., Ch.B. (Glas.), Women's Medical Service.
Vice-Principal and Professor of Surgery—Mrs E. Hill, M.B., B.S. (Lond.), W.M.S.
Professor of Medicine—Miss N. D. Trouton, M.B. B.S. (Lond.), M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., D.T.M. Calcutta.
Professor of Ophthalmology—Miss R. Roulston, M.B., Ch. B. (Glas.), D.O. (Oxon.), W.M.S.
Professor of Pathology—Miss L. S. Chatterji, M.B., Ch. B. (Aberdeen), D.P.H., Cambridge.
Professor of Anatomy—Miss K. J. McDermott, M.B., B.S. (Punjab), W.M.S.
Professor of Physiology—Mrs. Munday, M.B., Ch. B. (Liverpool), W.M.S.
Lecturer in Physics and Mathematics, and Superintendent of the Science Department—Miss J. H. Ross, M.A., B.Sc. (Glas.)
Lecturer in Chemistry—Miss Sohadia Ram, M.A. (Cantab.)
Lecturer in Biology—Mrs. C. C. Burt, B.Sc. (Edin.)
Lecturer in English—Mrs. Coatman, M.A., Manchester.
Bursar and Warden—Miss M. W. Jesson, M.A. (Cantab.)

Attached to the Hospital there are: (1) a Training School for Nurses, and (2) a Training School for Dispensers. All particulars as to admission and training may be obtained in the case of (1) from the Nursing Superintendents, Lady Hardinge Medical College Hospital, Delhi, and in the case of (2) from the Lecturer on Pharmacy, at the same address.

THE COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN'S FUND.

The National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the women of India was founded by the Countess of Dufferin in 1886, the object being to open women's hospitals and women's wards in existing hospitals; to train women doctors, nurses and midwives in India; and to bring these out when necessary from Europe. An endowment fund of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription. In addition Branches were formed in each Province, each Branch having its own funds and each having a number of Local Committees and Zenana Hospitals affiliated to it.

The Central Fund gives grants-in-aid to several Provincial Branches, and gives scholarships to a

number of women students at the Medical schools of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi, it gives post-graduate scholarships for study in the United Kingdom. It has in the past brought from England a certain number of European medical women. It has assisted by grants in aid the building of a number of zenana hospitals in different parts of India. It has affiliated to it 13 Provincial Branches and a number of Local Committees.

The Government of India subsidize the Countess of Dufferin's Fund to the extent of Rs. 3,70,000 per annum to maintain a Women's Medical Service for India—this service consists of 44 officers, with a training reserve of 8 doctors

and a Junior service of 17 assistant surgeons. Medical women either British or Indian holding respectable British qualifications are eligible for the senior service.

The President is H. E. Lady Irwin, O.E. The Hon. Secretary is the Surgeon to H.E. the Viceroy, and the Secretary Dr. A. C. Scott, C.M.O., W.M.S.

The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund was organised by Lady Curzon in 1903, in order to

secure a certain amount of improvement in the practising class of India. A sum of about 6½ lakhs was obtained by public subscription, and centres were organised in each Province to carry out the objects of the Fund. Over 2,000 midwives have been trained in addition to large numbers who have been partially trained. Of late years the Fund has done much to pave the way for the registration and supervision of indigenous dais. It has also done much propaganda work.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR SUPPLYING MEDICAL AID BY WOMEN TO THE WOMEN OF INDIA.

Amalgamation of Administration.—At a general meeting held in Simla in July 1923 it was decided that the administration of the Funds for the physical welfare of Indian women under the Presidency of the Viceroy's wife should be administered by a single committee and with identical rules. These funds are the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, Women's Medical Service for India, Victoria Memorial Scholarship

Fund, Lady Chelmsford All-India Maternity League and Lady Reading Women of India Fund. The President of the Amalgamated Committee is H. E. the Lady Irwin and the Hon. and Joint Secretaries are respectively Lt.-Col. Norman Walker, I.M.S., Surgeon to the Viceroy and Dr. A. C. Scott, W.M.S. The Hon. Treasurer is Sir Frederic Gauntlett.

NURSING.

Whilst India cannot show the complete chain of efficiently-nursed hospitals which exists in England, there has been a great development of skilled nursing of recent years. This activity is principally centred in the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Presidencies, where the chief hospitals in the Presidency towns are well nursed, and where large private staffs are maintained, available to the general public on payment of a prescribed scale of fees. These hospitals also act as training institutions, and turn out a yearly supply of fully trained nurses, both to meet their own demands and those of outside institutions and private agencies. In this way the supply of trained nurses, English, Anglo-Indian and Indian, is being steadily increased. In Bombay the organisation has gone a step further, through the establishment of the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, c/o St. George's Hospital, Bombay. This is composed of representatives of the various Nursing Associations in charge of individual hospitals, and works under the Government. The principle on which the relations of this Association with the Local Associations is governed is that there shall be central examination and control combined with complete individual autonomy in administration.

State Registration of Nurses for all India is much required. A meeting was held in Bombay in 1923 when Nurses from the Presidency met to discuss the question. It is desired that India should have its own State Register as in the United Kingdom, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Canada and Burma, and that the curricula and examinations should be brought into line with those of the Government. It is proposed to prepare a Bill for the State Register.

Nursing Bodies.—The Secretary of the Calcutta Hospital Nurses' Institution is Mr. A. R. Nicholson, Allhabad Bank Buildings, Calcutta. The names and addresses of the other Nursing bodies in Calcutta are Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association (Bengal Branch), 4, Hun-

gerford Street, Lady Rogers' Hostel for Indian Nurses, 144, Russa Road, South; Nurses' Academy, 6, Suvarbha Hospital Road; and Nurses Bureau, 37, McLeod Street. In Madras there is the General Hospital, with a staff of 62 nurses, the Government Maternity Hospital, the Caste and Goshia Hospital at Kilpauk, the Royapetta Hospital and the Ophthalmic Hospital, also the Lady Annapithi Nurses' Institute and the South Indian Nursing Association (now amalgamated), (President Her Excellency Lady Gochon. The Association has under its management—The Lady Annapithi Nurses' Institute, Western Castle Mount Road, Madras. Fully trained and experienced nurses for all cases of illness both among Europeans and Indians, always available. The Lady Wellington Nursing Home, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras, and Nigiri Nursing and Convalescent Home. Ootacamund for Medical, Surgical and Maternity cases. The Nigiri Nursing Home affords admirable facilities for convalescents.

Bombay Presidency.—The Bombay Presidency was amongst the first in India to realise the value of nursing in connection with hospital work. The first steps were taken on the initiative of Mr. L. R. W. Forrest at St. George's Hospital, Bombay, where a regular nursing cadet for the hospital was established together with a small staff of nurses for private cases. This was followed by a similar movement at the T. J. and Allied Hospitals and at

other hospitals which they would give to such institutions, agreeing to contribute a sum equal to that raised from private sources. Afterwards, as the work grew, it was decided by Government that each nursing association attached to a hospital should have a definite constitution and consequently these bodies have all been registered as Associations under Act 21 of 1900. By degrees substantial endowments have been built up, although the Associations are still largely dependent upon annual subscriptions

Associations are as follows:—

St. George's Hospital Nursing Association.
Hon. Secretary: E. B. Thornely, Esq.,
Bombay.

Jamsetji Jijibhoy Hospital Nursing Association,
Bombay. Hon. Secretary: Dr. M. V.
Mehra, F.R.C.P.

Goculdas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association.
Secretary: C. A. Thomas, Esq.,
I.C.S., Old Canton House, Bombay.

Cama Hospital Nursing Association, Bom-
bay. Hon. Secretary: H. C. B. Mitwalli,
Esq.

Sassoon Hospital Nursing Association
Poona. Hon. Secretary: A. C. Wild, Esq.,
I.C.S.

Karachi Civil Hospital Nursing Association,
Karachi. Hon. Secretary: R. H.
Hood, Esq.

Nasik Civil Hospital Nursing Association.
Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Nasik.

Ahmedabad and Lely Memorial Nursing
Association, Ahmedabad. Hon. Secretary:
Civil Surgeon, Ahmedabad.

Bijapur Civil Hospital Nursing Association.
Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Bijapur.

Dharwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association.
Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon,
Dharwar.

Prince of Wales Nursing Association, Aden.
Hon. Secretary: E. Somerville Murray
Esq., Aden.

Kanara Nursing Association Karwar. Hon.
Secretary: D. S. Dhaval, Esq., Karwar.

Victory Nursing Association, Sholapur.
Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Sholapur.

Byramjee Jeejibhoy Hospital Nursing
Association, Mathuran. Hon. Secretary:
Lt.-Col B. B. Paymaster, I.M.S.

Ahmednagar Civil Hospital Nursing Associ-
ation, Ahmednagar. Hon. Secretary:
Civil Surgeon.

Panch Mahals Nursing Association.
Godhra. Honorary Secretary: Civil Surgeon.

After further experience it was felt that it is undesirable to have a considerable number of detached and independent nursing associations, training and certifying nurses, without any common standard of entrance examination, or certification. It was therefore decided to establish the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association which came into existence in the year 1910.

The principle on which the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association works is a central system of examination, certification, registration and control. It is now the only nursing, examining, registering and certifying body in the Bombay Presidency. At the same time, the local associations retain entire charge of their local funds excepting Provident funds which have been transferred to the Central fund, and also entire control of the nurses when they are in their

ment for absorbing the personnel of the local associations into a Presidency Nursing Association. This will not however affect the individuality of local associations which will continue to control their own funds and to exercise control over local establishments, subject in the latter case to such limitations as a revision of the nature in question will require.

The Association commenced its operations on the 1st April 1911. The institutions recognized under the by-laws for the training of nurses at present are—St. George's Hospital, J. J. Hospital, Cama and Alibhai Hospital, Bai Motilal Hospital, Bombay; Huttessing and Premabai Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad; Civil Hospital, Belgaum; Morarbhai Vrijbhukhandas Hospital, Surat; Karachi Civil Hospital, Karachi; Sassoon Hospital, Poona; State General Hospital, Baroda; King Edward Memorial Hospital, Sholapur; V. J. Hospital, Ahmedabad; Civil Hospital, Nasik; Dufferin Hospital, Kara bi, King Edward Memorial Hospital, Pare, Bombay; Zenana Mission Hospital, Bombay and the following for the training of Midwives: M. V. Hospital, Civil Hospital, Surat; Victoria Jubilee and King Edward VII Hospital, Ahmedabad; Bai Motilal Hospital, J. J. Hospital, Cama and Alibhai Hospital, Bombay; Dufferin Hospital, Karachi; Sassoon Hospital, St. Margaret's Hospital, King Edward Memorial Hospital, Poona; Civil Hospital, Belgaum; Dufferin Hospital, Sholapur; Wadia Maternity Homes, Supari Bag, Pare, Bombay; Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad; Civil Hospital, Nasik; King Edward Memorial Hospital, Sholapur; Achari Girdharlal Maternity Home, Ahmedabad; Zenana Mission Hospital, Baroda.

Provision for retiring allowances is made for all members on the basis of a Provident Fund and a Nursing Reserve has been established for employment in emergencies such as war, pestilence or public danger or calamity.

Address:—The Secretary, Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, Secretariat, Bombay.

Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association.—In 1906 this Association was inaugurated replacing the Punjab and Up-country Nursing Association for Europeans in India, which Society, established in 1892, had accomplished much useful work in this country. Owing, however, to lack of funds it was found impossible to continue its administration and to carry out the expansion of the work so urgently called for. The name of the helpers identified with the premier Association to whom the public must ever be indebted are the Hon. Lady Lyttleton, Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and Mrs. Cottrell, while Mrs. Sheppherd by her indefatigable efforts, is truly entitled to be regarded as the pioneer of a trained nursing system throughout the greater part of India. The late Lady Curzon worked energetically to provide an enlarged Nursing organization, but mainly owing to financial reasons she was unable before she left India to bring the scheme to fruition. The Home Committee of the existing Association, recognising the need for expansion, consented to take over the present Association and approached Lady Minto before she left England in 1905 for co-

operation towards this project, and after much consideration and discussion with the Government of India, Lieut.-Governors and Commissioners of Provinces, the present Association was established. An appeal by Lady Minto, addressed to the public both in England and India, was responded to most generously, and sufficient funds were collected to form an endowment fund, which has in spite of fluctuations increased a little with time. The assistance of a Government grant is much valued, as it enables Homes for the Sisters to be kept up in six Provinces in India and in Burma. At the request of the Home Committee the enlarged Association was renamed the "Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association."

The duties of the Home Committee are, as before, largely concerned in dispatching—as required—suitably trained and carefully selected Nurses for service on the staff of the Association in India. Thus, Europeans who are members of this Association are enabled to obtain skilled nursing at moderate charges on a sliding scale of fees determined by the income of each patient. The boon of obtaining good nursing at moderate terms is much appreciated, the rates of subscriptions being really an insurance against illness.

Her Majesty the Queen is a Patron of the Association. Her Excellency The Lady Irwin is President of the Central Committee in India.

Hon. Secretary: Lt.-Colonel Hay Thorburn, I.M.S.

Hon. Treasurer: W. J. Litsler, Esq., O.F.E., C.I.E.

Chief Lady Superintendent: Miss G. B. Kett. Address—Central Committee, L.M.I. No. 4, Viceregal Lodge, Simla, or Delhi.

Hon. Secretary, Home Committee: Lt. Col. Sir Warren R. Crooke-Lawless, O.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., LL.D., House Governor, Osborne, Isle of Wight.

Secretary, Home Committee: Miss M. E. Ray R.R.O., 54, Ashburnham Mansions, Chelsea

Nurses' Organizations.—The Association of Nursing Superintendents of India is now amalgamated with the Trained Nurses' Association of India, and has the one set of officers. The Trained Nurses' Association of India and the Association of Nursing Superintendents of India are not Associations to employ or to supply nurses, but are organizations with a membership wholly of nurses with the avowed objects of improving and unifying nursing education, promoting *esprit de corps* among nurses, and upholding the dignity and honour of the nursing profession. The Associations have a membership of 472 including nurses trained in ten or more different countries, Europeans, Americans, New Zealanders, Australians and Indians. The Association of Superintendents was started in 1905 as the Association of Nursing Superintendents of the United Provinces and the Punjab but by the next year its membership had spread over the country to such an extent that the name was changed to include the whole of India. The Trained Nurses' Association was started in 1903, and a monthly Journal of Nursing began to be published by the two Associations in February, 1910. The Associations are affiliated with the International Council of Nurses.

President: Mrs. G. D. Franklin, 83, Rajpur Road, Delhi.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer: Miss Gadsden General Hospital, Madras.

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT.

Within the abnormally short period of nine years the Woman Suffrage movement has risen in India, swept through the country sympathetically and achieved the political enfranchisement of women in six of its most progressive Provinces and in four Indian States.

Three fundamental causes have led to this remarkable success: first, the deep veneration that is given by the Hindu and Muhammadan religions to the feminine aspect of life equally with the masculine as shown by the importance of goddesses, by the necessity for the presence of the wife at all ceremonies performed by a Brahman, by the idea of the sacred mystery of womanhood implied by the purdah, and by the general veneration of motherhood. Secondly, the time was psychological, for a new era was beginning for the Indian people by the introduction of a Scheme of Reforms in Indian government which was planned to give a basis of representative government on a much extended scale. The door was being opened to complete Self-government but only men were

being invited to enter through it, although women compose half the people of the country and it had been by the joint efforts of men and women that the agitation for reform in the government had been made. The men and women of India were too awakened and too just to allow this injustice to remain unredressed. Thirdly, the long and strenuous agitation for the vote by women in Britain and America and their recent victories had brought vividly to the consciousness of all educated Indian men and women the whole question of the inclusion of women in public life, and it was also a national and international necessity that Indian women should be given as high a status as women in other parts of the Empire.

Though the Municipal franchise had been granted to the women of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies over fifteen years ago it was so limited in numbers that it did not make a large impact on women's consciousness and indeed no protest was made when it was suddenly withdrawn from Madras women some years later. Over 1,700 women are qualified

'Our interests, as one half of the people, are directly affected by the demand in the united 'Hindu-Muslim Reform' scheme (J. 3) that 'the Members of the Council should be elected directly by the people on as broad a franchise as possible,' and in the Memorandum (3) that 'the franchise should be broadened and extended directly to the people.' We pray that, when such a franchise is being drawn up, women may be recognized as 'people,' and that it may be worded in such terms as will not disqualify our sex, but allow our women the same opportunities of representation as our men. In agreeing with the demand of the abovementioned Memorandum that 'a full measure of Local Self-Government should be immediately granted,' we request that it shall include the representation of our women, a policy that has been admittedly successful for the past twenty years in Local Self Government elsewhere in the British Empire. The precedent for including women in modern Indian political life has been a marked feature of the Indian National Congress, in which since its inception women have voted and been delegates and speakers, and which this year finds its climax in the election of a woman as its President. Thus the voice of India approves of its women being considered responsible and acknowledged citizens; and we urgently claim that, in the drawing up of all provisions regarding representation, our sex shall not be made a disqualification for the exercise of the franchise or for service in public life.

Travancore, a very progressive Indian State was the first to grant the Legislative vote to women at the close of 1920, and it was promptly followed by the Indian State of Jhalawar. In the first session of the Legislative Councils in 1921 it is gratifying to record that a motion was tabled by Dewan Bahadur Krishnan Nair of Malabar that he would bring forward a Resolution **Madras** **the** **mor** **the** **tabling** **introduction** **under** **Association** **propaganda** **of** **the** **Council** **the** **Debate** **took** **place** **on** **April** **1st** **and** **after** **a** **short** **discussion,** **in** **which** **it** **was** **evident** **that** **opposition** **came** **only** **from** **the** **Muhammadian** **members,** **the** **debate** **itself** **became** **only** **an** **accumulation** **of** **appreciation** **of** **womanhood** **and** **an** **expression** **of** **faith** **in** **its** **future.** **When** **the** **division** **was** **taken,** **it** **resulted** **in** **the** **resolution** **being** **carried** **by** **a** **majority** **of** **34.** **Madras** **has** **thus** **the** **honour** **of** **being** **the** **first** **Province** **in** **British** **India** **to** **enfranchise** **its** **and** **it** **has** **done** **ungrudgingly** **and**

unhesitatingly in the broad spirit of the equality of the sexes, as it grants the vote to women on the same terms as it has been granted to men.

Mr. Trivedi brought forward a Woman Suffrage Resolution in the Bombay Legislative Council during the same session, but some irregularity in its wording caused it to be pronounced out of order. In June that subject was tabled again and championed by Rao Saheb Har Lal Desai, Desai of Ahmedabad, Deputy President of the Council. As in Madras, the intervening month was filled with suffrage activity by the women of the Presidency and was remarkable for a large joint meeting of Bombay city women at which 19 Women's Societies took part, and for a suffrage meeting of Marathi and Gujarati women in Poona when over 800 women showed the greatest enthusiasm for the movement.

The Bombay Council Debate on Woman Suffrage took three days and the subject was very fully discussed by over 40 members. The result was satisfactory to the suffragists, the voting being 52 in favour, 25 against and 12 neutral. Thus Madras and Bombay Presidencies gave the lead to the other Provinces. In September, 1922, Mr. S. M. Bose, in the Bengal Council, moved a Woman Suffrage Resolution, which was debated for three days but finally defeated by 56 to 37 votes, a bloc of 40 Muhammadan members voting solidly against it. In September 1923 the Bengal Council passed the Suffrage Resolution by a vote of 54 to 38.

Mr. Devaki Prasad Sinha's similar Resolution in the Behar and Orissa Legislative Council was defeated by only a 10 votes' majority.

These Debates proved so educational to their respective Provinces that the Bengal and Behar Provinces have since granted qualified women the Municipal vote.

In February, 1923, a world suffrage record was made by the unanimous vote of the United Provinces Legislative Council in favour of Woman Suffrage.

In 1926 the Punjab granted woman suffrage without a division, thus there now remain in India only the Central Provinces and Behar where women are still unfranchised.

The new Reform Bill for Burma has included the grant of woman suffrage to the qualified Burmese women, and further made provision for their election as Councillors if the Council passes a Resolution desiring their admission and if that Resolution is approved of by the Governor.

In April, 1922, the Mysore Legislative Council unanimously passed the Woman Suffrage Resolution. The vote for the Representative Assembly of Mysore was granted to women in October, 1922. The vote for Mysore Legislative Franchise was granted to the Mysore women by H. H. The Maharaja and His Privy Council in June 1923. In October, 1924, Assam Provincial Council granted Woman Suffrage.

its Province by 26 to 8. It also has been the first Province to pass a Resolution in favour of allowing women to enter the Council as members.

There is little doubt that it will be only a few years at most before all the provinces of India will have granted woman suffrage, and the right to vote will advance the interests of women immensely along the lines of education, health, housing, morality and social customs.

The Indian Native States of Travancore, Cochin and Rajkot are the only places in India where the sex disqualification has been completely removed from the statute book. They have allowed women the right to stand for election for the Legislative Council as well as the right to vote for it, and two women have been elected to the newly formed Representative Council of Rajkot. The year 1925 has been noteworthy for the appointment of the first woman Minister to Government. Mrs. Poonam Lukhose became a member of the Travancore Legislative Council on taking the position of State Darbar Physician. She is Minister for Health to the State. Cochin State has nominated Mr. Madhavi Amma as a member of its first Legislative Council.

In British India by the terms of the Reform Bill the Councils had no power to alter the disqualification of sex which remains against the right to stand as candidates for election to the Councils. This could only be changed by the vote of the British Parliament; and the gaining of this right remain a as a far her objective of the women suffragists. Many large, influential meetings were held claiming the right of women to entry of the Legislatures. A deputa- tion of women about this subject waited on the Madras Governor and their claims were supported by him and by his Government. The Imperial Legislative Assembly and the Council of State had been accorded the power to grant women the franchise for their assemblies also by resolution, but only for those provinces which had already granted women the Legislative franchise. The Legislative Assembly has passed by a large majority a Resolution granting the Assembly franchise to the women of such Provinces. Accordingly in November 1923, women in India voted for the first time for the elections of both Provincial Legislative Councillors and members of the Legislative Assembly. The number of women who voted in the large cities was surprisingly large in Bombay and Madras Presidencies and comprised women of all castes and communities.

In April, 1926, as a result of a favourable recommendation of the Muddiman Committee on Franchise Reforms, the Rule was changed in the Reform Bill which disqualified women from entering the Legislatures. Power was granted to the Councils and the Assembly to pass Resolutions allowing qualified women to be elected or nominated as members of these bodies. Again Madras Council, on the 17th July, was the first to pass a Resolution admitting women to its membership. Bombay and the Punjab have followed its lead in August and October respectively. This has enabled women to become members of the new Councils which will function

for the next three years. But the franchise came too late for women to stand for election with any great chance of success, so the Women's Indian Association is asking that women be nominated by Government for the new Councils in those Provinces which have voted to admit them, and that women also be nominated to the Assembly and the Council of State. Thus this year marks another milestone placed on the road to the complete political emancipation of Indian womanhood.

In 1928 the Central Provinces, the Punjab and Bengal all granted the franchise to women, so that at the end of 1927 the only unfranchised Province is Bihar and Orissa. The year 1927 was no able for the nomination of the first Woman member to a Legislative Council in British India, the recipient of the honour being Dr. Mathabai Amma and she was further honoured by being elected unanimously by her colleagues in the Madras Legislative Council, to the Office of Deputy-President of the Council.

The number of women enfranchised by the grant of the vote throughout India will not be more than a million under the present qualifications. Property and not literacy is the basis of the franchise, though the grant of the vote to every graduate of seven years' standing ensures that the best educated women of the country as well as those who

have to shoulder the largest property responsibilities will be those who rightly will be the legislating influence on behalf of womanhood. As regards the custom of purdah prevailing in parts of India special provisions have been made in Municipal voting for purdah recording stations for purdah women in which a woman is returning officer and this has been found quite satisfactory and will be adopted also where desired in connection with Legislative Council elections.

Though the Women's Indian Association is the only defined Suffrage Society almost all other women's organisations have combined in special efforts for the gaining of municipal and legislative rights and the following ladies have identified themselves specially with the movement: Lady D. Tata, Lady A. Bose, Lady T. Sadasivai, the Begum of Cambay, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mrs. Jaiji Jehangir Petit, Mrs. Tata, Mrs. Wadia, Mrs. Jinarajadasa, Mrs. A. Besant, Mrs. M. E. Cousins, Mrs. Srinagarima, Mrs. Chandrasekhara Iyer, Miss S. Sarabji, Mrs. Khedkar, Dr. Mistry, Dr. Muthulakshmi Amma, Mrs. Palmer, Mrs. Sarabadevi Choudhury, Mrs. Kumudini Basu, Mrs. K. N. Roy, Lady Shail, Mrs. Hassan Inam, Miss S. B. D., Mrs. Ramonji Farooqui, Mrs. P. Rama Rao, Mrs. Deep Narain Singh, Mrs. Raschid Han. van Guldenher, etc.

PROVING OF WILLS.

In British India if a person has been appointed executor of the will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the will as early as possible. If the will is in a vernacular it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. The values of immoveable properties are usually assessed at 101 years purchase on the nett Municipal assessment. For estate under Rs. 10,000 the probate duty payable is 2%, between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000 the duty payable is 2½%. Over 50,000 rupees the duty payable is 3%. In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purposes of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted:—

1. Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances

2. The amount of funeral expenses.

3. Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

The particulars of all these items have to be stated in a separate schedule. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue authorities and if the properties particularly immoveable properties have not been properly valued, the Revenue department require the petition to be amended accordingly. In certain cases the Court then requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within 14 days after the publication or service of citation and if the will is shown to have been properly executed and the petitioner entitled to probate, probate is ordered to be granted.

Warrant of Precedence.

A new Warrant of Precedence in India in supersession of the notification published on February 10, 1899, which has been approved by His Majesty the King Emperor of India, was published in 1922. Henceforth the following table will be observed with respect to the rank and precedence of persons named, as under:—

- 1 Governor-General and Viceroy of India.
- 2 Governors of Provinces within their respective charges.
- 3 Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal.
- 4 Commander-in-Chief in India.
- 5 Governors of the United Provinces, Punjab, Bahar and Burma.
- 6 Governors of the Central Provinces and Assam.
- 7 Chief Justice of Bengal.
- 8 Bishop of Calcutta, Metropolitan of India.
- 9 Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.
10. Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Naval Forces in the East Indies.
11. President of the Council of State.
12. President of the Legislative Assembly.
13. Chief Justice of a High Court other than that of Bengal.
14. Bishops of Madras and Bombay.
15. Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan; Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province, Members of Executive Councils and Ministers of Governors and Lieutenant-Governors, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore, and Commissioner in Sind,—within their respective charges.
16. Chief of the General Staff; Chief Commissioner of Railways; General Officer Commanding Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western Commands, and Officers of the rank of General.
17. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers in Madras, Bombay and Bengal.
18. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, United Provinces, Punjab, Burma and Behar.
19. Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan; Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province; Political Resident in the Persian Gulf; and Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore.
20. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, Central Provinces and Assam.
21. Presidents of Legislative Councils within their respective Provinces.
22. Chief Judges of Chief Courts; and Puisne Judges of High Courts.
23. Lieutenant-Generals.
24. Comptroller and Auditor-General; President of the Public Service Commission and President of the Railway Board.
25. Bishops of Lahore, Rangoon, Lucknow and Nagpur.
26. Members of the Railway Board, Railway Financial Commissioner; and Secretaries to the Government of India.
27. Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to the Government of India; Commissioner in Sind; Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Judges of Chief Courts; and Members of the Central Board of Revenue.

28. Chief Commissioner of the Andamans and Chief Commissioner of Delhi,—within their respective charges; Chief Secretaries to the Governments of Madras, Bombay and Bengal; Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States when within the Punjab.

29. Commissioner of Revenue and Customs, Bombay; Consulting Engineer to the Government of India; Development Commissioner, Burma, Director of Development, Bombay; Director-General, Indian Medical Service; Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, Financial Commissioners; Judicial Commissioners of Oudh, Central Provinces, Sind and Upper Burma; Major-Generals; members of the Board of Revenue; Surgeon-Generals.

30. Vice-Chancellors of the Indian Universities.

31. Agents of State Railways; Controller of the Currency; Additional Judicial Commissioners; Agency Commissioner, Madras; Commissioners of Divisions, and Residents of the 2nd Class,—within their respective charges.

32. Members of the Indian Civil Service of 30 years' standing (not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant).

33. Advocate-General, Calcutta.

34. Advocates-General, Madras and Bombay.

35. Chief Secretaries to Governments other than those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam.

36. Bishops (not territorial) under license from the Crown.

37. Accountants-General, Class I; Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, Archdeacons of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay; Census Commissioner for India; Chief Controller of Stores, Indian Stores Department, Colonels Commandant and Colonels on the Staff; Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; Director Intelligence Bureau; Director-General of Archaeology in India; Director of the Geological Survey; Director, Royal Indian Marine, when an officer of the Royal Navy or rank lower than Rear-Admiral or an officer of the Royal Indian Marine; Educational Commissioner with the Government of India; His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner, Calcutta; Inspector General of Forests; Military Accountant-General; Opium Agent, Benares; Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India; and Surveyor General of India.

38. Additional Judicial Commissioners; Agency Commissioner, Madras; Chief Commissioner of the Andamans; Chief Commissioner of Delhi; Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam, Commissioners of Divisions; and Residents of the 2nd Class.

39. Private Secretary to the Viceroy; Secretaries; Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to Local Governments.

40. Accountants-General other than Class I; Chief Auditors, Eastern Bengal Railway and North-Western Railway; Chief Conservators of Forests; Chief Engineers; Chief Engineer, Telegraphs; Colonels; Command Controllers of Military Accounts; Deputy Controller of the Currency at Bombay; Director of the Botanical Survey of India; Directors, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Traffic and Establishment and Railway Board; Director-General of

Commercial Intelligence; Director-General of Observatories; Directors of Public Instruction under Local Governments; Director, Zoological Survey; Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs; His Majesty's Trade Commissioners, Bombay and Calcutta; Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals; Inspectors-General of Police under Local Governments and in the North-West Frontier Province; Inspectors-General of Prisons under Local Governments; Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Indian Political Department of 23 years' Civil service, it not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant; Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; President of the Forest College and Research Institute; Provincial Sanitary Commissioners; Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India; and Traffic Managers and Locomotive Superintendents of State Railways.

41. Military Secretary to the Viceroy.

42. Solicitor to the Government of India; and Standing Counsel to the Government of India.

43. Archdeacons of Lahore, Lucknow, Raigoon and Nagpur; and Presidency Senior Chaplains of the Church of Scotland.

44. Chairmen of Port Trusts and of Improvement Trusts of the Presidency towns, Raigoon and Karachi; Members of the Public Service Commission; Non-official Presidents of Municipal Corporations in Presidency towns and Raigoon within their respective municipal jurisdictions; Settlement Commissioners; Chief Executive Officers of the Municipalities of the Presidency towns and Raigoon within their charges; and Chief Inspector of Mines.

45. Collectors of Customs; Collectors and Assistant Collectors of Districts; Collector or Stamp and Revenue Officer of Land Revenue, District of Ajmer-Merwara; Deputy Commissioners of Districts, and Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair; Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur); Political Agents and Superintendents, and Residents (other than those mentioned in the preceding list) within the limits of the Government of India; and Government Advocates under Local Governments.

46. Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Deputy Secretaries to the Government of India; Director, Central Bureau of Information, Government of India; Director of Inspection, Indian Stores Department; Director of Purchases and Intelligence, Indian Stores Department; Establishment Officer in the Army Department and to the Railway Board.

47. Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Director of the Indian Institute of Science; and Principal of the Thomson Civil Engineering College, Roorli.

48. Assistant to the Inspector-General of Forests; Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, North-West Frontier Province; Commissioners of Police in the Presidency towns and Raigoon; Comptroller, Assam; Conservators of Forests; Controller of Army Factory Accounts; Controller of Marine Accounts; Controller

Royal Air Force Accounts; Deputy Chief Engineer, Telegraphs; Deputy Director General, Indian Medical Service; Deputy Director-General of Post Office; Deputy Director-General, Telegraph Traffic; Deputy Director, Intelligence Bureau; Deputy Military Accountant-General; Director, Medical Research; Director of Wireless; Directors of Telegraph Engineering; District Controllers of Military Accounts; Lieutenant Colonels; Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Political Department of 18 years' Civil Service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant; Mining Engineer to the Railway Board, Postmasters-General, and Superintending Engineers.

49. Assay Master, Bombay; Chief Auditor, Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway; Deputy Controllers of the Currency, Calcutta and Northern India; and Deputy Controller General.

50. Actuary to the Government of India; Chief Inspector of Explosives; Chief Judge of Small Cause Courts, Presidency towns and Raigoon; Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps; Director, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Muktesar; Directors of major Laboratories; Director of Public Instruction, North-West Frontier Province.

51. Private Secretaries to Governors, and Secretaries and First Assistants in 1st Class Residences.

52. Administrators-General; Chief Presidency Magistrates, Deputy Agents, Deputy Traffic Managers and Officers of similar status of State Railways; Deputy Directors, Railway Board; Metallurgical Inspector, Jamshedpur; and Officers in Class I of the General List of the Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department.

53. Commissioner of Labour, Madras; Controller of Patents; Deputy Inspectors-General of Police, Directors of Agriculture; Directors of Fisheries in Bengal and Madras; Directors of Industries, Fisheries and Land Records; Excise and Revenue Officers; and Officers sent to the Governor-General, Rajputana; Inspectors-General of Registration; Principal, Research Institute, Cawnpore, and Registrars of Co-operative Societies.

54. District Judges not being Sessions Judges within their own districts.

55. First Assistant to the Residents at Aden, Baroda and in Kashmir; Judicial Assistant, Kathiawar; and Chairman of Port Trust, Aden.

56. Military Secretaries to Governors.

57. Senior Chaplains other than those already specified.

58. Sheriffs within their own charges.

59. Collectors of Customs; Collectors and Magistrates of Districts; Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta; Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara, Deputy Commissioners of Districts; Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair; Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur); Political Agents and Superintendents; Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class) and Settlement Officers.

ing; Officer in charge of the Mathematical Instrument Office; Presidency Postmasters Superintendent, Bombay City Survey and Land Records; Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of less than 20,000 population; Assistant Commissioners of Police; Assistant Engineers and Inspectors of Factories; Assistant Engineers in charge declared to be equivalent to that of a division; Assistant Engineers in charge of other Scientific Departments; Assistant Engineers in the Civil Veterinary Department; Officers of Class II of the General or Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department; Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service; Officers of the Indian Forest Department; Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department; and Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of similar status of 12 years standing. Examiner of Local Fund Accounts Madras; Assistant Commissioners of Income-Tax; Assistant Inspectors of Factories; Assistant Inspectors of Wireless; Wireless Research Officers; Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Wireless; Officers of the 1st Division Superior Traffic Branch of the Telegraph Department, Forest Engineers of 12 years' standing; Works Managers, Indian Ordnance Factories.

66. Assistant Commissioners (Senior), Northern India Salt Revenue; Assistant Directors of Dairy Farms; Assistant Directors, Railway Board; Assistant Financial Advisor, Military Finance; Assistant Secretaries to the Government of India, Chemical Examiner for Customs and Excise, Calcutta; Chief Chemical Examiner Central Chemical Laboratory, Nafal tal; Chief Inspectors of Factories and Boilers in Bengal and Bombay; Commander of the steamer employed in the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Curator of the Bureau of Education; Deputy Administrator-General, Bengal; Deputy Commissioner Northern India Salt Revenue; Deputy Commissioners of Salt and Excise; Deputy Director of Land Records, Burma; Deputy Sanitary Commissioners; Superintendents of Central Jails and Civil Surgeons not belonging to the Indian Medical Service; Director, Vaccine Institute Belgaum; Emigration Commissioners; Engineer and Electrician of the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Examiner of Questioned Documents; Executive Engineers of less than 12 years' standing; First Assistant Commissioner, Port Blair; Honorary Presidency Magistrates; Judge of the City Civil Court, Madras; Judges of Presidency Courts of Small Causes; Lady Assistants to the Inspector-General, Civil Hospitals; Legal Assistant in the Legislative Department of the Government of India; Officers of the Provincial Civil Services drawing the maximum pay of the time scale of upwards; Presidency Magistrates Protector of Emigrants and Superintendents of Emigration, Calcutta; Protectors of Emigrants Public Prosecutors in Bengal and in Sind Registrars to Chief Courts; Registrar of Companies, Bombay; Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Bengal; Secretary, Board of Examiners; Secretary to the Board of Revenue in the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, Madras, when a member of the Provincial Income Office

Principal _____ Incharge _____ Officer _____

Principal _____ Incharge _____ Officer _____

Principal _____ Incharge _____ Officer _____

b a d n ta Off d
maximum pay of the time-scale; and Sub-
Deputy Opium Agents.

1. The entries in the above table apply exclusively to the persons entered therein, and while regulating their relative precedence with each other, do not give them any precedence over members of the non-official community resident in India who shall take their place according to usage.

2. Officers in the above table will take precedence in order of the numbers of the entries. Those included in one number will take precedence *inter se* according to the date of entry into that number.

3. When an officer holds more than one position in the table he will be entitled to the highest position accorded to him.

4. Officers who are temporarily officiating in any number in the table will rank in that number below permanent incumbents.

5. All officers not mentioned in the above table, whose rank is regulated by comparison with rank in the army, to have the same rank with reference to civil servants as is enjoyed by military officers of equal grades.

6. All other persons who may not be mentioned in this table to take rank according to general usage, which is to be explained and determined by the Governor-General in Council in case any question shall arise. When the position of any such person is so determined and notified, it shall be entered in the table in Article 9, provided he holds an appointment in India.

7. Nothing in the foregoing rules to disturb the existing practice relating to precedence in the Courts of Indian States or on occasions of intercourse with Indians, and the Governor-General in Council to be empowered to make rules for such occasions in case any dispute shall arise.

8. The following will take courtesy rank as shown:—

Consul-General, Immediately after article 37, which includes Colonels Commandant; Consuls, Immediately after article 40, which includes

Article 39, which includes Majors.

Consular officers de carrière will in their respective grades take precedence of consular officers who are not de carrière.

9. The following may be given, by courtesy, precedence as shown below, provided that they do not hold appointments in India:—

Peers according to their precedence in England; Knights of the Garter, the Thistle and St. Patrick; Privy Counsellors; Members of the Council of the Secretary of State for India—Immediately after Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council, article 9.

Baronets of England, Scotland, Ireland and the United Kingdom, according to date of Patent; Knights Grand Cross of the Bath; Knights Grand Commander of the Star of India; Knights Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George; Knights Grand Commander of the Indian Empire; Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order; Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the British Empire. Immediately after the Commissioners in Sind (Article 15); Knights Commander of the Bath; Knights Commander of the Star of India; Knights Commander of St. Michael and St. George; Knights Commander of the Indian Empire; Knights Commander of the Royal Victorian Order; Knights Commander of the Order of the British Empire and Knights Bachelor.—Immediately after the Residents of the Second Class, Article 31.

10. All ladies, unless by virtue of holding an appointment themselves they are entitled to a higher position in the table, to take place according to the rank herein assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of Peers and of ladies having precedence in England independently of their husbands, and who are not in rank below the daughters of Barons such ladies to take place according to their several ranks, with reference to such precedence in England, immediately after the wives of Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

SALUTES.

Persons.

No. of
guns.

Occasions on which salute is fired.

Imperial salute 101

Royal salute 31

When the Sovereign is present in person.

On the anniversaries of the Birth, Accession and Coronation of the reigning Sovereign; the Birthday of the Consort of the reigning Sovereign; the Birthday of the Queen Mother; Proclamation Day.

Members of the Royal Family .. 31

Foreign Sovereigns and members of their families. 21

Maharajahdiraja of Nepal .. 21

Sultan of Maskat .. 21

Sultan of Zanzibar .. 21

Ambassadors .. 19

Governor of the French Settlements in India 17

Governor of Portuguese India .. 17

Governors of His Majesty's Colonies .. 17

Lieutenant-Governors of His Majesty's Colonies. 15

Plenipotentiaries and Envoys .. 15

Governor of Damann .. 8

of Diu 9

On arrival at, or departure from a military station, or when attending a State ceremony.

Persons	No. of Guns.	Occasions on which salute is fired.
Emperor and Governor-General..	81	On arrival at, or departure from, a military station within Indian territories, or when attending a State ceremony.
Governors of Provinces and Provinces in India.	17	On assuming or relinquishing office whether temporarily or permanently. On occasions of a public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions such as arriving at or leaving a Durbar, or when paying a formal visit to a Ruling Chief. Also on occasions of private arrival at, or departure from, a military station, if desired.
Residents, 1st Class	13	Same as Governors.
Agents to the Governor-General ..	13	
Commissioner in Sind	13	
Agent to the Governor in Kathiawar ..	13	
Residents, 2nd Class	13	On assuming or relinquishing office, and on occasion of a public arrival at, or departure from a military station.
Political Agents (b)	11	
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a Field Marshal).	19	On assuming or relinquishing office. On public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired.
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a General)	17	
Naval Commander-in-Chief, East Indies Squadron (c).	..	Same as for military officer of corresponding rank (see K.B.).
G.O.s. in C. Commands (d)	15	On assuming or relinquishing command, and on occasions of public arrival at or departure from, a military station within their command. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired.
Major-Generals Commanding Districts (d).	13	
Major-Generals and Colonel-Commandants Commanding Brigades (d).	11	

Permanent Salutes to Ruling Princes and Chiefs.

<i>Salutes of 21 guns.</i>		Cutch. The Maharaja of.	
Baroda. The Maharaja (Gaekwar) of.		Jaipur. The Maharaja of.	
Orwalior. The Maharaja (Scindia) of.		Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.	
Hyderabad. The Nizam of.		Kanauj. The Maharaja of.	
Jammu and Kashmir. The Maharaja of.		Kotah. The Maharaja of.	
Muscat. The Sultan of.		Patiala. The Maharaja of.	
Mysore. The Maharaja of.		Rewa. The Maharaja of.	
<i>Salutes of 19 guns.</i>		Tonk. The Nawab of.	
Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab) of.		<i>Salutes of 15 guns.</i>	
Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of.		Alwar. The Maharaja of.	
Kalat. The Khan (Watt) of.		Banswara. The Maharawal of.	
Kolhapur. The Maharaja of.		Bhutan. The Maharaja of.	
Travancore. The Maharaja of.		Datia. The Maharaja of.	
Udaipur (Mewar). The Maharana of.		Dewas (Senior Branch). The Maharaja of.	
<i>Salutes of 17 guns.</i>		Dewas (Junior Branch). The Maharaja of.	
Bahawalpur. The Nawab of.		Dhar. The Maharaja of.	
Bharatpur. The Maharaja of.		Dholpur. The Maharaj Rana of.	
Bikaner. The Maharaja of.		Dungarpur. The Maharawal of.	
Bundi. The Maharaja Raja of.		Idar. The Maharaja of.	
Cochin. The Maharaja of.		Jaisalmer. The Maharawal of.	

(b) Within the territories of the State to which they are attached.

(c) According to naval rank, with two guns added.

(d) No military officer shall receive an artillery salute unless he is in actual military command and is the senior military officer in the spot. Attention is invited to the extra guns allowed for individuals.

Abu pu The S of
Khangab The Maharaja of.
Orcha. The Maharaja of.
Partabgarh. The Maharaja of.
Rampur. The Nawab of.
Sikkim. The Maharaja of.
Sirohi. The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 13 guns.

Benares. The Maharaja of.
Bhavnagar. The Maharaja of.
Cooch Behar. The Maharaja of.
Dhrangadara. The Maharaja of.
Jaora. The Nawab of.
Jhalawar. The Maharaja-Rana of.
Jind. The Maharaja of.
Junagadh. The Nawab of.
Kapurthala. The Maharaja of.
Nabha. The Maharaja of.
Nawanagar. The Maharaja of.
Palanpur. The Nawab of.
Porbandar. The Maharaja of.
Rajpipla. The Maharaja of.
Ratlam. The Maharaja of.
Tripura. The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 21 guns.

Ajaigarh. The Maharaja of.
Alirajpur. The Raja of.
Baozi. The Nawab of.
Barwani. The Rana of.
Bijawar. The Maharaja of.
Bilaspur. The Raja of.
Cambay. The Nawab of.
Chamba. The Raja of.
Charkhari. The Maharaja of.
Chhatargarh. The Maharaja of.
Faridkot. The Raja of.
Gondal. The Thakur Sahab of.
Janjira. The Nawab of.
Jhabua. The Raja of.
Maler Kotla. The Nawab of.
Mandi. The Raja of.
Manipur. The Maharaja of.
Morvi. The Thakur Sahab of.
Narsinggarh. The Raja of.
Panna. The Maharaja of.
Pudukkottai. The Raja of.
Radhanpur. The Nawab of.
Rajgarh. The Raja of.
Sailana. The Raja of.
Samthar. The Raja of.
Sirmur. The Maharaja of.
Sitaman. The Raja of.
Suket. The Raja of.
Tehri. The Raja of.

Salutes of 9 guns.

Bahasitor. The Nawab (Bab) of.
Bangsanapalle. The Nawab of.
Bansda. The Raja of.
Baraunda. The Raja of.
Bariya. The Raja of.
Chibha Udaipur. The Raja of.
Danta. The Maharaja of.
Dharanpur. The Raja of.
Dhol. The Thakur Sahab of.
Faathli (Shukra). The Sultan of.
Hapur. The Sawbwa of.
Jawhar. The Raja of.
Kalanandi. The Raja of.
Kengtung. The Sawbwa of.
Kutchipar. The Rao Bahadur of.
Kishn and Socotra. The Sultan of.
Lancej (or Al Hanta). The Sultan of.
Limddi. The Thakur Sahab of.
Lohara. The Nawab of.
Lunawada. The Raja of.
Mauhar. The Raja of.
Mayurbhanj. The Maharaja of.
Ming Nai. The Sawbwa of.
Mudhol. The Raja of.
Nagod. The Raja of.
Palitana. The Thakur Sahab of.
Patna. The Maharaja of.
Rajkot. The Thakur Sahab of.
Sachin. The Nawab of.
Sangli. The Chief of.
Savantwadi. The Bar Desal of.
Shehr and Mokula. The Sultan of.
Sonpur. The Maharaja of.
Suxth. The Raja of.
Vankaner. The Raj Sahab of.
Wadhwan. The Thakur Sahab of.
Yawngwe. The Sawbwa of.

Personal Salutes.

Salutes of 21 guns

Indore. His Highness Maharaja Yeshwant Rao
ulius Raja Sahab of

Kalat. His Highness Mir Sir Mahmud Khan,
G.C.I.E., Wali of.

Travancore. His Highness the Maharaja of.

Udaipur (Mewar). His Highness Maharaja-
Chiraja Maharana Sir Fateh Singh Bahadur,
G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., Maharaja of.

Salutes of 19 guns.

Utkaner. Major-General His Highness Maharaja
Sir Ganga Singh Bahadur. G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.,
G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Kotah. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharao Sir Ummed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., Maharao of.

Mysore. Her Highness Maharani Kempo Nanjammanni Avaru Vanivilas Sannidhana, C.I., Maharani of.

Nepal. General His Highness Maharaja Sir Chandra Shumshere Jung Bahadur, Rana, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L., Prime Minister, Marshal of.

Patiala. Major-General His Highness Maharaja-dhuraia Sir Bhupindar Singh Mahindar Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Tenk. H. H. Amin-ud-Daula Wazir-ul-Mulk Nawab Sir Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur Saulat Jang, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Nawab of.

Salutes of 17 guns.

Alwar. Colonel His Highness Sewai Maharaj Sir Jey Singhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of

Dhoigur. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharajadhiraia Sri Sewai Maharaj-Rana Sir Udalbhan Singh Lokindar Bahadur Diler Jang Jai Deo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., Maharaja-Rana of

Kashnagar. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Umdae Rajahae Baland Mekan Maharajadhiraia Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Orehba. His Highness Maharaja Mahindra Sewai Sir Pratap Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Suchl. His Highness Maharajadhiraia Maharao Sir Kesri Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Sr-Maharao of.

Salutes of 15 guns.

Benares. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Parbhu Narayan Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Jind. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Rajendra Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of.

Junagadh. His Highness Vab Ahad Mohabul Khanji Rasulkhanji, Nawab of.

Kapurthala. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Jagatjit Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Nawanagar. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., Maharaja of.

Salutes of 11 guns.

Aga Khan. His Highness Aga Sir Sultan Muhammad Shah, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., of Bombay.

Bariya. Captain H. H. Maharawal Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Mansinhji, K.C.S.I., Raja of.

Central. His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk, K.C.I.E., Mehtar of.

Lahor (Al Hanta). His Highness Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Fardhi Bin Ali, K.C.I.E., Sultan of.

Lunawada. His Highness Maharana Shri Wakhatsinghji Dalelsinghji, K.C.I.E., Raja of Sachin Major His Highness Nawab Sid Ibrahim Mohamed Yakut Khan, Mubazaru Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur, Nawab of.

Shehr and Mokalla. H. H. Sultan Omer bin Awad Alkalty, Shamseer Jung Bahadur Sultan of.

Vankaner. Captain His Highness Raj Sahel Sir Amarsinhji Baneshji, K.C.I.E., Raj Sahel of.

Salutes of 9 guns.

Dashahr. Raja Padam Singh, Raja of.

Dthala. Amir Nasr bin Shait bin Sel tun Abdul Hadi, Amir of.

Jamkhandi. Captain Meherban Sir Parashramrav Ramchandrarav, K.C.I.E., Chief of.

Kanker. Maharajadhiraia Kamaal Deo, Chief of Loharu. Nawab Sir Amir-ud-din Ahmad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., ex-Nawab of.

Lawngpeng. Hkun Hsang Awa, K.S.M., Sawbwa of.

Local Salutes.

Salutes of 21 guns.

Shopal. The Baran (or Nawab) of. Within the limits of her (or his) own territories, permanently.

Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of. Within the limits of his own territories, permanently.

Udaipur (Mewar). The Maharana of. Within the limits of his own territories, permanently.

Salute of 19 guns.

Dharatpur. The Maharaja of.

Bikaner. The Maharaja of.

Cutch. The Maharao of.

Jaipur. The Maharaja of.

Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.

Patiala. The Maharaja of.

(Within the limits of their own territories, permanently.)

Salute of 17 guns.

Alwar. The Maharaja of.

Khairpur. The Mir of.

(Within the limits of their own territories, permanently.)

Salutes of 15 guns.

Benares. The Maharaja of.

Bhavnagar. The Maharaja of.

Jind. The Maharaja of.

Junagadh. The Nawab of.

Kapurthala. The Maharaja of.

Nabha. The Maharaja of.

Nawanagar. The Maharaja of.

Ratlam. The Maharaja of.

(Within the limits of their own territories permanently.)

Salutes of 13 guns.

Bushire. His Excellency the Governor of. At the termination of an official visit.

Janjira. The Nawab of. (Within the limits of his own territory, permanently.)

* Conferred in the first instance during the minority of her son, the Maharaja of Mysore, and in the capacity of Regent, and subsequently continued for her lifetime.

2722 ad 1h a D du f W. on his own territory,
 permanent).
Salutes of 5 guns.

Abu Dhabi, The Shaikh of Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Bander Abbas, The Governor of }
 Lingah, The Governor of } At the termination of an official visit.
 Muhammerah, The Governor of }

Muhammerah, Eldest son of the Shaikh of Fired on occasions when he visits one of His Majesty's ships as his father's representative.

Salutes of 3 guns.

Alman, The Shaikh of }
 Dibai, The Shaikh of } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of official visits by these Chiefs.
 Ras-al-Khaima, The Shaikh of }
 Sharjah, The Shaikh of }
 Umm-ul-Qawain, The Shaikh of }

TABLE OF LOCAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 11 guns.

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al-Khalifah, K.C.S.I., C.S.I., Shaikh of Bahrain. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL LOCAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 17 guns.

Council of Ministers (as a whole) of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

Salutes of 13 guns.

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat, when a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 9 guns.

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat when not a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 7 guns.

Bahrain, The Shaikh of.
 Kuwait, The Shaikh of.
 Muhammerah, The Shaikh of.
 Qatar, The Shaikh of.

Salutes of 5 guns.

Bahrain, Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family. }
 Kuwait, Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family. } Fired when acting as Deputy of these Chiefs.

Individual Members of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 13 guns.

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khar'al Khan, G.O.I.B., K.C.S.I., Shaikh of Muhammerah. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Indian Orders.

The Star of India.

The Order of the Star of India was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1861, and enlarged in 1866, 1876, 1897, 1902 and 1911, and the dignity of Knight Grand Commander may be conferred on Princes or Chiefs of India, or upon British subjects for important and loyal service rendered to the Indian Empire; the second and third classes for services in the Indian Empire of not less than thirty years in the department of the Secretary of State for India. It consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master (the Viceroy of India), the first class: *Grand Commanders* (23), the second class of *Knights* (one), the third class of *Commanders*, and the fourth class of *Companions* (twenty-five). The Order is composed, exclusive of Extra and Honorary Members, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions.

The Insignia are (i) the Collar of gold, composed of the lotus of India, of palm branches tied together in satire, of the united red and white rose, and in the centre an Imperial Crown all enamelled in their proper colours and linked together by gold chains. (ii) The Star of a Knight Grand Commander is composed of rays of gold issuing from a centre, having thereon a star of five points in diamonds resting upon a light blue enamelled circular riband, tied at the ends and inscribed with the motto of the Order, *Heaven's Light our Guide*, also in diamonds. That of a Knight Commander is somewhat different, and is described below. (iii) The Badge, an oval cameo having Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy thereon, set in a perforated and ornamental oval, containing the motto of the Order surmounted by a star of five points, all in diamonds. (iv) The Mantle of light blue satin lined with white, and fastened with a cordon of white silk with blue and silver tassels. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

The ribbon of the Order (four inches wide for Knights Grand Commanders) is sky-blue, having a narrow white stripe towards either edge, and is worn from the right shoulder to the left side. It is worn around the neck of the same colours as the uniform of the Commander, and of a smaller size, (b) on his left breast a Star composed of rays of silver issuing from a gold centre, having thereon a silver star of five points resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends, inscribed with the motto of the Order in diamonds. A Companion wears from his left breast a badge of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of a smaller size pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches. All insignia are returnable at death to the Central Chancery, or if the recipient was resident in India, to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

Sovereign of the Order:—His Most Gracious Majesty The King-Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order:—His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of

India, the Right Honourable Lord Irwin, P.C.,
G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E.

Officers of the Order:—Registrar, Col. the Hon. Sir George Arthur Charles O'Brien K.C.V.O., Secretary of the General Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood, St. James' Palace London, W. 1.

Secretary: The Hon'ble Sir John Thompson
K.C.I.E., Secretary to the Government of India
in the Foreign and Political Department.

Extra Knights Grand Commanders
(G. C. S. I.)

H. I. M. the Queen-Empress
H. R. H. The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)

Hls Excellency Shaikh Sir Khaz'ui Khan
G.C.I. E., Sardar Aqdas, Shaikh of Muham
marah and dependancies.

Prince Ismail Mirza, Mohamad-ed-Dowleh
Amir-i-Akram, son of His Royal Highness;
the late Sultan Sir Massoud Mirza, Yemin
ed-Dowleh, Zil-es-Sultan of Persia.

General Sir Bhim Shum Shere Jung, Bahadur
Rana, K.C.V.O., of Nepal.

General Sir Biber Shum Shere Jung,
Bahadur Rana, G.B.E., K.C.I.E., of Nepal.

Honorary Companions.

H. E. Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al Khalifah,
C.I.E., Shaikh of Bahrain and Dependences.
H. E. Sayid Sir Talmur bin Faisal bin-us-Sayid
Turki, C.I.E., Sultan of Masqat and Oman.
Shaikh Hamad bin Isa al Khalifah, son of the
Shaikh of Bahrain.

Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda
H. H. the Maharana of Udaipur
Baron Harris
H. H. the Raja of Cochin

Shum Shere Jung Bahadur
Marshal and Supreme
of Nepal

H. H. the Maharaja of Orkha
H. H. the Maharaja of Orkha
Baron H. H. the Maharaja of Orkha
H. H. the Maharaja of Orkha

Baron Sydenham
Sir Arthur Lawley
Sir John Hewitt
H. H. the Maharaja of Bikaner
H. H. Maharao of Kotah
General Sir Edmund George Barrow
E. H. the Maharaja of Kapurthala
His Exalted Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad
H. H. the Aga Khan
H. H. the Nawab of Tonk
E. H. the Mahanarao of Cutch
Baron

H. H. The Nawab of Rampur

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 e E of Rona dshay
 H The Mal a a a Jaa Sahib of Navanagar:
 aron Lloyd
 scout incheape
 scout Lee of Parcham
 e Earl of Lytton

Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)

r Phillip Perceval Hutchinson
 r William John Cunningham
 r Henry Martin Winterbotham
 r James Monteath
 out-Col. Sir Donald Robertson
 r Hugh Shakespear Barnes
 r Arundel Tagg Arundel
 r Arthur Henry Temple Martindale
 r James Thomson
 r Joseph Bampfylde Fuller
 out-Col. Arthur John, Baron Stamfordham
 r Charles Stuart Bayley
 r H. Maharaj Rana of Jhalawar
 r H. Raja of Jid
 r George Stuart Forbes
 r H. Raja of Ratlam
 r Harvey Adamson
 awab of Murchidabad
 r John Ontario Miller
 r Lionel Montague Jacob
 r Murray Hamrick
 r Leslie Alexander Selim Porter
 r Spencer Harcourt Butler
 r Robert Warrand Carlyle
 r Robert Warrand Carlyle

r Benjamin Robertson
 aharnjadhiraja of Burdwan
 r Elliot Graham Colvin
 r Travredya Rashleigh Wyana
 H. Maharaja of Dewas State (Senior Branch)
 r John Nathaniel Atkinson
 r William Thomson Morrison
 M. F. O'Dwyer
 r Saïyid Ali Imam
 r Michael William Fenton
 knel Sir Sidney Gerald Burnard
 r William Henry Solomon
 M. Sir W. R. Birdwood.
 r P. Saundaram Aiyar Sivaswami Aiyar
 r Edward Albert Galt
 H. Nawab of Maler Kotla
 H. Maharaja of Sirmur
 r William Henry Clark
 ajor-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
 r Steyning William Edgerley
 r Harrington Vornay Lovett
 r Robert Woodburn Gillan
 tharaj Sri Sir Bhairon Singh Bahadur
 r Alexander Gordon Cardew
 out-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
 r C. H. A. Hill
 H. Maharaja Sir Mathar Rao Baba Sahab
 Puar, Maharaja of Dewas (Junior Branch)
 H. The Maharaja of Dhruvadhra
 out Col. Sir F. E. Younghasband
 r F. Morison
 out-Gen. G. M. Kirkpatrick
 ajor-Gen. E. O. O. Stuart
 r George Rivers Lowndes

H H (ha a, a) l l l a a Maharawal Sir
 Jawahir Singh Bahadur of Jaisalmer
 Sir Archdale Barle
 Sir Stuart Milford Fraser
 Sir John Stratheden Campbell
 Sir Frank George Sy
 H. H. the Maharaja of Datta
 H. H. the Maharaja Rana of Dholpur
 Lieut.-General Sir William Raine Marshall
 Sir William Vient
 Sir Thomas Holland
 Sir James Bennett Brangate
 Sir Sydney Arthur Taylor Rowlett
 Sir Oswald Vivian Koscquett
 Gen. Sir Alexander Stanhope Cobbe
 Sir G. Carmichael
 Dr. Sir M. H. Sadler
 Major-Gen. Sir Harry Trenchard Brooking
 Major-Gen. Sir George Fletcher MacMunn
 The Right Hon'ble Lord Southborough
 Lieut.-Colonel Maharaja Sir Doolat Singhji
 Jdar
 The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir P. Rajagop
 Atharizar Awared
 Sir George Barnes
 The Right Hon'ble Sir Satyendra Prasann
 Baron Sinha of Raipur
 Sir Edward MacLagan
 Sir William Morris
 Sir N. D. Bhatnagar-Bell
 Sir L. J. Kershaw
 Sir G. S. Curtis
 Sir L. Davidson
 The Hon'ble Sir C. G. Tolhunter
 Sir Henry Wheeler
 H. R. Sir H. R. C. Domba
 Captain His Highness Maharawal Shri Sir Ra
 jtsinghji Mansinghji, Raja of Barla, Bomba
 Khan Bahadur Doctor Khan Sir Muhammad
 Shah
 H. R. Sir William Malcolm Hailey
 Sir Hamilton Grant
 The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Maharaja* S
 Muhammad Ali Muhammad Khan, Raja
 Mahmudabad.
 Sir James-Jee Jeejeebhoy, Bart.
 H. E. Sir John Henry Kerr
 Dr. Sir T-j Bahadur Supru
 Sir Ludovic Porter
 Major-General Sir Havelock Charles
 Rao Bahadur Sir B. N. Sarma
 The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtuba
 The Hon. Sir Charles Innes
 General Sir C. W. Jacob
 The Maharao of Stroli
 H. T. Sir Montagu Butler
 H. H. The Maharaja of Kaypipla
 Sir Frederick Nicholson.
 H. H. The Maharaja of Jodhpur
 Sir Frederic Whyte
 The Hon'ble Sir Maurice Hayward
 Sir Abdur Rahim
 H. H. the Maharaja of Bharatpur
 H. H. the Nawab of Junagadh
 The Hon'ble Sir Basil Blackett
 H. E. Sir Henry Lawrence
 The Hon'ble Sir Alexander Muddiman
 H. H. The Maharaja of Bewa
 Sir Ropendranath Mitra,
 Sir Chaital V. Mehta,
 Sir S. P. O'Donnel.

* Personal: hereditary title is Raja.

h L d
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T Hon k an B du S h n d
Habibullah

Companions (C. S. I.)

Col Charles Edward Yate
Lieut.-Col. Henry St. Patrick Maxwell
Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe
James Fairbairn Finlay
Henry Aiken Anderson
Lieut.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
Charles William Odling
David Norton
Sir Edward Richard Henry
Sir Mackenzie Dalzell Chalmers
Henry Farrington Evans
Sir Frederick Styles Philpin Lely
George Robert Irwin
Lieut.-Gen. Sir George Lloyd Reilly Richardson
Robert Burton Buckley
Charles Gerwien Bayne
Hartley Kennedy
William Charles Macpherson
Col James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery
Col James White Thurburn
William Thomas Hall
Richard Townsend Greer
Sir Louis William Dane
Raja Ram Pal of Kulehr
Hermann Michael Kisch
Sir Cecil Michael Wilford Brett
Sir Frank Campbell Gates
John Mitchell Holmes
Lt Col. Willoughby Pitcairn Kennedy
Raja Narendra Chand
Arthur Delaval Younghusband
Oscar Theodore Barrow
Francis Alexander Slacke
Percy Comyn Lyon
Algernon Robert Sutherland
Sir George Watson Shaw
William Arbuthnot Inglis
Romer Edward Younghusband
Major-General Sir Herbert Mullaly
John Alexander Brown
Col. Henry Flinnis
Maj.-Gen. Sir Alfred William Lambert Bayly
Maurice Walter Fox-Strangways
William Lochiel Sapte Lovett Cameron
Maj.-Gen. Sir Henry Montague Pakington
Hawkes
Francis Capel Harrison
Comdr. Sir Hamilton Pym Freer-Smith
Andrew Edmund Castle Stuart Stuart
Norman Goodford Cholmsley
Walter Francis Rice
Sir Haviland LeMesurier
Cecil Edward Francis Bunbury
Major-General Reginald Henry Mahor
Rear-Admiral Allen Thomas Hunt
Henry Walter Badock
James Mollison
Sir John Walter Rose
Charles Ernest Vear Goument
Herbert Lovely Eales
George Moss Harriott
Ernest Herbert Cooper Walsh
Sir Edward Vere Levinge
Lieut.-Col. Charles Archer
James Peter Orr
Herbert Alexander Casson
Arvi Hertz

S Ia ad Bhaska Chauba
B e Co on l Cl W g am
H b t Thompson

Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay
Stuart Lockwood Maddox
Dr. Sir Gilbert Thomas Walker
Lieut.-Col. Phillip Richard Thornhagh Gurn
The Hon'ble Khan Sir Zulfiakar Ali Khan
Surgeon-General George Francis Angelo Ha
Major Edmund Vivian Gabriel
Sir John Stuart Donald
Henry Montague Segundo Mathews
Arthur Crommelin Hankin
Nawab Sir Faridoon Jang Bahadur
Maulvi Sir Ahmad Hussain Nawab Amir
Bahadur
Sir Horace Charles Mules
H. H. Raja Sir Bijs Chand, Raja of Bilaspur
Lieut.-Col. Arthur Russell Aldridge
Lieut.-Col. Sir Mathew Richard Henry Wills
John Charles Burnham
Col. Thomas Francis Bruce Renny-Tailyour
Michael Kennedy
Col. Alsin Chartier de Lotbiniere Joly
Lotbiniere
Col. Robert Smeiton MacLagan
Lieut.-Col. Charles Mowbray Dallas
Edward Henry Scamander Clarke
Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Baig
Oswald Campbell Lees
Lieut.-Col. Albert Edward Woods
William Exall Tempest Bennett
William Ogilvie Horne
William Harrison Moreland, C.I.E.
Col. Lestock Hamilton Reid
Surg.-Gen. Henry Wickham Stevenson
Honorary Lieut.-Col. Raja of Lambagraon
Lieut.-Col. Donald John Campbell MacNab
Lieut.-Col. Henry Walter George Cole
Henry Venn Cobb
Frederick William Johnston
William Henry Lucas
Arthur Leslie Saunders
Raja Sir Daljit Singh of Jullunder
Sir Walter Maude
Sir Henry Ashbrooke Crump
Sir William James Reid
Walter Gunnell Wood
John Cornwallis Godley
A. Butterworth
Lt.-Col. F. B. Elliott
The Hon'ble Sir Herbert John Maynard
Lt.-Col. A. B. Dew
Sir Hugh T. Keeling
Sir Henry Sharp
Sir Robert R. Scott
Col. Sir J. W. E. Douglas-Scott Montagu
Beaulieu
Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes-Sadler
Laurence Robertson
Sir John Ghest Cumming
Lieut.-Col. Stephen Lushington Aplin
Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay
Sir John Barry Wood
Major-General Sir Arthur Wigram Money
T. A. Chalmers
C. C. Watson, I.C.S.
Lt.-Colonel T. H. Keynes
R. J. S. Dodd
Major H G Vaux

- R. Burn
 Sir Godfrey B. H. Felt
 Major-General Sir W. C. Knight
 Lt. Col. Sir Cecil Kaye
 Sir Patrick James Fagan
 Col. Sir Hormasji Edulji Banatwalla, I.M.S.
 Lt. Col. Lawrence Impey
 Col. Benjamin William Marlow
 Lt. Col. Harold Feunon Jacob
 Lt. Col. Francis Beville Frideaux
 Lt. Col. Stuart George Knox
 Col. Sir Hugh Whacechurch Perry
 Henry Cecil Ferard
 Charles Evelyn Arkenthnot William Oldham
 Sir Evan Macconochie
 Francis Coope French
 Lieut.-General Sir Charles W. G. Richardson
 Lt. Col. A. P. Trevor
 Sir Horatio Norman Bolton
 Major-General J. C. Rimington
 Colonel H. R. Hopwood
 Brig. General R. H. W. Hughes
 L. E. Buckley
 J. H. Bompass
 M. Y. S. Gubbay
 Lieut.-Gen., Sir Richard Wapshare
 Major-Gen. J. M. Walter
 Brig.-General W. G. Hamilton
 Lieut.-Col. A. W. N. Taylor
 Major Sir Alexander J. Anderson
 Major-General Sir Theodore Fraser
 Brig.-General W. N. Campbell
 Col. Thomas A. Harrison
 Major General L. O. Dunsterville
 Sir Hugh McPherson
 Sir Henry Fraser Howard
 Lieut.-Col. Herbert Des Voeux
 Col. Charles Battray
 Evelyn Berkeley Howell
 Major General Felix Fordati Ready
 Col. Herbert Evan Charles Bayley Nepean
 Lieut. Col. Patrick Robert Cadell
 Lieut. Col. Montagu William Douglas
 Colonel Charles Macaggart
 The Hon'ble Sir John Ferronet Thompson
 Richard Meredith
 Sir Manubhai Nandshankar Mehta
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Thomas Wolseley Haig
 Herman Cameron Norman
 The Hon'ble Sir Reginald Arthur Mant
 Colonel Alexander John Henry Swiney
 Major General James Wilton O'Dowda
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
 Col. (temporary Colonel-on-the-staff) Charles
 Ernest Graham Norton
 Captain Wilfrid Nunn
 Major General Hubert Isaacs
 Colonel Stewart Gordon Lock
 Colonel (temporary Brigadier-Gen.) William
 Kelty McLeod
 Col. Frederick James Moberly
 Brigadier-Gen. Robert Fox Forsbie
 Colonel Alan Edmondson Tate
 Major-Gen. William Cross Barratt
 temporary Brigadier-General Sir Edward Hugh
 Bray
 Col. (Honorary Brigadier-Gen.) Arthur Howarth
 Pryce Harrison
 Colonel (temporary Major-Gen.) Frank Ernest
 Johnson
 Major-General Robert A. Campbell
 Fred. K. Campbell, Rose
 Sir Selwyn Mowe Fremantle
 Peter William Monie
 Major-General Charles Astley Fowler
 Major-General Harold Hendley
 Colonel Michael Edward Willoughby
 Major-General Edward Arthur Fagan
 Colonel Herbert William Jackson
 Lt.-Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob
 The Hon'ble William Fell Barton
 C. F. Payne
 Colonel J. L. Rieu
 W. J. J. Howley
 Sir Dentram P. Standen
 Sir John L. Muffey
 Lieut.-Col. J. L. W. F. French-Mullen
 Lt.-Col. J. L. R. Gordon, C.B.
 Colonel C. W. Prefect
 H. H. the Nawab of Bhopal
 H. M. R. Hopkins
 R. A. Graham
 Claud Alexander Barton
 Sir George Ransy
 Sir Godfrey R. Clarke
 Lieut.-Col. D. Donald
 Khan Bahadur Sardar Muhammad Ali Khan
 Quilbash of Lahore
 Col. G. B. M. Sarel
 Col. F. E. Coningham
 Col. D. A. D. McVean
 Col. H. G. Purcell
 Col. J. H. Foster Lakin
 Col. (temporary Col.-Comdt.) G. A. H. Beatty
 Sir Robert Houlard
 C. J. Halifax
 Major-General H. F. Cooke
 Lieut.-Col. E. M. Pross
 L. T. Harris
 Sir Albion Rajkumar Baserji
 The Hon'ble Mr. R. L. B. Glancy
 W. R. Gourlay
 Major-General E. Wigram, I.A.
 Rai Bahadur Dewan Shehan Das
 Captain H. H. Raja Narendra Sah, of Fetri
 (Garhwal).
 The Hon'ble Sir Arthur Rowland Knapp
 Norman Edward Marjoribanks
 Sir Denys de Saumarez Bray
 Charles Montagu King
 Rai Bahadur Raja Pandit Hari Kishan Kaul of
 the Punjab
 S. R. Hignell
 James Crezar
 Colonel S. F. Muspratt
 W. E. Copleston
 Frederick B. Evans
 Colonel-Comdt. Rivers Berncy Worgan, C.V.O.
 Major-General W. C. Black
 G. R. Lambert
 B. G. Allen
 J. E. Webster
 T. E. Moir
 Dewan Bahadur Raghunatha Rao Ram Chandra
 Rao Avargal
 Major C. G. J. Barrett
 Sardar Bahadur Nawab Mabrab Khan, Chief
 of Bugti Tribe
 Sir Godfrey John Vignoles Thomas, Bart.
 Capt. Dudley Barton Napier North
 Sir Edward M. Cook, L.C.S.
 T. R. Sir Samuel P. O'Donnell, L.C.S.

The Indian Order

Captain Sir An Shun Kue Ju Lahad
Rana Nya

H. H. Saiyid Sir Taimur bin Faisal bin-
Sayed Turki, C.S.I., Sultan of Muscat and
Oman.

H. H. the Maharaja of Chitaurpur
Sir Edward Grimwood Meade
N. E. Marjoribanks

Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.I.E.)

H. H. The Maharaja of Cutch
Lord Harris

H. H. The Nawab of Tonk
H. H. The Wali of Kakat

H. H. The Maharaja of Godol

H. H. The Maharaja of Benares

H. H. The Maharaja of Orissa

Lord Amphil

H. H. The Aga Khan

Lord Lamington

H. H. The ex-Begum of Bhopal

Lt.-Col. Sir Edmund Elles

Sir Walter Laurence

Sir Arthur Lawley

H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner

H. H. The Maharaja of Kolah

Lord Sydenham

H. H. The Nawab of Rampur

Maharaja Peshkar Sir Kishan Parskhi

Lord Hardinge

Sir Louis Dane

Lord Stamfordham

Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson

H. H. The Maharaja of Udaipur

H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala

H. H. The Raja of Cochin

H. H. The Raja of Pudukkottai

Lord Willingdon

The Yuvaraja of Mysore

Sir Charles Stuart Bayley

Maharaja of Darbhanga

H. H. the Maharaja of Jind

Lord Chelmsford

The Earl of Ronaldshay

Sir Michael Francis O'Dwyer

Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Acon

Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox

H. H. Tukuji Rao III, ex-Maharaja of Indore

H. H. The Maharaja of Cochin

H. E. Sir George Ambrose Lloyd

H. H. The Maharaja of Baroda

H. H. The Maharaja of Alwar

H. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala

Lord Lytton

H. H. The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra.

The Right Hon'ble Rowland Thomas Baring.

Earl of Cromer, C.V.O.

Sir William Henry Moore Vincent, K.C.S.I.,

K.C.S.

H. E. Sir Harcourt Butler

Sir Reginald Craiklock.

Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Orme Wilson

Maharajahiraja Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab

Bahadur of Bardwan

H. E. Viscount Gosenen

H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur.

H. E. The Rt. Hon. Sir Francis Stanley Jackson.

Knights Commanders (K.C.I.)

Sir Arthur Baron Carnock

H. H. The Raja of Lohawara

Sir Edward Charles Kayll Oliphant

Sir Henry Seymour King

Baron Inchcape

Ex-Nawab of Loharu

Sir Alexander Cunningham

Sir James George Scott

Sir Lawrence Hugh Jenkins

Sir Herbert Thirkell White

Sir Frederick Augustus Nicholson

Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe

Raja of Shahpura.

Sir Gangadharay Ganesh, Chief of

(Senior Branch)

Brevet-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott

Col. Sir John Walter Otley

Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Fought

Sir Fredric Styles Philip Leiy

Lt.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry Macdon

Sir Francis Whitmore Smith

Dr. Sir Thomas Henry Ebdand

Nawab Sir Muhammad Ali Beg

Raja of Mahmudabad

Sir Trevorlyn Rashleigh Wynne

Sir Richard Morris Dane

Sir Theodore Motson

Gen. Sir Robert Irvin Sealion

Rear-Admiral Sir Edmund John Warre

Sir Archdale Earle

Sir Charles Stewart-Wilson

Gen. Sir Malcolm Henry Stanley Grov

Sir Charles Kait Cleveland

Field Marshal Earl Haig

Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Day

Sir Henry Percall Durt

Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay

Sir Rajendra Nath Mukharji

Lieut.-Col. Sir Henry Beaufoy Thorah

Sir Ganesdhar Madho Chitawis

H. H. The Nawab of Jaora

H. H. The Raja of Sitamau

H. E. The Raj Sahab of Wankaner

Rear-Adm. Sir Colin Richard Keppel

Sir John Stanley

Sir Saint-Hill Hardley-Wilmot

Sir Francis Edward Spring

H. H. The Maharawal of Partabgarh

H. H. The Maharaja of Bijawar

Sir John Twigg

Sir George Abraham Grierson

Dr. Sir Marc Aurel Stein

Sir Henry Alexander Kirk

Dr. Sir Alfred Gibbs Bourne

Sir Frank Campbell Gates

Sir George Macarthey

Sir Edward Douglas MacLagan

Maj.-Gen. Sir George John Founghush

Sir Brian Egerton

Sir Stephen George Sale

Sir Prabhashanker D. Pattani

Maharaja of Kasimbazar

Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay

Sir William Maxwell

Sir Faridoonji Jamsheji, C.S.I.

Sir Mokshagundam Viswam

His Highness the Maharaja of Santhar	H. E. Sir H. L. C. Dobbs
Sir John Stuart Donald	The Thakur Sahab of Lamdi
Lieut.-Col. Sir Percy Molesworth Sykes	Sir H. A. Crump
Sir Edward Vere Levinge	Sir W. D. Sheppard
The Hon'ble Raja Sir Rampal Singh of Kuri	Sir L. C. Porter
Sudhanti	Lt.-Col. Sir A. B. Dew
Sir Alexander Henderson Diack	Nawab Sir Khan-i-Zaman Khan, Nawab of Am
The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Nawab Malik Sir Umar	Raja Sir Muhammad Nazim Khan, Mir of Hunza
Hayat Khan Tiwana	Sir E. Maconochie
Sir Robert Bailey Glegg	Col. Sir W. H. Wilcox
H. E. Sir Henry Wheeler	H. H. The Maharaja of Panna
Sir Mahadeo B. Chaulal	Sir H. Le Mesurier
Sir James Walker	Sir P. J. Fagan
Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Baig	Sir Norcott Warren
H. H. the Raja of Dhaspur	Raja Sahib Sri Sir Govinda Krishna Yachendru
Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul	varu of Venkatagiri
Qalyum	Sir C. A. Bell
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Raleigh Gilbert Egerton	Maulvi Sir Ahmad Husain Nawab Amin Jan
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry D'Urban Keary	Bahadur
Sir George Cunningham Buchanan	Sir John H. Biles
Major-Gen. Sir William George Lawrence Beynon	Lieutenant-Colonel Sir T. W. Haig
H. H. The Raja of Bajgarh	H. E. Sir John Henry Kerr
Rana of Barwan	Vice-Admiral Sir Lionel Halsey
Maharaja of Sonpur	H. H. The Maharaja of Sikkim
H. H. The Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir	The Chief of Sangli
Sir John Barry Wood	Major Nawab Malik Sir Khuda Bakhsh Kha
Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant	Tiwana
Thakur Sahab of Rajkot	Sir H. F. Howard
Lieut.-Col. Maharaja* Sir Jai Chind, Raja of	Sir A. R. Knapp
Lambargaon	H. E. Sir H. L. Stephenson
Rear-Admiral Sir D. St. A. Wake	The Hon'ble Sir R. A. Mant
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Alfred Horsford Buxley	The Hon'ble Sir B. N. Mitra
Sir Godfrey Butler Hunter Fell	The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Muhammad
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Thomas Joseph O'Donnell	mad Muzammil-ullah Khan of Bhikampur
Major-Gen. Sir Godfrey Williams	U. P.
Sir Nicholas Dodd Beatson Bell	Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad
Sir William Sinclair Morris	The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad
His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk Mehtar of	Habibulla Sahib Bahadur
Chitral	Sir H. McPherson
Maulvi Sir Rahim Bakhsh	Sir W. J. Reid
Sir James Herbert Seabrooke	Sir E. M. D. Chamber
Sir C. E. Low, I.C.S.	Khan Bahadur Sayyid Sir Mehdi Shah
Maharaj Kunwar Sir Bhopal Singh	Sir A. C. Chatterjee
Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Mir Shams Shah,	Sir B. E. Holland
I.S.O.	The Hon'ble Sir M. B. Dadabhoj
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Locke Elliot	Sir G. Rainey
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Altham Altham	The Hon'ble Sir C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar Avargal
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Charles Alexander Anderson	Sir S. P. O'Donnell
Gen. Sir Havelock Hudson	Sir B. P. Standen
Major-Gen. Sir Wyndham Charles Knight	Sir Denys Bray
Major-Gen. Sir Herbert Aveling Raftt	Sir H. N. Bolton
Sir Herbert Guy Dering	The Hon'ble Sir M. V. Joshi
Major-Gen. Sir H. F. R. Freeland	Raja Sir Panagantl Ramarayaningar, Raja of
Baron Montagu of Beaulieu	Panagal
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson	The Hon'ble Sir John Thompson
2nd-Lt. Meherban Sir M. V. Raje Ghorpade,	Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency
Raja of Mudhol	The Hon'ble Sir William Barton.
Sir W. Maude, I.C.S.	The Hon'ble Sir Frederick William Johnstone
Raj Bahadur Sir Bepin Krishna Bose, Kt.	The Hon'ble Sir Cawasji Jehangir (Junior)
Sir C. M. Stevenson Moore, I.C.S.	
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Richard Wapshare	
Major-Gen. Sir Willfrid Maleson	
Major-Gen. Sir Patrick Mehur	
Sir J. G. Cumming	
The Hon'ble Sir H. J. Maynard	
H. H. The Nawab of Palanpur	
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Andrew Skeen	
H. H. The Maharaja of Sirmur	
H. H. The Nawab of Malerkotla	

Honorary Companions (C. I. E.)

H. E. Laurent Marie Emile Beauchamp
 Dr. Jean Etienne Justin Schneider
 Haji Mohammad Ali Rais-ut-Tajjar of Muham-
 merah
 Sheikh Abdulla Bin Esa, son of the Shaikh of
 Bahrain
 Haidar Khan, Chief of Hayat Daud--(Persian
 Qulsi)

* Personal - hereditary title is Raja.

The Indian Orders

Mirza Ali Karam Khan Shuja-i-Nizam, Dy.
Governor of Bagdad-Abbas
Commanding-Col. Ghana Bikram
Lieut.-Col. Partab Jung Bahadur Rana
Major Alfred Paul Jacques Masson
Lieut.-Col. Gen. Sugiyama, Imperial Japanese
Army
Lieut. Richard Beamish—(Europe)
Lieut. François Pierre, Paul Ratz—(Europe)
Lieut.-Col. Bhuvan Bikram Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Shamshere Bikram Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Dumber Shamshere Thapa—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Bhairab Shamshere Jung Bahadur
Rana—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Madan Man Singh Basniat—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Gambhir Jung Thapa—(Nepal)
Lieut.-Col. Chandra Jung Thapa—(Nepal)
Major Uttam Bikram Rana—(Nepal)
Captain Narung Bahadur Basniat—(Nepal)
Mir F. Shikh Abdullah bin Qasim-al Thauri,
Shaikh of Qatar—(Persian Gulf)
Tao-yin Chur, Chu-jui-Ch'ih, Tao-yin of Kashgar
Sheikh Abdulla bin Jalawi, Amir of Hassa
Tobumiche Sakenobe
Major Masanoyuke Taniwada
His Excellency Muhammad Ibrahim Khan,
Shaukat-ul-Mulk
His Excellency Shaikh Ahmad al Jabir, Shaikh
of Kowelt and dependents
Shan Sahib Yusuf Bin Ahmed Kanoo, M.B.E.,
(Persian Gulf)
Miruzi Hemraj (Nepal)
Mir Suba Austaman Singh (Nepal)
Bada Kazi Marichman Singh (Nepal)

Companions (C. I. E.)

Stephen Paget Walter Vyvyan Luke
Charles Edward Pitman
George Felton Mathew
Maharajah Bichu Singh
Sir George Watt, M.B.
Joseph Ralph Edward John Royle
The Rt. Hon. Sayid Amir Ali
Sir Frank Forbes Adam
Sir Rayner Child Barker
Lieut.-Col. Charles Henry Ellison Adamsen
Edmund Neel
Sir John Prescott Hewett
Lieut.-Col. Henry Percy Polingdestre Leigh
Sir J. Bampfylde Fulmer
Sir William Turner Threlton-Dyer
Major-Gen. G. F. L. Marshall
Edward Horace Mau
Lieut.-Gen. Sir G. L. R. Richardson
Lieut.-Col. Sir Richard Carnac Temple
Edward C. S. George
Rao Bahadur Sri Ram Bhikaji Jatar
Gazibhai Visram
Arthur C. Hankin
Adam G. Tyther
Charles E. Buckland
Harry A. Asworth
Col. C. A. Porteous
Sir Steyning W. Edgerley
Col. W. R. Yeilding
Hon. Col. Sir Henry J. Stanyon
Frederick John Johnstone
Col. Samuel Haslett Browne
Frank Henry Cook
Francis Erskine Dempster
Lieut.-Col. John Shakespear
Maharaj Bajashri Bankara Subbalyar
Sir Edwin Darlington

Dr. Waldemar M. Hatkine
Rustamji Dhanjibhai Mehta
Khan Bahadur Manchery Rustamji Dholi
Sir Benjamin Robertson
Sir Duncan James Macpherson
Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
Henry Cecil Ferard
Charles George Palmer
Lieut.-Col. Samuel John Thomson
P. C. H. Snow
Lieut.-Col. A. B. Minchin
W. T. Van Someren
Charles Still
Col. H. K. McKay
Lieut.-Col. W. B. Browning
Robert Giles
Madhava Rao, Vishwanath Patankar
Col. Walter Gawen King
Lieut.-Col. Sir Frank Popham Young
Lieut.-Col. Reginald Hawkins Greenstreet
Lieut.-Col. Malcolm John Meade
Edward Louis Caprell
George Moss Harriott
Henry Marsh
Lieut.-Col. Bertrand Evelyn Melish Gurdo
Henry Felix Hertz
Sir Courtenay Walter Bennett
Rear-Admiral Walter Somerville Goodridge
Col. Solomon Charles Frederick Peile
Henry Alexander Sim
Col. John Crimann
Lieut.-Col. Granville Henry Loch
Sir William Jameson Soulsby
Col. William John Read Rainford
Lieut.-General Sir Thomas Edwin Scott
Lieut.-Col. Laurence Austine Waddell
Mir Asaf Ali Khan General
Khan Bahadur Subadar-Major Sardar Kh.
Hon. Capt. Subadar-Major Yasin Khan,
Bahadur
Sidney Preston
Sir Murray Hammick
Alexander Lauzun Pendock Tucker
Lieut.-Col. John Clibborn
Col. George Wingate
Lieut.-Col. George Hart Desmond Gimlett
Arthur Henry Wallis
George Herbert Dacres Walker
Lieut.-Col. Frank Cooke Webb Ware
Hon. Major Thomas Henry Hill
Alexander Porteous
Col. Thomas Elwood Lindsay Bate
Lockhart Mathew St. Clair
Rao Bahadur Sir Pandit Sakdeo Parshad
Sir Stuart Mitford Fraser
Lt.-Gen. Sir Ernest DeBrath
Walter Bernard deWinton
Algernon Elliott
Lt.-Col. Charles Arnold Kemball
Edward Gilles
Lieut.-Col. Alfred William Alcock
Lieut.-Col. Douglas Donald
Dr. Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
Raja Sir Sikandar Khan of Nagar
Sir William Dickson Cruickshank
Charles Henry Wilson
Rao Bahadur Shyam Sundar Lal
Robert Herriot Henderson
Charles Brown
George Huddleston
Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
Lieut.-Col. Arthur D'Arcy Gordon Bannet
Robert Hare

The Indian Orders

6

Barron
 d am Re no ds
 Archibald Walker Ross
 Col. Arthur Denny's Gilbert Ramsay
 Langrishe Moore
 red Chatterton
 Arthur Abercromby Duff
 l. John Lawrence William French-Mullen
 d Coventry
 John Harrison
 Prafulla Chauder Roy
 aneis Raymond
 General Sir William Bernard James
 l Sir Sydney D'Aguiar Crookshank
 ward Denison Ross
 Bahadur Sir Muhammad Israr Hasan
 " eginald O'Bryan Taylor
 Woun Akmas
 adur Raja Pandit Hari Kishan Paul
 Col. Frederic William Wodehouse
 General Sir Richard Henry Ewart
 General Maitland Cowper
 Thomas Walker Arnold
 Col. Charles Henry James
 der Blake Shakespear
 an Hope Simpson
 onel Hugh Stewart
 Col. William Glen Lister
 General Sir Edwin H. de Vere Atkinson
 Stanley Talbot
 Adrian Lodge
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Robert William Layard
 up
 Irish Kesh Laha
 Bhansan Gupta
 Terence Owen Bernard
 Col. Townley Richard Filgate
 der Macdonald Rouse
 Cahill Sheridan
 Colonel Herbert de Lisle Pollard-Lowsler
 William Wilfrid Rickford
 Culbert Streetfield
 Sir Cecil Kaye
 ham Foster
 K. Walker
 eph Henry Stone
 S. Cranford
 Col. H. B. St. John
 Sir Appaji Rao Sitole Anklikar
 on'ble Sir A. P. Muddiman
 ice Mercer
 W. L. Campbell
 M. Dundas
 Lieut.-Col. P. R. Cadell
 Cunningham Watson
 idra Nath Tagore
 H. Arden-Wood
 Pearson
 J. Blackham
 Ashmore
 Edward Clerk
 on ble Dr. Sir Deba Prosad Sarbadhikari
 Charles Daly
 Gargrave Coverton
 E. B. Cobden-Ramsay
 on ble Hon. Col. William Peil Barton
 Bailey Scott
 on ble Rao Bahadur Ranganath Narasingh
 holkar
 shadur Sir Ranganath Venkaji Sabais
 lham Molesworth
 tubhai Samaldas Mehta

L o a d h a y
 Frank Frederick Lyall
 Col. George James Hamilton Bell
 Lt.-Col. Frank Currie Lewis
 Lewis French
 Col. Walter Hugh Jeffery
 Richard Meredith
 Albert Howard
 Lieut.-Col. E. D. Wilson Greig
 Harold Arden Close
 Richard Hugh Tickell
 Francis Samuel Alfred Stocock
 Lieut.-Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob
 Dr. Thomas Summers
 Kiran Chandra De
 Sir Frank Wallington Carter
 Charles Montague King
 Shiekh Raiz Hussain, Khan Bahadur Nawal
 Edward Rawson Gardiner
 Berkeley John Byng Stephens
 Rear-Admiral Walter Lumsden
 Dewan Kishan Das (Jauran and Kashmir)
 Sir Major Frederic Gaultlett
 Lt.-Col. Samuel Richard Christophers
 William Patric Sangster
 Montague Hill
 Lieut.-Col. Frederick Marshman Bailey
 Shihabzade Abdus Samad, Khan of Rampur
 Cecil Bernard Cotterell
 Mdrur Salih Suleman, Haji Kasim Mitha
 Captain George Pridemore Millet
 Sir Selwyn Howe Fremantle
 Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmed
 Lt.-Col. Cecil Charles Stewart Barry
 Col. Cyril Mosley Wagstaff
 Col. Charles Henry Cowie
 Kunwar Maharaaj Singh
 David Petrie
 Godfrey Charles Denham
 Lt.-Col. Charles Joseph Windham
 Herbert George Chick
 Col. Charles Henry Dudley P. d. c.
 H. M. Raja Pratab Singh, Raja of Ali Rajpur
 Col. Cecil Evon John Allanson
 Rao Bahadur Chunnilal Harilal Setalvad
 John Norman Taylor
 Khan Bahadur Sardar Dja Muhammad Khan
 Sir Lionel Linton Tomkins
 Douglas Marshall Straight
 The Hon'ble Raja Moti Chund
 Matthew Hunter
 John Tarlton Whitty
 Moses Mordecai Stinson Gubbay
 Raja Bhagwat Raj Bahadur Singh of Sohaw
 Major General Robert Charles MacWatt
 George Paris Dick
 The Hon'ble Lieut.-Col. William John Keen
 Khan Bahadur Sheikh Magbul Hussain
 Brigadier-General Cyril Harcourt Roe
 Col. George Sim Orga
 Capt. M. W. Farewell
 Lieut.-Col. John Bertram Cunliffe
 Evelyn Berkeley Howell
 Colonel William Montague Ellis
 Raja Sir Vengannad Varadava, Raja Avargal
 Major-Genl. James Jackson
 James Anderson Dickson McBain
 Christopher Addams-Williams
 Rai Bahadur Banshidhar Banerji
 Hammett Reginald Clode Bailey
 Robert Thomas Dandias
 Reginald George Kilby
 Robert Egerton Purves

Arthur Bradley Kettlewell
 The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das
 Khan Bahadur Dr. Mian Sir Muhammad Shah
 Hugh Aylmer Thornton
 Charles Stewart Middlemiss
 Major Frederick Norman White
 Sir John Loader Maffey
 Diwan Bahadur Tiwari Chhajuram
 Seth Chandmal Dindha
 The Hon'ble Mr. Stewart Edmund Pears
 William Newton Maw
 John Edward Webster
 Brevet-Major A. G. J. MacIlwaine
 Col. T. G. Peacocke
 Lieut.-Col. E. J. Morrison
 Thomas Avery
 Captain E. W. Huddleston
 Col. Richard Alexander Steel
 Lt.-Col. J. W. B. Merewether
 Lt.-Col. Ambrose Boxwell
 Capt. N. R. Radcliffe
 Lt.-Col. William Gillitt
 Major G. B. Power
 Brig.-General d'Arcy Charles Brownlow
 Temporary Major R. W. Bullard
 Lt.-Col. E. W. Radcliffe
 Lt.-Col. E. L. Bagshawe
 Major Charles John Emile Clerici
 Lt.-Col. A. K. Rawlins
 The Hon'ble Sir William John Keith
 A. J. W. Kitchen
 W. E. Gourlay
 W. S. Coutts
 Col. Westwood Norman Hay
 Sir Charles Augustus Tagart
 Major E. E. Griffith
 Diwan Bahadur Lala Bhubesar Nath
 Charles Francis Pith
 Dr. M. Y. Young
 Sir S. M. Burrows
 Sir P. J. Hartog
 Col. (Hony. Brig.-Genl.) B. A. Young
 Col. J. E. Dickson
 Col. Hugh Alan Cameron
 Lt. Col. W. E. R. Dickson
 Col. William Edmund Pye
 Lt. Col. S. M. Rice
 Col. O. B. Stokes
 Major E. S. Gillett
 Commander E. C. Withers
 Lieut.-Col. Edmund Walter
 Duncan William Wilson
 Francis Sylvester Grimston
 Capt. Victor Bayley
 John Dillon Flynn
 Col. Shafte Longfield Craster
 Sidney Robert Hignell
 Henry Phillips Tollinton
 The Hon'ble Sir James MacKenna
 Edward Lister
 Lt.-Col. David Waters Sutherland
 The Hon'ble Mr. Reginald Isidore Robert Glancy
 Arthur Willstead Cook
 Thomas Eyebrow Moir
 James Crerar
 Col. Henry Robert Crosthwaite
 Hony. Lieut. Hilary Lushington Holman-Hunt
 Gerald Aylmer Levest-Yeats
 Rai Bahadur Sir Hari Ram Goenka
 Taw Sein Ko
 Shams-ul-Ulama Jivanji Jamsheji Modi

Dewan Bahadur Pandit Krishna Rao L.
 Paonaskar
 Dewan Bahadur Sir Krishnarajapuram
 Gondal Puttanna Chetty
 Lt.-Col. John Anderson
 Sir Robert Glover Jaquet
 Colonel Ralph Ellis Carr-Hall
 Lt.-Col. (Alexander Hero) Ogilvy Spence
 Lt.-Col. Godfrey Lambert Carter
 Lt.-Col. Ernest Arthur Frederick Radf
 Harry Seymour Hoyie Pilkington
 James Alexander Ossory Fitzpatrick
 Lt.-Colonel David Lockhart Robertson I
 Lieut.-Colonel Terence Humphrey Keye.
 Lieut.-Col. Harold Ray Thorburn
 The Hon'ble Major Khan Muhammad
 Khan
 Hony. Capt. Muhi-ud-din Khan, Sardar B
 Hony. Capt. Sardar Natha Singh, Sardar
 dur
 Sardar Pooran Singh, Sardar Bahadur Ma
 Girdhar Singh, Sardar Bahadur Lt.-Col
 Haider Ali Khan, Sardar Bahadur Lt.-Col
 Philip James Griffiths Pison
 Tempy. Capt. Cecil Sutherland Waite
 Lieut.-Col. James Ainsworth Yates
 Air Commodore David Munro
 Reverend William Robert Park
 Brevet-Col. Francis William Pirrie
 Capt. Hubert McKenzie Salmond
 Lt.-Col. Felix Oswald Newton Mell
 Hony. Lt.-Col. Seaborn Guthrie Arthu
 Moens
 Col. Bhola Nauth
 Major Harold Richard Patrick Dickson
 Major (Tempy. Brig.-General) Henry
 Knox
 Major-General James Archibald Douglas
 Charles Rowlatt Watkins
 Joseph Herbert Owens
 Harry St. John Lridger Philby
 Major Lewis Cecil Wagstaff
 Major Cyril Penrose Paige
 Sao Kawn Kiao Intalang Sawbwa of Keng
 The Hon'ble Mr. Arthur Herbert Loy
 Sir Peter Henry Clutterbuck
 The Hon'ble Mr. James Donald
 William Woodward Hornell
 Harchandrai Vishindas
 Lt.-Col. Bawa Jiwan Singh
 Thomas Ryan
 Arthur William Botham
 Col. Henry Francis Cleveland
 Augustus Henry Deans
 Lt.-Col. William Byam Labe
 Harry Nelson Heseltine
 Major Henry Coddington Drown
 Robert Colquhoun Boyle
 Lewis Wynne Hartley
 Raj Bahadur Pandit Sir Gopinath
 Jhala Sri Mansinghi Suraj Singh
 The Hon'ble Mr. N. H. Das
 Lt.-Col. Gough
 Tempy. Wallinger
 Major I. Noti
 Colonel William Swbank

The Indian Orders

Lieut.-Col. J. R. Darley
 Prev.-Colonel C. M. Goodbody
 Lieut.-Col. J. G. Goodenough Swan
 Major Charles Fraser Mackenzie
 Lt.-Col. John Izat
 Major Cyril Charles Johnson Barrett
 Major William David Henderson Stevenson
 Captain Robert Edwards Alderman
 Major John Gordon Patrick Cameron
 James Laird Kinloch
 Alfred James Hughes
 Nawab Bahadur Salyid Nawab Ali Chaudhri
 Khan Bahadur
 Sir Claude Fraser de la Force
 Henry Raikes Alexander Irwin
 William Frederick Holms
 Sir George Herman Collier
 Thomas Emerson
 Jyotsnanath Ghosal
 Allan William Plm
 Lieut.-Col. George Henry Willie
 Lieut.-Col. Ernest Alan Robert Newman
 Edward Charles Ryland
 Francis William Bain
 John Desmond
 Sir John Ernest Jackson
 Gurnam Singh Sardar Bahadur
 Kumar Unkar Singh
 Dr. Charles Alfred Barber
 Sir Nasarwanji Navroji Wadia
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 Brig.-General Robert Montague Moore
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 Colonel Alfred Joseph Carnan
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 Lieut.-Col. E. A. F. Barnardo I.M.S.
 Captain Seymour Douglas Vase, R.I.M.
 Arthur Cecil McWatters
 Lieut.-Colonel Davis Heron
 Lieut.-Col. Edmund Tillsom Rich
 A. V. Venkataramana Aiyar
 Ali Khan Sardar Bahadur, late Major-General
 Kashmir State Forces.
 Hony. Lieut.-Qadir Baksh Khan Bahadur
 Roderick Kornell Biernacki
 Hony. Brigadier-General Robert Fox Sorbie
 Brig.-General A. B. Hawley Drew
 Colonel Herbert James Barrett
 Brigadier-General The Earl of Radnor
 Colonel Harry John Mahon
 Col. F. W. Bagshawe
 Col. F. E. Geoghagan
 Major Harold Whiteman Woodall
 Lieut.-Col. Herbert Grenville Le Mesurier
 Col. Rollo St. John Gillespie
 Lieut.-Col. Walter Fellows Cogswell Gilchrist
 Captain Francis Beta Davern
 Captain A. G. Bingham
 Lieut.-Col. Frederick William Gee, I.M.S.
 Lieut.-Col. the Lord Belhaven and Stenton, I.A.
 Llewellyn William Lewis
 Lieut.-Col. George McPherson
 Lieut.-Col. Norman Emil Henry Scott, I.M.S.
 Lieut.-Col. W. R. J. Scroggie, I.M.S.
 Major Stewart George Cromartie Murray
 Lieut.-Col. Arthur Mowbray Berkeley
 Major Guy Surton Bocquet
 Lieut.-Col. Cuthbert Vivian Bliss
 Colin Campbell Garbett

Lieut.-Col. Wyndham Madden Pierpont W.
John Brown Sydney Thimbroc
L. S. Steward O'Malley
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James George Jennings
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Christian Tindall
Arthur Innes Mayhew
Austin Low
Lieut.-Col. Andrew Alexander Irvine
Hubert Digby Watson
George Brule Chatfield
Lieut.-Col. John Tetler Calvert
Charles Gilbert Rogers
Bernard D'Olor Darley
Thomas Reed Davy Bell
Walter Francis Perce
Pertram Beresford Ormston
Lieut.-Col. John Hanna Murray
The Rev. Dr. William Skinner
Col. Herbert Augustus Izumi Iken
Col. Comdt. Richard Stuckeley St. John
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. S. S. W. Paddon
Lieut.-Col. Walter Mason
William Alfred Rae Wood
John Charles Kennedy Peterson
Lieut.-Col. Andrew Loch Charles McCormick
Lieut.-Col. F. B. Swinton
Lieut.-Col. J. C. Lamont
Capt. Charles James Cope Kendall
Muhammad Afzal Khan Lieut.-Col.
Sir Ernest Albert Seymour Bell
Lieut.-Col. Francis Richard Soutter Gervey
Colin John Davidson
Albert Harlow Silver
Khan Sahibur Nawab Maula Baksh of Ba
sardar Bahadur Prasad Prasad Sir J
Col. V. H. ...
Col. ...
Col. ...
Lieut.-Col. H. J. Crossley
Lieut.-Col. (Temporary Col.) W. A. Gordon
Lieut.-Col. J. D. Graham
Col. E. C. Alexander
Lieut.-Col. W. H. Hamilton
Lieut.-Col. C. A. Sprawson
Major H. C. Prescott
Commander J. C. Ward
Temporary Major C. F. Macpherson
Captain F. C. C. Ballour
Col. P. L. Bowers
H. A. Sans
H. F. Forbes
Lt.-Col. C. L. Peart
Hon. Brigadier-General H. De C. O'Grady
Lieut.-Col. A. de V. Willoughby-Osborn
Hon. Brigadier-General J. R. Gausson
Major G. B. Murray
Sir Furnshottamas Thakurdas
N. E. Marjoribanks
R. D. Bell
Rai Babadur Sala Ram
Lieut.-Col. H. C. Beardon
Lt.-Col. H. C. Barnes
H. Clayton
C. B. Petman
F. A. M. H. Vincent
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M. J. Cogswell

Lieut. Col. J. J. Bouke
 Lieut. Col. J. S. Ephenon
 H. H. Haines
 R. S. Hole
 Cursetji Nowroji Wadia
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 Lieut.-Col. W. D. A. Keys
 Lieut.-Col. W. M. Anderson
 Major H. Murray
 Major G. de L. Christopher
 Major F. M. Carpendale
 Major A. E. C. Trench
 Temporary Major L. F. Valder
 Captain C. G. Lloyd
 Temporary Captain R. Marrs
 G. Evans
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 Agha Mirza Muhammad
 Sir E. Bonham-Carter
 Lieut.-Col. J. H. Howell Jones
 Col. W. E. Wilson-Johnston
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 W. E. Dockrill
 G. M. O'Rourke
 Capt. C. R. Watson
 Capt. C. Mackenzie
 Major J. B. Hanafi
 Major M. C. Raymond
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 Lieut.-Col. J. B. Jameson
 Major-General A. G. Wanchope
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 Hon. Major R. W. Hildyard-Morris
 Hon. Lieut. Mehr Mohammad Khan Sirdar
 Bahadur
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 Major-General W. C. Black
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 J. A. Cherry
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 Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) H. E. Cook
 Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) F. W. H. Cox
 Col. G. M. Buff
 Lieut.-Col. E. G. Hall
 Lieut.-Col. D. R. Hewitt
 Lieut.-Col. L. Hirsch
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 Major G. Howson

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 Lieut.-Col. G. N. Watney Habibur
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 Regent Hony. Capt. Khan Sahib
 Bahadur
 Col. Charles Fairlie Dobbs
 Lieut.-Col. George Stuart Douglas
 Lieut.-Col. Charles Edward Edward-Collis
 Col. Hugh Edward Herdon
 Major Harold Berridge
 Major-Gen. M. R. W. Nightingale
 Sardar Bahadur Sir Sardar Sundar
 Majithia
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 Sir F. St. J. Gebble
 Khan Bahadur Pir Baksh Walad
 Muhammad
 S. S. Ayyaagar
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 A. Brebner
 V. Dawson
 Sir G. Anderson
 Col. Rao Bahadur Thakur Sadul Singh
 Sayid Nur-ul-Huda
 Col. John Anderson Dealy
 Major-General Harry Christopher Tytler
 Major-General A. L. Tarver
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 2nd-Lieut. Arthur Vernon Hawkins
 Colonel Campbell Coffin
 W. G. Renouf
 Sorabji Bezoni Mehta
 Lt.-Col. R. Verney
 E. G. S. Shuttleworth
 Lt.-Col. C. R. A. Band

The Indian Orders

J. Red
C. V. B. C. on
C. M. H. ns n
I. u. S. F. H. Humphreys
Major P. W. Gerard
R. S. Pearson
U. T. Allen
C. E. La Touche
A. K. Mattra
Col. Leslie Waterfield Shakespeare
Col. C. B. E. Francis Kirwan Macquoid
Capt. E. J. Calverley Hordern
John Comyn Higgins
John Henry Hutton
John Brown Marshall
Major Clendon Turberville Denkes
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Dewan Bahadur Dewan Darfat Rai
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Lieut.-Col. William Frederick Harvey
Honorary-Col. Lionel Augustus Crimston
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Doctor Edwin John Butler
Alexander Waddell Poth
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Rai Bahadur Jagn Nath Muzulidar
Sehangur Behramji Murzban
Narayan Malhar Joshi
Hamid Khan
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Lieut.-Colonel Maxwell McKelvie
Lieut.-Col. Charles Harold Amys Tack
Colonel Henry George Young
Lieut.-Col. Sir Malcolm Donald Murray
Brevet Colonel Sir Edward Scott Worthington

o n i w a c p u m J k
a B.
Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Saad Kai
Herbert Edward West Martindale
Alexander Macgregor Macle
Gervyn Rolans Abbott
James Cowlishaw Smith
John Richard Cunningham
Stephen Cox
Leslie Maurice Cramp
Hugh Kynaston Briscoe
Major-General Rivers Nevill
Major-General Benjamin Hobbs D
Henry Vernon Barstow Hare-Scott
Captain Lewis Macdonald Heath
Major Lionel Edward Lang
Rai Bahadur Milkhi Ran
Rao Bahadur Kesho Govind Dami
James Wills Mackinnon
Arthur Lambert Playfair
Doctor Mohendra Nath Banerjee
Col. (Honorary) Brigadier-General
Arthur Lane
David John Gould
Major-General John Blackburne Sm
Major-General Francis Hope Grant
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Patterson
Malcolm Caird McAlpin
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Alexander Carmichael Stewart
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Major Kenneth Oswald Gellie
Edward Francis Thomas
Edward Luttrell Mosses
Thomas Stewart Macpherson
Mannu Po Hla
Arthur Campbell Armstrong
Horace Williamson
Alexander Newmarch
Gerard Austruther Wathen
Khan Bahadur Mir Sharbat Khan
Natha Singh Sardar Bahadur
Raja Manilal Singh Roy
Khan Bahadur Dr. Nasarwanji
Choksy
The Hon'ble Raja Chandra Chu
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William Scott Durrant
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Lawrence Morley Stubbs
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James Macdonald Dunnett
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Levett Mackenzie Kaye
Goryton Jonathan Webster Mayne
Walter Swain
Major Cyril James Irwin
Lancelot Colin Bradford Glascock
Edwin Lessware Price
Rai Bahadur Chuni Lal Basu
Gavin Sayce
Horace Mason Haywood
Major the Honourable Piers Walter
Harry Tonkinson
Arthur Edward Nelson

- Alexander Shirley Montgomery
 Kunwar Jagdish Prasad
 Lieut.-Col. Andrew Thomas Gage
 Lieut.-Col. John Phillip Cameron
 Frederick Alexander Leete
 Lieut.-Col. Henry Ross
 Captain Victor Felix Gamble
 Major General Alfred Hooton
 Arnold Albert Musto
 Abdoor Rahim
 John Arthur Jones
 The Reverend Canon Edward Guilford
 Keshab Chandra Roy
 Major Henry Benedict Fox
 U. Po Tha
 Captain Albert Gottlieb Puech
 Naotoji Bapooji Saklatwala
 William Stantlall
 Khan Bahadur Diwan Abdul Hamid
 Rao Bahadur Thakur Hari Singh
 W. Alder
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 Khan Bahadur Muhammad Baziullah Sahib
 R. M. Maxwell
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 Srimant Jagdeo Rao Puar
 Maulvi Nizam-ud-Din Ahmed
 Sardar Sahibzada Sultan Ahmed Khan
 P. G. Rogers
 C. W. Dunn
 R. E. Gibson
 Lieut. Col. G. H. Russell
 B. J. Clancy
 H. B. Clayton
 E. W. P. Sims
 Maung Maung Bya.
 Sardar Bahadur Sheo Narayana Singh
 W. T. M. Wright
 A. N. Moberly
 The Rev. R. M. Macphail
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 Mirza Mohamed Ismail
 J. M. Ewart
 Rai Bahadur T. N. Sadhu
 W. J. Litter
 B. Venkatapathiraju Garu
 F. Clayton
 Diwan Bahadur Srinivasa K. Roldia
 P. Young
 Khan Bahadur Sardar Asghar Ali
 A. W. Street
 G. D. Tuckin
 R. B. Thakur Mangal Singh
 Diwan Bahadur P. Kesava Pillai Avargal
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 Lieut.-Colonel J. C. S. Vaughan
 F. G. Crawford
 H. Calvert
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 Lieut.-Col. the Revd. W. T. Wright
 Rai Bahadur Gyanendra Chandra Ghose
 Rai Bahadur Sukhmanaya Chaudhuri
 Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariyar
 W. L. Travers
 Sardar Bahadur Sardar Jawahir Singh
 Captain Hissam-ud-Din Bahadur
 Khan Bahadur Shah Nawaz Khan Blutto
 Rao Bahadur D. B. Raghunir Singh
 Khan Bahadur K. Rustonji
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 Acharya Avargal
 J. Wiles
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 H. Kauly
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 J. Irving
 H. O. B. Shoubridge
 Col. K. V. Kukday
 J. W. Goole
 H. W. Bentinck
 H. L. L. Allanson
 Chin Bahadur P. M. Hosain
 S. Bajpai
 H. A. Webster
 Bahadur H. K. Raha
 C. L. Drake
 Lieut. Col. T. W. Harley
 Clarke
 Lieut. Col. D. G. Sanderson
 J. J. Lhabha
 Miru Mu M. A. Khan
 Khwaja Nazim-ud-Din
 C. Woolner
 E. Covernton
 S. Burrell
 J. Denning
 J. B. Brander
 W. Hatch
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 S. Fraunji
 Col. W. H. Evans
 E. Lawcus
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 C. Simpson
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 Lieut. Col. H. L. Houghton
 Lieut. Col. H. D. Marshall
 D. G. Law
 W. Hanson
 R. Wilkinson
 Lieut. Col. J. W. Cornwall
 D. Anstead
 Milne
 Roche
 Bahadur Bahadur Rai Bahadur

Lt. T. P. Mukharji Bahadur
 G. K. Devdhar
 Chandhari Chinnai Rani
 J. H. R. Fraser
 Lieut. J. C. H. L. L. L. L.
 C. W. C. Carson
 J. N. Gupta
 G. F. S. S. S.
 H. C. L. S. S.
 A. G. S. S.
 J. S. G. S. S.
 D. L. D. S. S.
 D. M. S. S.
 R. S. S. S.
 J. A. Baker
 Lieut. Col. R. W. M. S. S.
 C. S. Wharworth
 A. B. S. S.
 Lieut. Col. L. S. S.
 J. E. S. S.
 R. J. S. S.
 P. P. V. S. S.
 Major A. G. S. S.
 Captain (Temp. Major) A. T. L. S. S.
 P. L. S. S.
 Rao Bahadur Janki Singh
 Dhan Bahadur E. K. M. S.
 A. G. S. S.
 W. D. R. S. S.
 A. H. S. S.
 A. T. S. S.
 H. C. S. S.
 Colonel C. C. S. S.
 J. H. S. S.
 H. T. S. S.
 C. W. A. S. S.
 Lieut. Col. C. L. S. S.
 A. B. S. S.
 J. N. G. S. S.
 Major C. E. L. S. S.
 R. G. S. S.
 E. H. S. S.
 R. A. S. S.
 W. H. S. S.
 D. F. S. S.
 G. S. S.
 Bahadur Mahendra Chandra Mitra
 Rao Bahadur Raja Hari Singh of Manajan
 K. B. S. S.
 F. W. Thomas

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India.

This Order was instituted Jan. 1, 1878, and for a like purpose with the simultaneously created Order of the Indian Empire. It consists of the Queen and Queen Mother with sons & koyal Princesses, and the female relatives of Indian Princes or of persons who have held conspicuous offices in connection with India. Badge, the Royal Cypher in jewels within an oval surmounted by an Heraldic Crown and attached to a bow of light blue watered ribbon, edged white. Designation, the letters C. I.

Sovereign of the Order.

THE KING-EMPEROR OF INDIA.

Ladies of the Order (C. I.)

Her Majesty The Queen
 H. M. the Queen of Norway
 H. E. H. the Princess Royal

H. R. H. the P. S. C. A.
 H. M. The Queen of Roumania
 H. R. H. Princess Beatrice
 The Ex-Duchess of Cumberland
 H. R. H. The Princess of Hohenlohe-
 Langenburg
 H. R. H. the Princess Louise (Duchess of
 Argyll)
 H. I. & R. H. the Grand Duchess Ayil of
 Russia
 Lady Patricia Ramsay
 H. H. the Princess Marie-Louise
 Baroness Kinloss
 Lady Jane Emma Orlington
 Dowager Countess of Lytton
 Dowager Baroness Napier of Magdala
 Dowager Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava
 H. H. Maharani of Cooh-Behar
 Marchioness of Lansdowne
 Baroness Harris
 Constance Mary Baroness Wenlock
 H. H. Maharani Sabib Chitmas Bai Gaekwar
 H. H. Rani Sahib of Gondal
 H. H. the Dowager Maharani of Mysore
 Lady George Hamilton
 H. H. the Maharani Sahiba of Udaipur
 Alice, Baroness Northcote
 Amelia Maria, Lady White
 Mary Katherine, Lady Lockhart
 Baroness Amptill
 The Lady Willingdon
 Countess of Minto
 Marchioness of Crewe
 H. H. Begum of Bhopal
 France Charlotte, Lady Chelmsford
 Countess of Reading
 H. H. Maharani Sakhiya Raja Sahiba Scindia
 Ahijah Bahadur of Gwalior
 H. L. The Lady Irwin.

Distinctive Badges.—An announcement was made at the Coronation Durbar in 1911, that a distinctive badge should be granted to present holders and future recipients of the titles of 'Diwan Bahadur', 'Sardar Bahadur', 'Khan Bahadur', 'Rai Bahadur', 'Rao Bahadur', 'Khan Sahib', 'Rai Sahib' and 'Rao Sahib'. Subsequently the following regulations in respect of these decorations were issued:—(1) The decoration to be worn by the holders of the titles above mentioned shall be a badge or medallion bearing the King's effigy crowned and the name of the title, both to be executed on a plaque or shield surrounded by a five-pointed star surmounted by the Imperial Crown, the plaque or shield being of silver gilt for the titles of Diwan, Sardar, Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur, and of silver for the titles of Khan, Rai, and Rao Sahib. (2) The badge shall be worn suspended round the neck by a ribbon of one inch and a half in width, which for the titles of Diwan and Sardar Bahadur shall be light blue with a dark blue border, for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur light red with a dark red border, and for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Sahib dark blue with light blue border.

A Press Note issued in November, 1914, states:—The Government of India have recently had under consideration the question of the position in which miniatures of Indian titles should be worn, and have decided that they

should be worn with fastened by a brooch, and not suspended round the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the badge itself. When the miniatures are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaiser-i-Hind Medal.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907, by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words 'For Distinguished Service'. The medal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide, with blue edges $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Order of Merit.—This reward of valour was instituted by the H. E. I. Co in 1837, to reward personal bravery without any reference to length of service or good conduct. It is divided into three classes and is awarded to native officers and men for distinguished conduct in the field. On the advancement from one class to another the star is surrendered to the Government, and the superior class substituted, but in the event of the death of the recipient his relatives retain the decoration. The order carries with it an increase of one-third in the pay of the recipient, and in the event of his death the allowance is continued to his widow for three years. The First Class consists of a star of eight points, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter, having in the centre a ground of dark blue enamel bearing crossed swords in gold, within a gold circle, and the inscription 'Reward of Valour, the whole being surmounted by two wreaths of laurel in gold. The Second Class star is of silver, with the wreaths of laurel in gold; and the Third Class entirely of silver. The decoration is suspended from a simple loop and bar from a dark-blue ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in width with red edges, bearing a gold or silver buckle according to class.

Order of British India.—This order was instituted at the same time as the Order of Merit, to reward native commissioned officers for long and faithful service in the Indian Army. Since 1878, however, any person European or native, holding a commission in a native regiment, became eligible for admission to the Order without reference to creed or colour. The First Class consists of a gold eight-pointed radiated star $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter. The centre is occupied by a lion statant gardant upon a ground of light-blue enamel, within a dark-blue band inscribed 'Order of British India, and encircled by two laurel wreaths of gold. A gold loop and ring are attached to the crown for suspension from a broad ornamental band $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter, through which the ribbon, once blue, now red, is passed for suspension from the neck. The Second Class is $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. in diameter with dark-blue enamelled centre; there is no crown on this class, and the suspender is formed of an ornamental gold loop. The reverse is plain in both classes. The First Class carries with it the title Sirdar Bahadur, and an additional allowance of two rupees a day

Kaisar-i-Hind Medal

and a second of an day, and a third of one rupee per day.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal.—This was instituted on July 27th, 1858, and on receipt of the medal the order states "a non-commissioned officer must surrender his Long Service and Good Conduct medal"; but on being promoted to a commission he may retain the M. S. medal, but the immunity attached to it will cease. On the obverse is the effigies of bust of Queen Victoria facing left, with a wreath falling over the crown behind, inscribed by the

Queen Victoria Maharaj-Khind. On the reverse is a wreath of leaves and berries, having a star in the center, and the words "The Indian Meritorious Service Medal" in the center. The medal is suspended from a "cable" of red ribbon 1 1/2 in. wide. The medal is during the reigns of Queen Victoria and King Edward VII. their busts with the medal altered to EDWARD GEORGE.

THE KAISAR-I-HIND MEDAL.

This decoration was instituted in 1900, the preamble to the Royal Warrant—which was amended in 1901 and 1912—being as follows:—“Whereas We, taking into Our Royal consideration that there do not exist adequate means whereby We can reward important and useful services rendered to Us in Our India Empire in the advancement of the public interests of Our said Empire, and taking also into consideration the expediency of distinguishing such services by some mark of Our Royal favour: Now for the purpose of attaining an end so desirable as that of thus distinguishing such services aforesaid, We have instituted and created, and by these presents for Us, Our Heirs and Successors, do institute and create a new Decoration.” The decoration is styled “The Kaisar-i-Hind Medal for Public Service in India” and consists of two classes. The Medal is an oval shaped Badge or Decoration—in gold for the First Class and in silver for the Second Class—with the Royal Cypher on one side and on the reverse the words “Kaisar-i-Hind for Public Service in India.” It is suspended on the left breast by a dark blue ribbon.

Recipients of the 1st Class.

Abdus Samad Khan of Rampur
Achariyar, Diwan Bahadur Tirumalai Deak
Achariyar, Diwan Bahadur V. Krishna
Ayyanar Ramaswami
Ayyanar, M. S.
Ahmad, Khan Bahadur Qazi Khalil-ud-Din
Alvar, Mrs. Parvati Ammal Chandra Sekhara.
Alexander, A. L.
Aliya, Dr. (Miss) Jessie Mathilda, M.D.
Amersbach, Rao Bahadur Ramnathayan
Amphill, Margaret, Baroness
Anderson, The Rev. H.
Ashton, Albert Frederick
Ayyar, Dr. T. S. A. Chandyasekhara
Balfour-Smith, J. E.
Balfour, Dr. Ida
Banerji, Sir P. C.
Banks, Mrs. A. E.
Barber, Benjamin Russell
Barber, Rev. L.
Bare, Doctor Esther Gimson, M.D.
Barnes, Major Ernest
Barton, Mrs. Evelyn Agnes

Basu, Sir Kailas Chandra, Raj. of Patna
Beads, Dr.; American Mission
Beatty, Mrs. Georgiana Mary
Beatty, Francis Montagu Alcegon
Beck, Miss Emma Josephine
Bell, Lt.-Col. Charles Thornehill
Benson, Doctor (Miss) A. M.
Bessie, Lady
Bentley, Dr. Charles Herbert
Bertram, Rev. Father I.
Bhattacharya, A. H.
Bhandari, Raj Bahadur Lal Das
Bikant, Maharaja of
Birney, Major-General Alfred
Biswakar, Sander Parashram Krishna
Blair, Rev. Andrew, M.A.
Blowers, Commissioner Arthur Robert
Bonington, Max Carl Christian
Booth-Tucker, Frederick St. George d
Bossanquet, Oswald Evelyn
Bott, Captain R. H.
Brahmachari, Rao Bahadur D. N.
Brantley, Percy Brooke
Bray, Denys Desbunmarer
Broadway, Alexander
Brown, Rev. A. E.
Brown, Dr. Miss E.
Brown, Rev. W. E. W.
Bruntton, James Forest
Buchanan, Rev. John
Bull, Henry Martin
Burn, Richard
Burdett, General Sir Charles John
Caleb, Dr. G. O.
Calman, Denis
Campbell, Colonel Sir Robert Neil
Campbell, Dr. Miss S.
Campan, John Montreux
Carleton, Dr. (Miss) Jessie, M.D.
Carleton, Marcus Bradford
Carrile, Lady
Carmichael, Lady
Carter, Edward Clark
Castor, Lieut.-Col. R. H.
Chand, Sakhi, Raj Bahadur
Chand, Raj Bahadur Jai Tara
Chapman, R. A. B.
Chatterton, The Rev. Eyre, D. D.
Chatterton, Alfred
Chatterton, Mrs. L.
Chaudhuri, Raja Sarat Chandra Rai

Chetty, Dewan Bahadur K. P. Putanna
 Chitnavis, Sir Shaekar Madho
 Coldstream, William
 Comley, Mrs. Alice
 Commissariat, (Miss) Sheria Hormuzshaw
 Copeland, Theodore Benfey
 Coppel, Right Rev. Bishop Francis Stephens
 Corbett, Capt. J. E. (Retd.)
 Cousins, Henry
 Cox, Arthur Frederick
 Crawford, Francis Colomb
 Crosthwaite, The Rev. C. A.
 Crouch, H. N.
 Currimbhoy, Mahomedbhoy
 Dane, Lady
 Darbhanga, Maharaja of
 Darbyshire, Miss Ruth
 Das, Ram Saran
 Das, Sri Gadadhar Ramanuj
 Das, Rai Bahadur Lala Mathra
 Davies, Arthur
 Davies, Rev. Can. A. W.
 Davies, Mrs. Edwin
 Davis, The Rev. C.
 Davis, Miss Gertrude
 Dawson, Brevet-Colonel Charles Hutton
 Deane, Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert Edward
 Debi, Ravi Murari Kumari
 Devi, Maharani Parbaai
 deLotbiniere, Lieutenant-Colonel Alain C. Joly
 Devdhar, G. K.
 Dewas (Junior Branch), Maharaja of
 Dhar, Her Highness the Rani Sahiba Luxmibai,
 Pavar of
 Dhingra, Dr. Behari Lal
 Dobson, Mrs. Margaret
 Douglas, Dr. E.
 Drysdale, Rev. J. A.
 DuBern, Amedee George
 DuBern, Jules Emile
 Dyson, Colonel Thomas Edwards
 Earle, The Hon'ble Sir Archdale
 Evans, The Rev. J. C.
 Farrer, Miss E. M.
 Fatima Siddika, Begum Sahiba
 Ferard, Mrs. Ida Margaret
 Forbrooke, Mrs. M. E. A.
 Francis, Edward Belcham
 Garu, Diwan Bahadur D. Seshagiri Rao Pantulu
 Garu, Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandra Rao
 Pantulu
 Garu, Diwan Bahadur Raghupati Venkata-
 ratnam Nayudu
 Ghosal, Mr. Jyotsnanath
 Gilmore, The Rev. David Chandler
 Glazebrook, N. S.
 Glenn, Henry James Heamey
 Gonzaga, Rev. Mother
 Gordon, The Rev. D. R.
 Goschen, Viscountess
 Graham, Miss A. S.
 Gregory, Brother
 Graham, The Rev. John Anderson
 Graham, Mrs. Kate
 Gratlan, Colonel Henry William
 Griffin, Miss E.
 Guilford, The Rev. E. (with Gold Bar)
 Guyer, H. C.
 Gwyther, Lieut.-Colonel Arthur
 Hahn, The Rev. Ferdinand
 Hargreaves, Lieutenant-Colonel Patrick Balkov
 Hall,

Hamilton Major Robert Edward Archibald
 Hankin, E. H.
 Hanson, The Rev. O.
 Harper, Dr. R.
 Hart, Dr. Louisa Helena
 Harvest, Lieut.-Colonel Herbert de Vere
 Harvey, Miss R.
 Hatch, Miss Sarah Isabel
 Hawker, Miss A. M.
 Henrietta, Mother
 Rev, Miss D. C. deLay
 Hickinbotham, The Rev. J. H.
 Higginbotham, S.
 Hildesley, The Rev. Alfred Herbert
 Hodgson, Edward Marsden
 Hodgson, (Miss) F. A.
 Hoeck, Rev. Father L. V.
 Hogan, W. J. Alexander
 Holmes, Major, J. A. H.
 Holderness, Sir Thomas William
 Holland, H. T.
 Home, Walter
 Hopkins, Mrs. Jessie
 Hormusji, Dr. S. O.
 Houlton, Dr. (Miss) Charlotte, M.D.
 Howard, Mrs. Gabrielle Louise Caroline
 Hoyland, John Somerwell
 Hume, The Rev. R. A.
 Husband, Major James
 Hutchinson, Major William Gordon
 Hutchinson, Sir Sydney Hutton Cooper
 Hutwa, The Maharani Jnan Manjari Ku
 Hydari, Mrs. Amina
 Irvine, Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Walter
 Ismail, Muhammad Yusuf
 Ives, Harry William Maclean
 Iyer, Diwan Bahadur C. S.
 Jackson, Rev. James Chadwick
 James, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Henry
 Jankibai
 Jehangir, Mrs. Oowasji
 Jenrier, Rev. C. A. E.
 Jewood, Miss H. D.
 Josephine, Sister
 Kamrabi, Shri Rani Sahiba, of Jaskan
 Kapur, Raja Ban Bihari
 Kaye, G. R.
 Kelly, The Rev. E. W.
 Kerr, Mrs. Isabel
 Khan, Khan Bahadur Kuli
 Khan, Khan Bahadur Moghal Buz
 King, Mrs. D.
 Klopsch, Dr. Louis
 Knox, Lady (Bar to Kaiser-i-Hind Gold
 Kochamma, Sreemathu Vadasseri Ammu
 Ko, Taw Sein
 Kothari, Sir Jehangir Hormusji
 Kugelberg, Dr. C. F.
 Lamb, The Hon'ble Sir Richard Amphlett
 Lant, The Rev. W. E.
 Lee Ah Yain
 Lindsay, D'Arcy
 Ling, Miss Catharine Frances
 Loubiere, Rev. Father E. F. A.
 Lovett, The Hon'ble Mr. Harrington Ve
 Luck, Wilfred Henry
 Lukis, Lady
 Lyall, Frank Frederick
 Lyons, Surgeon-General Robert William
 MacLean, Rev. J. H.
 Macnaghten, M. F. M.

- Ray, L.
R. m. Co. Arthur Grant
Bainnall, Miss Nina Tillotson
Bai, Bibari Lal
Baker, Miss Lilian Winifred
Brough, The Rev. Anthony Watson
Browne, Charles Edward
Brown, Dr. Edith
Brown, Mrs. Jean
Buckley, Miss Margaret Elizabeth
Bucknall, Mrs. Mary
Bunter, J. P.
Burt, Bryce Chudleigh
Barton, Miss
Butt, Miss L.
Caio, Mrs. Sarah
Caleb, Mrs. M.
Callaghan, H. W.
Campbell, Miss Gertrude Jane.
Campbell, Miss Kate
Campbell, Miss Susan
Campbell, Miss Mary Jane
Campbell, The Rev. Thomas Vincent
Carmichael, Miss Amy Wilson
Carr, Miss Emma
Carr, Thomas
Cassels, Mrs. Laura Mary Elizabeth
Catherine, Sister
Cattell, Major Gilbert Landale
Cedina, Sister Fannie
Chakravarti, Rai Bahadur Birendra Nath
Chalmers, T.
Chamberlain, The Rev. William Isaac
Chandler, The Rev. John Scudder
Chatterji, Anadi Nath
Chatterjee, Mrs. Omil. Pala
Chetty, Mr. Carnapaty Vankata Krishnaswami
Chetti, Garu. Divan Laladur, Gogayath
Narasayanaswami.
Chetti, Mrs. C. K.
Chiras Din. Seth
Chitale, Ganesh Krishna
Chozmal, Karaldhan
Churchward, P. A.
Chye, Leong
Clancey, John Charles
Clark, Herbert George
Clark, Miss Flora
Claypole, Miss Henrietta
Clerk, Miss M.
Clarke, Honorary Major Louis Arthur Henry
Cleat, A. F.
Clutterback, Peter Henry
Cochro, V. A.
Coombs, George Oswald
Coombes, Josiah Waters
Cooper, Doodbhaj Pestonji, Khan Bahadur
Cooper, Miss Margorie Olive
Cope, Rev. Joseph Herbert
Correa, Miss Marie
Corthorn, Dr. Alice
Corti, The Rev. Father Fausti, S.J.
Cottle, Mrs. Adela
Coutts, J. E.
Cox, Mrs. E.
Coxon, Stanley William
Crow, Charles George
Crozier, Dr. J.
Cumming, James William Nicol
Cummings, The Rev. John Ernest
Cun. ge, Rev. William
DaCosta, Miss Ella Edith
Dabbhoy, Lady Jerbanoo
Dabban, A. G. W.
D'Aubiquigne, Capitainho Francis
Dalrymple-Hay, Charles Vernon
Daniel, J.
Daniels, Miss
Dann, Rev. George James
Das, Nam Lala
Das, Natunra Lala
Das, Niraman
Dass, Malik Nardyn
Datta, Dr. Dina Nath Pritha
Davison, Captain D. J.
Davies, Miss Harriet
Davis, Miss B. E.
Davis, Mrs. M. K.
Davys, Mrs. M. L.
Daw, Ann Susan
Dawson, Alexander Thomas
Dawson, Mrs. Charles Hutton
Deane, George Archibald
Deji, Hazl Ahmed, Khan Sahib
DeKuntrow, Mrs. Mary Aphra-ua
DeLa Croix, Sister Paul
Desmond, J.
Devi, Bibi Kashmiri
Dew, Lady
Dr. Wachtel, Father Francis Xavier
Dewes, Lieut.-Colonel Frederick Joseph
Dexter, T.
Dharm Chand, Lala
Dip Singh, Thakur
Dockrell, Major Morgan
Dodge, Dr. E. I.
Dundas, Charles Lawrence
Dunlop, Alexander Johnstone
Dun, Miss L. R.
Dunk, Mrs. M. R.
Dutt, Singh, Rao Bahadur
Dutta, Mehta Harman
Daval, Mrs. Ethel Aldersey
Dwan, Mrs. Mary
Eaglesome, George
Edgell, Lieut.-Colonel Edward Archib
Edward, R.
Elliot, Mrs. I. B.
Elwes, Mrs. A.
Emanuel, Mrs.
Esch, Dr. G. H.
Evans, The Rev. John Geredig
Evans, Miss Josephine Annie
Fane, Lady Kathleen Emily
Faridoonji, Mrs. Billa
Farrer, Miss Ellen Margaret
Fazand Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, Kazi Saifid
Fawcett, Mrs. Gertrude Mary
Fazal Elahi, Mrs. E. S.
Fernandez, A. P.
Fernandez, Father Muller's Charitable Institution
French, Lieut.-Colonel Thomas
Fisk, Miss N. B.
Fitzgerald, Mr. E. H.
Flashman, Thomas Charles
Fleming, James Francis
Fleming, Sister Mary
Fletcher, Miss

- Flint, Dr E
 Foghien, Rev. J. P.
 Ford, Miss Mary Angela
 Forman, The Rev. Henry
 Forrester, G
 Foster, Lieut. P.
 Foulkes, R.
 Fox, Alfred Charles
 Frances, Sister Jane
 Francis, W.
 Frau Liu, Miss M. H.
 Fraser, Robert Thomson
 Fryson, Hugh
 Gairola, Bai Bahadur Pandit Tara Dutt
 Gajjar, Mrs. Shivagauri
 Gabel, Ephraim Manasseh
 Galibai, Bai
 Gandhi, Mr. Pestonji Jamsetji
 Garthwaite, Liston
 Garg, Rev. J.
 Gaskell, W.
 Gateley, Thomas Joseph
 George, Miss Jessie Eleanor
 Ghamandi Singh, Lieut.-Col. Kanwar
 Ghose, Babu Mahatap Chandra
 Ghose, Babu J. N.
 Ghulam Bari, Mrs.
 Ghulam Murtaza Bhutto, Shah Nawaz
 Giffard, Mrs. Alice
 Gillespie, Harry Rupert Sylvester
 Gilmore, R. J.
 Godfrey, Thomas Leonard
 Goldsmith, The Rev. Canon Malcolm George
 Goodbody, Mrs.
 Gorman, Patrick James
 Goswami, Sri Sri Narader Dakshinpat Adhikar
 Gowardhandas, Chattrabhai
 Govind Lal, Lala
 Grant, Lieut.-Colonel John Weymes
 Grant, Miss Jean
 Grant, The Rev. John
 Grant, Dr. Edlian Wemyss
 Gravely, Mrs. Martha Booth
 Gray, Mrs. Hester
 Gray, Commissary William David
 Greany, Peter Mawe
 Greinfeld, Miss R.
 Greenwood, D. A.
 Greg, L. H.
 Griessen, Albert Edward Pierre.
 Gullford, The Rev. Henry
 Gumbley, Mr. Douglas
 Gune, Trimbak Raghunath
 Gyi, Maung Pet
 Hadow, Rev. Frank Burness
 Halvati Malik
 Haji Hakim Muhammad Abdul Aziz Sahab,
 Khan Bahadur.
 Hanrahan, W. G.
 Harding, Miss C.
 Harendra Kumar Chakrabarti.
 Harris, Miss A. M.
 Harris, Dr. B.
 Harris, Miss S.
 Harrison, Henry
 Harrison, Mrs. M. F.
 Harrison, Robert Tullis
 Harvey, Miss Minnie Elizabeth
 Harvey, Miss Rose
 Haworth, Major Lionel Berkeley Holt
 Hayat, Miss Mary
 E y Captain P
 Hubbard, Miss J. F.
 Hickman, Mrs. Agnes
 Hicks, Rev. G. E.
 Higgins, Andrew Frank
 Hill, Elliott
 Hill, Henry Francis
 Hodgson, Florence Amy
 Hoff, Sister, W. J. K.
 Hoffman, The Rev. Father J.
 Hogg, Harry William
 Holbrooke, Major Bernard Tre
 Holden, Major Hyla Napier
 Holdforth, Miss E. J.
 Holliday, Miss Eileen Mabel
 Holman, Miss Charlotte
 Homer, Charles John
 Hoogewerf, Edmund
 Hope, Dr. Charles Henry Stan
 Hopkyns, Mrs. E.
 Hoskings, Rutherford Vincent
 Houghton, Henry Edward
 Htin Kyaw, Mung
 Hughes, Frank John
 Hughes, Miss Elizabeth Bell
 Hunter, Honorary Captain Jan
 Hutchings, Miss Emily
 Hutchinson, Dr. John
 Ibrahim, Maulvi Muhammad
 Ihsan Ali
 Inglis, Mrs. Ellen
 Ireland, The Rev. W. F.
 Jackson, Mrs. Emma
 Jackson, Mrs. E.
 Jaijee Bai (Mrs Petit)
 Jainath, Atal Pandit
 Janna Prasad
 Jamshed Dadabhai Munsiff
 Janakibai Bhatt, Mrs.
 Jervis, Mrs. Edith
 Jerwood, Miss H.
 Jivanandan
 Joglekar, Rao Bahadur Ganesh
 John, Rev. Brother
 Johnston, Augustus Frederick
 Johnstone, Mrs Edith Alma
 Johnstone, Mrs. Rosalie
 Jones, Rev. D. E.
 Jones, The Rev. John Peter
 Jones, The Rev. Robert
 Jones, The Rev. John Pengwe
 Jones, A. V.
 Jones, Mrs. J. B.
 Joshi, Narayan Mathar
 Joshi, Trimbak Waman
 Joss, Miss F.
 Joti Prasad, Lala
 Joti Ram
 Joyce, Mrs. E. L.
 Judd, C. R.
 Jugaldas, M.
 Jung, Sher, Khan Bahadur
 Jwala Prasad, Mrs.
 Jwala Singh, Sirdar
 Kalubawa, Azam Kesarkhan
 Kanow, Yasuf
 Kapadia, M. K.
 Kapadia, Miss Motibai
 Karanjia, Mr. B. N.
 Karve, Dhondo Keshav
 K Mrs;

n. H.
 Ashura, In. Gopal Chandra
 Chavkar, Miss Krishnabai
 e., Claude Cyril
 ally, Miss Eleanor Sarah
 amp, V. N., The Rev.
 or Thomas
 Kanchana Sello
 ban, Hon. Lieut-Nawab Jamshed Ali
 harshadji, Miss S. K.
 hujoorina, Nadirbhai Nowrojee
 dar Nath, Lala
 ng, Rev. Dr. R. A
 ing Robert Stewart
 blockar, Lakshman Kashinath
 stehin, Mrs. M.
 ligit, H. W.
 nolls, Lieut-Col. Robert Walter Edward
 nox, Major Robert Veband
 othewala, Mulia Yusuf An
 reyer, Lieut-Colonel Frederick August
 Christian
 rahman, Rao Bahadur Kottayi
 urier, Miss Anna Sarah
 amaran, P. L.
 gla Ram
 li, Miss Grace Sohan.
 mb, Dr. J.
 mbour, G. E.
 ng, John
 nghorne, Frederick James
 nkester, Dr. Arthur Colborne
 tham, Miss J. L.
 nglitz, Miss L. H. M.
 wrence, Captain Henry Bunde
 wrence Henry Staveley
 at, A. M.
 alle-Jones, Le, cester Hudson
 ble, Mr. M.
 oyd, Miss Elizabeth
 oyd, Mrs. E. M.
 bo, Miss Ursula Maria.
 cke, Robert Henry
 nghurst, Miss H. G.
 w, Charles Ernest
 ice, Miss L. E.
 rok, Miss Florence Ada
 ind George
 icAlster, The Rev. G.
 ickay, Rev. J. S.
 ickenzie, Alexander McGregor
 ickenzie, Howard
 ickenzie, Miss Mina
 ickinson, Miss Grace
 icleod, Lieut.-Colonel John Norman
 icKellar, Dr. Margaret
 ickne, H. C.
 icphall, Miss Alexandrina Matilda
 icphall, The Rev. James Merry
 icras The Rev. Alexander
 idan, Mr. Rustamji Hormasji
 iddox, Lieut.-Colonel Ralph Henry
 ideler, Mrs. E. M.
 ih-devi, Srimati
 ohammed Allauur Khau
 den J. W.
 utra Babu Bhuban Mohan
 ikh Sashi Bhusan
 ndayan Anandapillai Tirumarayana Acharya
 nivar
 racan, Esmail Kadir
 izing Mary Stiel

14
 Marko F. Mrs. Atal Ardashur
 Marshall, W. J.
 Mary of St. Vincent, Sister
 Mary, Sister Eleanor
 Masani, Kustam Pestonji
 Mathias, P. P.
 Maung Maung
 McCarthy, Lady.
 McCowen, Oliver Hill
 McDonald, Joseph James
 McGregor, Duncan
 McMillan, Hugh William
 McWhick, Leslie
 McKee, Roy William John
 MacKenzie, Lady Esther Florence
 McKenzie, Miss Anne Leardmouth
 McMaster, Dr. Elizabeth, M.D.
 Mead, Rev. Cecil Silas
 Mederlet, Rev. Father C.
 Mehta, Mrs. H. L. S. S. S. S.
 Mehta, Khan Sahib M. N.
 Mehta, Vaikuntal Lalubhai
 Hill, Mrs. C. R.
 Miller, Capt. L. G.
 Mirikar, Narayanrao Yashwant
 Misra, Miss Sundri Singh
 Mitcheson, Miss
 Mitra, Mrs. Dora
 Mitter, Mrs.
 Modi, D. M.
 Mohammed Khan
 Moitra, Akhoy Kumar
 Mon. F.
 Moon, Dr. Albert Louis
 Moore, Mother T.
 Moore, Nursing Sister Dora Louisa Truscove
 Moore, Miss Eleanor Louisa
 Morgan, Miss Elizabeth Ellen
 Morris, Major Robert Lee
 Motilal, Seth of Piparia
 Mount, Captain Alan Henry
 Moxon, Miss Lina
 Mozzadar, Jatin Nath
 Mudaliar, Rao Sahib Conjeevaram Menakam.
 Mudali, Valappakkam Daivasayamoni Than-
 davarayan
 Mugaseeth, Dr. K. D.
 Muhammad Usman Sahib.
 Muhammad Yusuf, Shams-ul-Ulama, Khan
 Bahadur
 Muller, Miss Jenny
 Murphy, Edwin Joseph
 Mya, U. Po.
 Nag, Mrs. Sasi Mukhi
 Naimullah, Mohamed
 Nand Lal
 Naoum Albo
 Napier, Alan Bertram
 Narain, Har
 Narayan Ganaji Rao. Rao Sahib
 Narayanjee Laljee
 Narayan Singh, Rai Sahib
 Nariman, Khan Bahadur Manekji Khagsedji
 Nargat Singh, Babu
 Nasrulla Khan, Mirza
 Nasrull, Miss N. P.
 Naydu, Rao Sahib Gopal Rao Gangayyaku

THE VICTORIA CROSS.

The announcement, made at the Delhi Durbar in 1911, that in future Indians would be eligible for the Victoria Cross, gave satisfaction which was increased during the War and afterwards by the award of that decoration to the following:—

Subadar (then Sepoy) Khudadad Khan, 120th Baluchis.—On 31st October 1914, at Rollebeke, Belgium, the British Officer in charge of the detachment having been wounded, and the other gun put out of action by a shell, Sepoy Khudadad, though himself wounded, remained working his gun until all the other five men of the gun detachment had been killed.

Naick Darwan Sing Negi, 1-39th Gurkha Rifles.—For great gallantry on the night of the 23rd-24th November 1914 near Festubert, France, when the Regiment was engaged in taking and clearing the enemy out of our trenches, and, although wounded in two places in the head, and also in the arm, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and rifles at the closest range.

Subadar (then Jamadar) Mir Dast, 56th Coke's Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery and great ability at Ypres on 26th April 1915, when he led his platoon with great gallantry during the attack, and afterwards collected various parties of the Regiment (when no British Officers were left) and kept them under his command until the retirement was ordered. Jamadar Mir Dast subsequently on this day displayed remarkable courage in helping to carry eight British and Indian Officers into safety, whilst exposed to very heavy fire.

Rifleman Kulbir Thapa, 2-3rd Gurkha Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery during operations against the German trenches south of Manyniaart. When himself wounded, on the 25th September 1915, he found a badly wounded soldier of the 2nd Leicestershire Regiment behind the first line German trench, and though urged by the British soldier to save himself, he remained with him all day and night. In the early morning of the 26th September, in misty weather, he brought him out through the German wire, and, leaving him in a place of comparative safety, returned and brought in two wounded Gurkhas one after the other. He then went back in broad daylight for the British soldier and brought him in also, carrying him most of the way and being at most points under the enemy's fire.

Hayildar (then Lance-Naick) Lala, 41st Dogras.—Finding a British Officer of another regiment lying close to the enemy he dragged him into a temporary shelter which he himself had made, and in which he had already bandaged four wounded men. After bandaging his wounds he heard calls from the Adjutant of his own Regiment who was lying in the open severely wounded. The enemy were not more than one hundred yards distant, and it seemed certain death to go out in that direction, but Lance-Naick Lala insisted on going out to his Adjutant, and offered to crawl back with him on his back once. When

this was not permitted, he stripped off his own clothing to keep the wounded officer warmer and stayed with him till just before dark when he returned to the shelter. After dark he carried the first wounded officer back to the main trenches, and then, returning with a stretcher carried back his Adjutant. He set a magnificent example of courage and devotion to his officers.

Sepoy Chatta Singh, 9th Bhopal Infantry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in leaving cover to assist his Commanding Officer who was lying wounded and helpless in the open. Sepoy Chatta Singh bound up the officer's wound and then dug cover for him with his entrenching tool, being exposed all the time to very heavy rifle fire. For five hours until daylight he remained beside the wounded officer shielding him with his own body on the exposed side. He then under cover of darkness, went back for assistance and brought the officer into safety.

Naick Shahamat Khan, 89th Punjabis.—For most conspicuous bravery. He was in charge of a machine-gun section in an exposed position in front of and covering a gap in our new line within 150 yards of the enemy's entrenched position. He beat off three counter-attacks, and worked his gun single-handed after all his men, except two belt-fillers, had become casualties. For three hours he held the gap under very heavy fire while it was being made secure. When his gun was knocked out by hostile fire he and his two belt-fillers held their ground with rifles till ordered to withdraw. With three men sent to assist him he then brought back his gun, ammunition, and one severely wounded man unable to walk. Finally, he himself returned and removed all remaining arms and equipment except two shotels. But for his great gallantry and determination our line might have been penetrated by the enemy.

Lance-Bafedar Govind Singh, 23rd Cavalry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in thrice volunteering to carry messages between the regiment and brigade headquarters, a distance of 14 miles, over open ground which was under the observation and heavy fire of the enemy. He succeeded each time in delivering his message although on each occasion his horse was shot, and he was compelled to finish the journey on foot.

Rifleman Karan Bahadur Rana, 23rd Gurkha Rifles.—For conspicuous bravery and resource in action under adverse conditions, and utter contempt of danger during an attack. He with a few other men succeeded, under intense fire, in creeping forward with a Lewis gun in order to engage an enemy machine gun which had caused severe casualties to officers and other ranks who had attempted to put it out of action. No. 1 of the Lewis gun party opened fire and was shot immediately. Without a moment's hesitation Karan Bahadur pushed the dead man off the gun, and in spite of bombs thrown at him and heavy fire from both flanks, he opened fire and knocked out the enemy machine gun crew. Then switching his fire on the enemy's machine gun he

and himself in action, and showed the greatest coolness in removing obstacles which had twice prevented the gun from firing. He did magnificent work during the remainder of the day and when a withdrawal was ordered, assisted with covering fire until the enemy was close to him. He displayed throughout a very high standard of valour and devotion to duty.

Ressalder Badli Singh, 14th Lancers attached 39th Lancers.—For most conspicuous bravery and self-sacrifice on the morning of the 23rd September 1918, when his squadron charged a strong enemy position on the west bank of the River Jordan, between the river and Kh. es Samurieh Village. On reaching the position Ressalder Badli Singh realised that the squadron was suffering casualties from a small hill on the left front occupied by machine guns and 200 infantry. Without the slightest hesitation he collected six other ranks and with the greatest dash and an entire disregard of danger charged and captured the position, thereby saving very heavy casualties to the squadron. He was mortally wounded on the very top of the hill when capturing one of the machine guns jungle-banded, but all the machine guns and infantry had surrendered

before he died. His valour and initiative are of the highest order.

Rifleman Gobar Singh Negi, 2nd Battalion 20th Garawal Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery on 10th March 1918 at Neuve Chapelle. During an attack on the German position he was one of a bayonet party with bombs which entered their mine trench, and was the first man to go forward each time, driving back the enemy until they were eventually forced to surrender. He was killed during this engagement.

Sepoy Ishaw Singh, 20th Punjabis.—For devotion and bravery "quite beyond all praise" in Westkhan on 10th April, 1921. He received a severe gunshot wound in the chest while carrying a Lewis gun, and when all the machine-guns had been killed or disabled he struggled to his feet, called to his assistants two men, and charged and recaptured the gun, restoring it to action. He refused medical attention, insisting first on pointing out where the other wounded were and on carrying water to them. While the medical man was attending to these wounded he shielded him with his body and he submitted to medical attention himself only after he was exhausted through three hours' continued effort and by loss of blood.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

A.—British Subjects.

1. British Indian passports are only issued to British subjects and to British-protected persons.

2. The Indian Passport Regulations do not require persons to obtain passports before embarking from any port in British India, but as practically every other country requires travellers to be in possession of passports for landing, intending travellers are advised to have passports before embarkation. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Royal Indian Marine Service travelling on duty and members of the families of such persons when travelling to the United Kingdom at Government expense need not have passports.

3. Passports are not required for journeys by sea from Bombay to British ports in India or to Burma or Ceylon; nor are passports required by British Indian subjects travelling to the Federated Malay States or the Straits Settlements, unless they propose to continue their journey onward.

4. As a passport is valid for five years, there is no objection to anyone applying for a passport weeks or even months in advance of the date of sailing, and much inconvenience and in some cases serious trouble will be avoided by early application. A notice of at least four days should be given for the preparation of a new passport and at least two days for an endorsement, renewal or visa.

5. In order to obtain a passport an application form, showing, among other things, the destination, route and reasons for the proposed journey, must be filled up by the applicant and certified by a Political Officer, Magistrate, Justice of the Peace, Police Officer not below

the rank of Superintendent, or Notary Public resident in India. Copies of this form can be obtained from any District Magistrate, from the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, by post from the Passport Office to the Government of Bombay, by personal application at the Passport Office, or from any of the leading Banks and Shipping Agents in Bombay. Two unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant, 3 should be submitted. Fees are not accepted.

6. The application form when filled up should either be posted with the photographs and fee to the Passport Office to the Government of Bombay, or should be presented in person at the Passport Office, Bombay.

7. The Passport Office in Bombay is situated in the Civil Secretariat. The office is open from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m. daily, except on Saturdays when it closes at 1 p.m. and on Sundays and public holidays when it is not open at all.

8. The Passport Officer cannot issue passports outside the working hours shown above, and the preparation of a passport takes time. Applicants, therefore, who postpone application to the last moment do so at their own risk.

Iraq.

9. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Indian Forces in uniform, and *bona fide*, Muhammadan pilgrims travelling in organised parties and holding a pilgrim pass do not require passports for the journey to Iraq. All other travellers must be in possession of passports, which, except in the case of *bona fide* representatives of firms, persons on a short visit to Iraq or merely passing

not be granted without the previous permission of the local authorities in Iraq. The Passport Officer will, on request, ask for this permission by post, or, if the applicant is prepared to defray the cost of a telegram by cable. Applicants must state clearly the nature of their business and one or more references in Iraq from whom the local authorities can make inquiries regarding the bona fide of their journey.

10. Restrictions also exist on travel to various parts of the British Empire and to certain foreign countries. Amongst these may be mentioned Australia, Canada, Constantinople, Egypt, Gibraltar, Mohammedan and Abadan, New Zealand, Palestine, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, South West Africa and the United States of America. The restrictions apply particularly to Indians. Detailed particulars with respect to each country will be supplied on application.

Foreign Countries.

11. Passports for journeys to or through foreign countries require, after issue, the visa of the Consul concerned. The addresses of the foreign consulates in Bombay are shown below. Visas are, however, not necessary for Belgium, Denmark, France, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, and Luxembourg, provided the names of these countries are entered on the passport.

Renewal.

12. Passports issued before the 1st December 1925 were valid for periods of two years only, whilst those issued after that date are valid for five years. All passports however may be renewed for periods of from one to five years at the option of the holder from the date of expiration, but in no case can a passport be extended beyond ten years from the original date of issue. On expiration of that period, or, if at any time the space provided for visas is covered, and the holder wishes to travel to countries for which fresh visas are required, a new passport must be obtained. Application for renewal must be made in the prescribed form copies of which may be had from any of the officers mentioned in paragraph 5 above. The fee for renewal is Re. 1 for each year, or portion of a year for which the passport is renewed.

Endorsements.

13. A passport is valid only for the country or countries endorsed on it and fresh endorsements from a British Passport authority are not needed during the validity of the passport for subsequent journeys to these countries. Fresh endorsements may, however, be obtained on the passport for additional countries. Passports endorsed as valid for the British Empire are also available for travelling to territories

under British protection or mandate, not however to Palestine, Iraq or Egypt for which countries the passport must be specifically endorsed. No fee is payable for an endorsement.

Marriage.

14. A lady on marriage or re-marriage requires a fresh passport.

15. In the case of a joint passport issued in favour of a husband and wife, the latter cannot travel alone on it, but should take out a fresh passport, surrendering the joint passport for cancellation of her name from it.

B.—Foreigners.

16. No foreigner can hold a British passport.

17. Foreigners proceeding direct to their own countries or to, or through, any other foreign countries do not require a British visa on their passports. The nationals of the following countries do not require a British visa for travelling to the United Kingdom (This concession also applies to certain nationals proceeding to certain British Dominions and Colonies and information on this point can be obtained from the Passport Officer):—

Belgium, Denmark, France, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Liechtenstein and Luxembourg.

18. Foreigners who are subjects of the countries shown below and who are travelling to British territories for which a British visa is necessary should first obtain passports from their consular representatives and should then present them to the Passport Officer for visa, together with a written statement of the reasons for the journey. If the passport of a foreigner bears a British visa which terminates in India and the holder desires to undertake another journey to a territory under British jurisdiction, he should first obtain an endorsement from his consular representative and then present it to the Passport Officer for visa. There are three kinds of visas granted, viz., the Non-transit, Transit and Transshipment. Fees for these vary according to rates charged to British subjects by the foreign countries concerned.

19. Other foreigners should apply for Identity Certificates through the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, or, where such foreigners, reside in the mofussil, through the District Magistrate of the district in which they are residing. Two copies of the applicant's photograph should accompany the application. The fee for a Certificate of Identity is Re. 1-8-0.

20. The holder of a foreign passport who has obtained a visa granted by a British Passport Authority outside India for a destination which involves landing in, or passing through, India does not need a further visa from the authorities in India.

ADDRESSES OF FOREIGN CONSULATES IN BOMBAY.

Afghanistan.—Amir's Bungalow, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill.

Austria.—C/o S. Stella & Co., Tin Building, Wallace Street.

Belgium and Luxembourg.—Central Bank Bldg., Top Floor, Meadow Street, Fort.

Brazil.—Asia Building, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate.

Denmark.—Shaw Wallace & Co., Ballard Estate, Whitst Road.

Cuba.—Prag Mahal, Dhobi Talao.

Czecho-Slovakia.—28, Rampart Row, 3rd Floor

ment. The School buildings are quite, although they are in the heart of the city. The School provides facilities for more than 4,000 pupils, etc. The considerable proportion of the spoken languages instruction is given by teachers belonging to the countries where the languages are spoken, as it is the aim of the School to provide as far as possible both European and Oriental Lecturers in the principal languages included in the curriculum.

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientalists not on the staff. Various Scholarships are given.

The School possesses noble and adequate buildings, in Flaxbury Circus, provided by the British Government under the London Institution (Transfer) Act of 1912. The sum of £25,000 required for the alteration and extension of the buildings of the London Institution for the purposes of the School was voted by Parlia-

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientalists not on the staff. Various Scholarships are given.

Patron, H. M. the King, Chairman of the
Governing Body, Sir Harry L. Stephen, M. N.
Director, Professor Sir E. Denksa Ross, C.I.E.,
F.R.S.

Teaching Staff.

Name.	Subjects.	Status.
1. Sir Thomas W. Arnold, C.B.E., M.A., D. Litt., Arabic (Classical) Professor.
2. T. Graham Bailey, M.A., B.D., D. Litt. Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)	.. Reader.
3. I. D. Burnett, M.A., Litt.D. Indian History and Sanskrit	.. Lecturer.
2. C. O. Blagden, M.A., D. Litt. Malay Reader.
4. J. Percy Bruce, M.A., D. Litt. Chinese Professor
G. H. Darab Khan Persian Lecturer.
1. Caroline A. F. Rye Davids, M.A., D. Litt. Pali
1. W. Doderer, M.A., L.C.S. (retired) Gujarati
5. H. H. Dodwell, M.A. History Professor.
Sheikh Kadhim Dnyail Arabic (Mesopotamian) Lecturer.
E. Dora Edwards, M.A. Chinese (Mandarin)
3. H. A. K. Gibb, M.A. Arabic (Classical)
J. Withers Gill, O.B.E. Hausa
8. Sir Walsley Haig, K.C.M.G., C.S.I., C.M.G., C.B.L., M.A. Persian
W. A. Hertz, C.S.I. Burmese
G. E. Hes, O.B.E., M.A. Arabic
Commander N. E. Isenmauger, R.N. (retired) Japanese
Sheikh H. Abdel Kader Arabic (Egyptian)
S. G. Kanhere Marathi and Sanskrit
G. E. Leeson Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)
5. A. Lloyd-James, M.A. Phonetics
3. Count Leon Ostrowski, LL.D. Ottoman Law Non Lecturer.
2. W. Sutton Page, O.B.E., B.A., B.D. Bengali Reader.
2. J. G. F. Palmer Hindustani Lecturer.
Ali Riza Bey Turkish
7. Sir R. Denison Ross, C.B.E., M.D. Persian Professor.
3. A. Saboundiers, I.C.S. (retired) Indian Law Lecturer.
C. C. Sha Mandarin and Chinese Classics
S. Topalan Armenian and Turkish
8. R. L. Turner, M.C., M.A. Sanskrit Professor.
6. I. Wartski, B.A. Modern Hebrew Lecturer.
9. Alice Werner, LL.A. Swahili & other Bantu languages Professor.
Mary Werner Swahili Lecturer.
2. M. de Z. Wickramasinghe, M.A. Tamil and Telugu Reader.
Do. Sinhalese and Malayalam Lecturer.
S. Yoshitake Japanese
1. University Professor of Arabic and Appointed Teacher.		
2. University Reader and Appointed Teacher.		
3. Recognised Teacher in the University of London.		
4. University Professor of Chinese and Appointed Teacher.		
5. University Professor of the History and Culture of British Dominions in Asia, with special reference to India and Appointed Teacher.		
6. Abud Ra'um Lectureship in Modern Hebrew.		
7. University Professor of Persian and Appointed Teacher.		
8. University Professor of Sanskrit and Appointed Teacher.		
9. University Professor of Swahili and other Bantu languages and Appointed Teacher		

The fisheries of India, potentially rich, as yet yield a mere fraction of what they could were they exploited in a fashion comparable with those of Europe, North America or Japan. The fishing industry, particularly the marine section, has certainly expanded considerably within the last 50 years concurrently with improvement in the methods of transport and increase in demand for fish, eel as well as fish, from the growing populations of the great cities within reach of the seaboard. The caste system, however, exerts a blighting influence on progress: fishing and the fish trade are universally relegated to low caste men who, either from their want of education, the isolation caused by their work and caste, and their extreme conservatism, are among the most ignorant, suspicious and prejudiced of the population, extremely averse from amending the methods of their forefathers and almost universally without the financial resources requisite to the adoption of new methods, even when convinced of their value. Higher caste capitalists have hitherto fought shy of association with the low caste fishermen, and, except in the case of joint stock companies to engage in large operations on new lines, these capitalists cannot be counted upon to assist in the development of Indian fisheries. As in Japan, it appears that the general conditions of the industry are such that the initiative must necessarily be taken by Government in the uplift and education of the fishing community and in the introduction and testing of new and improved apparatus and methods.

The first local Government to lead the way was that of Madras which in 1905 initiated an investigation of the industry, both marine and fresh-water, appointing Sir F. A. Nicholson to supervise operations. It was followed suit in 1908, and from these beginnings have sprung the local Fisheries Departments of Madras, Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Bombay, the remaining seaboard province, has comparatively small fresh-water interests compared with Madras and Bengal, and as it happens that her marine fisheries are favoured with good harbours and the most enterprising race of seafishermen in India, there was less urgent need for State help in this industry. Fisheries there were a subject of Government solicitude for five years after the war but they finally ceased to receive any attention after the abolition in 1924 of the short lived Department of Industries to which this subject was allotted.

Madras.

The Madras coast line of 1,750 miles is margined by a shallow-water area within the 100 fathom line of 10,000 sq. miles; outside of a mere fringe of shallow water, this vast expanse of fishable water has little and unproductive. The surf-swept East Coast is singularly deficient in harbours whereon fishing fleets can be based, and so from Calicut to Nizampatnam, the unsinkable catamaran, composed of logs tied side by side, is the only possible seagoing fishing craft. Its limitations circumscribe the fishing power of its owners and consequently these men are poor, and the produce of their best efforts meagre compared with what it would be if better and larger boats were available and possible. The West coast is more favoured.

From September till April weather conditions are good enough to permit even August canoes to fish daily. The people of this coast are fond of fish and no difficulty is found in disposing of the catch. The population is a large one. The 1921 Census gave 66,994 adults as subsisting on fishing industries in Malabar and South Kanara a small number after all considering their immense wealth of fish. The chief fishes are sardines, mackerel, rattallies and jewfishes (skate or goby); the two first overshadow all others. So greatly in excess of food requirements are the catches of sardines that every year large quantities are turned into oil and manure. The 1921-22 season was a slight improvement over that of 1921-22 for these tons of oil and 9,500 tons of manure were manufactured as against 2,200 tons of oil and 4,900 tons of manure in the previous year. Fishing outside the 100 fathom line is little in volume save by Bombay boats (Rattallies) which are engaged in drift netting for haddock, and other month-sized fishes. These drift nets are entered by fishing boats and bring large catches into Malabar and Mangalore and other commercial centres; the material is largely cured for export.

Fish curing is practised extensively everywhere on the Madras coast; the present success is due primarily to Dr. Francis Day who, after an investigation during 1869-71 of the fisheries of the whole of India, pressed for the grant to fishermen of duty-free salt for curing purposes within fenced enclosures. He advocated much else, but the time was not ripe and the salt concession was the sole tangible result of his long and honourable efforts. His salt suggestions were accepted by the Madras Government, and from 1882 a gradually increasing number of yards or bonded enclosures were opened at which salt is issued free of duty and upon as rates below the local cost of the salt to Government. At present about 167 of such yards are scattered along the coast and over 55,000 tons of wet fish are annually cured therein. The total receipts on the administration of these yards for the year 1925-26 was Rs. 3,93,370 and expenditure Rs. 3,76,949. The credit balance on the year's working was therefore Rs. 16,421.

Pearl and Chank Fisheries.—The activities of 1924-25 were more than realised in the remunerative and successful pearl fishery which was held at Tuticorin last February and March.

The last pearl fishery of any consequence was in the year 1858 more than a quarter of a century ago. Under the British Rule there have been 16 pearl fisheries including the present. In magnitude the fishery held in 1925 stands fourth. The three previous fisheries which yielded a larger revenue were in the years 1807, 1810 and 1800-01. In the last 100 years the 1925 fishery ranks second and in the last half a century it is easily the first.

The total number of oysters fished was 14,046,839. The fishery yielded a substantial net revenue of Rs. 1,00,237-5-11 indicating both the value of scientific control by a technical department and the efficiency and accuracy of the inspection, survey and estimates. A cursory examination of the pearl banks this year, so far as moonsoon permitted, shows the continuance of oysters on the Thalayadam Par (banks)

and consequently the possibility of another very early start.

Though the best chank season (February and March) was spent in pearl-fishing the premature closure of the pearl fishery, and the long spell of hot weather extending till the middle of May combined with the fact that the divers were in the department's an or chank fisheries to and while very ne. chanks in normal el had, in spite of the pearl fisheries. The net returns therefore from chank fisheries amounted the year to Rs. 2,842-11-6 against Rs. 3,544 in 1924-25. The net profit for 1925-26 was therefore only Rs. 1,64,819.

The Inland Fisheries of Madras compare unfavourably with those of Bengal. Many of the rivers dry up in the hot season and few of the many thousands of irrigation tanks throughout the province hold water for more than 6 to 9 months. As a consequence inland fisheries are badly organized and few men devote themselves to fishing as their sole, or even main, occupation. The custom is to neglect or ignore the fishery value of these streams and tanks so long as they are full of water; only when the streams shrink to pools and the tanks to puddles do the owners or lessees of the fishing rights turn out to catch fish. The result is a dearth of fish throughout the greater part of the year, a glut for a few days, and often much waste in consequence. The chief fresh-water fishes of economic importance are the murrel, notable for its virtue of living to considerable depth out of water, various carps, and catfishes, the hilsa (in East Coast rivers only), and the catfish. In the Nilgiris, the Rambow trout has been acclimated and thrives well. The Government working in conjunction with the Nilgiri Game Association maintain a hatchery at Avalanche where quantities of fry are hatched and raised for the replenishment of the streams of the plateau. The net profits on Inland fishery in 1925-26 were Rs. 8,877.

The Madras Department of Fisheries. As Government attention has been given in Madras over a longer period to the improvement of fisheries, and a larger staff concentrated upon the problems involved than elsewhere, this Presidency has now the proud position or knowing that her fisheries and collateral industries are better organized and more progressive than those in other provinces. The credit for the wonderful success which has been achieved and the still greater promise of the future, is due in large measure to the wise and cautious plans of Sir F. A. Nicholson, who from 1895 to 1918 had the guidance of affairs entrusted to him. In 1905 he was appointed on special duty to investigate existing conditions and future potentialities; in 1907, a permanent status was given by the creation of a fisheries bureau and this in turn has developed into a separate Department of Government which till August 1923 was being administered by Mr. James Hornell, F.R.S., as Director, and is now controlled by his successor, Dr. B. Sundara Raj M.A., Ph.D. The higher staff consists of a Superintendent of Pearl and Chank Fisheries, three Assistant Directors and a Cannery Superintendent. These are respectively in charge of (a) the fisheries (pearling, banks

beche-de-mer, etc.); (b) the co-operative and socio-economic side of the Department's operations; (c) inland pisciculture, (d) deep sea fishing and salt-transport and (e) the experimental and demonstration fish canneries at Chaiyann in South Malabar. Other officers have charge respectively of sections dealing with education and industrial work, which include a Training Institute for village teachers, fish-curing yards, and oil and guano factories. All the public fish-curing yards till now under the control of the Salt and Abkari Department have passed into the charge of the Fisheries Department. It is now possible to introduce the better methods of cure and improved hygiene which the Department has been striving to popularise, in all the yards. Due to the transfer of the yards the Fisheries Department has a large ramified staff of yard officers (Salt Sub-Inspectors, Petty Yard Officers and peons in almost every large fishing village on the coast. Besides the direct work of issuing salt for curing, the Department will now set itself to train these officers into expert advisers in curing methods and marketing fish, social workers for the inculcation of thrift co-operative and progressive ideas and new industries and lastly as trained observers for recording and reporting on various biological questions connected with fish and fisheries and collecting statistics regarding the value and quantity of sea fish caught and landed.

The activities of the Department are so varied and far-reaching that it is difficult even to enumerate them in the space available much less to give details. So far its most notable industrial successes have been the reform of manufacturing processes in the fish oil trade, the creation of a fishguano industry the establishment of a fish cannery and the development of canned goods other than sardines, which alone had been canned previously in Malabar, and the opening of an oyster farm conducted under hygienic conditions. (For details see the Bulletins of the Department issued from the Government Press, Madras) seventeen volumes have been issued to date and the eighteenth volume is in press. All this work has been carried on under serious handicap for want of suitable accommodation for the research staff.

Marine Aquarium.—Perhaps a word is necessary about this institution at Madras. The building was constructed under the auspices of the Superintendent, Government Museum, Madras, and was thrown open to the public on 21st October 1909. The Superintendent, Government Museum, had charge of the Aquarium for ten years till 1919 when it was transferred to the Department of Fisheries.

Ever since its opening, being the first of its kind in Asia, it has been immensely popular with the public. The number of visitors rose during the year to 111,931 from 89,027 in the previous year. Two rates of admissions are charged, viz., one anna and four annas. The latter rate is charged on Fridays for the benefit of those who would like to see the Aquarium under less-crowded conditions. The net profit realized last year was Rs. 3,951.

Fishing rights in the large irrigation tanks were transferred from Government to local y years ago these tanks are

n w h g b had personally by the Department the results so far have shown a profit on the operations. To have the necessary fry, these fish farms are in operation, and the construction of these farms is in progress. In these the chief fish is the *Labeo* obtained from Java, the *stern* and *Protopus* sinensis, which has the excellent habit of thriving and breeding as well in brackish as in fresh water. All these fishes are eggs while developing, a useful habit; both the *Protopus* and *Protopus* are largely obtained in India. A further activity is represented by the breeding of small fishes specially selected to feed upon the aquatic larvae of mosquitoes. These are supplied in thousands to municipalities and other local authorities at a nominal price, for introduction into mosquito-infested sheets of water; these anti-malarial operations have proved most successful in those places where the local authorities have given proper attention to the distribution. The educational work of the Department is one of its most important branches, whether it be specially training teachers for schools in fishing villages, in training men in the various stages of curing, counting and oil manufacture; in co-operative propaganda and in the study of zoological specimens for the use of schools, classes and museums. The last named has filled a long-felt want and is contributing materially to the advancement of the study of zoology throughout India; there is now no need to obtain specimens from Europe.

The development of deep-sea fishing is engaging the attention of Government; special dredging grounds are indicated off Cape Colom, extending over an area of some 4,000 sq. miles; other promising areas are known elsewhere, but so far the limiting factors are the lack of cold storage accommodation or any port in the Presidency and the want of a deep-water harbour in the south, where steamers can discharge direct into store. An expedition to deep sea fishing made recently with the help of a motor launch and Danish Sulu net failed due to the unsuitability of the launch employed. For the purpose of deep sea fishing experiments and for other requirements of the Department such as economical salt transport and pearl-fishing, a second-hand admiralty trawler "T.R.S." was purchased during the year and recommissioned at a cost of £5,600. The trawler arrived at Tuticorin on the 21st April. As the south-west monsoon was to commence shortly she could not be kept at the open roadstead in Tuticorin and was therefore brought to this anchorage at Pamban. She proceeded to Colombo in the second week of October for bottom clearance in the Government shipyard there and was returned to Pamban. She will be engaged from the 15th November till the end of March 1927 in transporting salt from Tuticorin to the fish curing yards on the west coast. With the help of this vessel, it is also proposed to carry on researches regarding the location of shoals and migration of important edible fish.

Welfare Work.—A remarkable feature in the work of the Madras Fisheries Department is the energy which it devotes to the improvement of the condition of the fishfolk. On Sir Frederick Nicholson's initiative, the depart-

ment has always recognised the duty of spreading among them education and the habits of thrift, temperance and co-operation. Its work has been especially successful on the west coast. The number of fishermen's co-operative societies in 1926 was 65. These societies do a reported varied and successful business, being look for the improvement and efficiency of the fishfolk. But the formation of 2 societies of co-operative societies are and the only social activity among the fishermen. There is a vigorous labour union society at Minicoy. The District of South Kanara has created a society for the construction of villages for the fishermen in two villages and the fishermen have the two villages Rs. 3,000 for the building. In another village, Kizhur, the fishermen have already completed a building for their community school where elementary school teachers do their work in the same building. In Madras itself at Nankuppam a temperance society has not yet started with the assistance of the District. It is to be formed in the division of fisherman's Union. Last year was opened in the middle of the year at Calicut to train teachers to work in elementary schools for the fishfolk. The profit teachers under training are furnished with the work carried on in the fishery stations at Pamban and Chudam. They are also given practical instructions in fishing, a boat having been purchased for the purpose. By the end of June 1926, all schools for the fishfolk were being maintained by the Department on the west coast with a total of 2,291 pupils. In some places in villages fishermen started the schools and then handed them over to the Department. In other places schools were opened by the Department at the request of the fishermen. Local men are appointed as honorary managers of schools.

Bengal & Bihar & Orissa.

The fishing value of this extensive Deltaic region lies primarily in the enormous area occupied by inland waters—rivers, creeks, shoals, and swamps—to say nothing of paddy fields and tanks. These swamps with fish and, as the Hindu population are free to a large extent from the version to a fish-diet which is widely prevalent among the better castes. In the south the demand for fish is enormous. Rice and fish are indeed the principal mainstays of the population and not less than 80 percent of the people consume fish as a regular item of diet. It is estimated that 1.6 per cent of the population is engaged in fishing and its connected trades, a percentage that rises to 2.6 in the Presidency, Raj Shahi, and Dacca Divisions. 64,600 persons in Bengal subsist by fishing with 324,000 maintained by the sale of fish, and this in spite of the fact that fishing is not considered an honourable profession. As a fresh-water fisherman the Bengali is most ingenious, his traps and other devices exceedingly clever and effective—in many cases too effective—so eager is he for immediate profit, however meagre this may be. The greatest inland fishery is that of the hilsa (*Chelodactylus*) which annually migrates from the sea in innumerable multitudes to seek spawning grounds far up the branches of the Ganges and the other great rivers. Other valued and abundant fishes are the rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and the katla (*Catla*

hams abound everywhere. Of important fishes taken in the lower reaches of the rivers and in the great network of creeks spread throughout the Sunderbans, the dakti (*Lateolabrax*) and the mullets are the most esteemed; apart from these estuarine fish the most valuable sea-fishes are the *mingo*-fishes (*Polynemus*) pomfrets. The sea-fisheries are as yet little exploited, the fishermen of Orissa, where alone coastal fishing is of any local importance, having no sea craft save *nauticans* of inferior design and construction.

Following the inquiry begun in 1906 by Sir K. G. Gupta, an investigation of the steam trawl potentialities of the head of the Bay of Bengal was undertaken, the trawler *Golden Crown* being employed for the purpose. The results showed that there are extensive areas suitable for trawling and capable of yielding large quantities of high class fish. Much attention was devoted during these trawl cruises to the acquisition of increased knowledge of the marine fauna, the results being published in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum. For various reasons, the chief perhaps being the hostility of vested interests, the lack of cold storage facilities and the loss of time involved by the trawler having to bring her catches to Calcutta instead of sculling them by a swift tender, the experiment was financially a failure and was dropped. With ever-increasing demand for fish in Calcutta and the concurrent rise in prices, the prospects of remunerative steam-trawling are now much more steam-trawling companies being floated in the immediate future. The trade is a difficult one to organize and without a rare combination of technical fishery knowledge and far-sighted and comprehensive organization the danger run by the investing public will be considerable. Originally one Fisheries Department served the needs of the two provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Separation was effected in after which fisheries in Bengal were administered by the Director of Agriculture. The Bengal Fishery Department was abolished under retrenchment in 1923. In Bihar and Orissa, Fisheries form a section of the Department of Industries.

Government has ordered that the Bengal Fisheries Department be reconstituted on an improved basis as soon as funds permit. A Bengal Fisheries Department has of necessity a more limited scope for its activities than in the case of Madras. Practically no coastal minor industries exist, neither do the natural conditions lead us to suppose that any can be created without extreme difficulty, and in the absence of a great trawl industry which alone might be able to call into existence factories devoted to the uplift of the general utilization of fish byproducts. Apart from this, much can be done by its officers for the uplift of the general fishing population with a view to free them from the tyranny of the mahajans (fish contractors and middle men) and enable them to put more capital into their business and to conduct it co-operatively. This is necessarily extremely slow work, but the old Department made a beginning and once a few societies can be made successful, the news of the benefits conferred on

the members will constitute the best possible form of propaganda. The temporary abolition of the Bengal Fisheries Department was regretted by many and it is hoped that it will soon be revived. The fishery wealth of Bengal is enormous and nothing but good can come of intensive investigation and propaganda.

Fresh-water mussels are used extensively in Dacca in the manufacture of cheap pearl buttons and in many cases pearls also are found in the mussels which the pearl dealers gather and sell in the various parts of India. The Dacca bangle factories carry on an important local industry of very ancient standing; their materials almost entirely obtained from the South Indian and Ceylon chank fisheries already alluded to.

Bombay.

Whereas Bengal's fisheries are at present confined principally to inland waters, those of Bombay are concerned, save in Sind, almost entirely with the exploitation of the wealth of the sea. Bombay is favoured with a coast line abounding with excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fair-weather season lasting for some seven months, and a fishing population more alive to their opportunities and more daring than those of the sister Presidencies. Bombay sea-fisheries are of very great importance financially as well as economically and, though there is less necessity for a special department to develop marine industries, there is ample scope for most useful work in improving curing methods, in introducing canning, and in the development of minor marine industries particularly those connected with the utilization of by-products. With this end in view the Director of Industries administered the subject of "Fisheries" from 1918 and had for a time two officers in the Department engaged upon fishery investigation and development. A steam trawler was bought for work in Bombay waters in 1920 and began work in May 1921 off Bombay. The experiment continued until February 1922, and the trawler was subsequently sold to the Government of Burma. At the outset the results seemed promising, but the experiment as a whole showed that the cost of maintaining a trawler of this type used could not be met by sales of fish at current market rates. Cold storage has since been installed at the principal fish market in Bombay, but for a trawler special facilities are needed also for rapid curing, supplying ice and stores, and for unloading catches. More than this a change is needed in the medieval conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularizing little known species of edible fish, such as karel, palm, tamrasa, and particularly the ray or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent. of the total catch but which is so little esteemed locally that it is sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs. for a rupee.

Owing to retrenchment the appointments of fisheries officers have been abolished.

The more important sea-fish are pomfrets, soles and sea-perches among which are included the valuable Jew-fishes (*Sciaenops* spp.) often attaining a very large size and notable as the chief source of "fish-maws" or "sowda."

act. n 1. The direct of Bombay fishing boats sail from the coast between Basra and Surat. These boats are usually constructed of a considerable size, and are capable of keeping the sea for weeks together. In the season they fish principally off the Kutch and Kathiwar coasts and in the month of the Gulf of Cambay. The main method of fishing is by means of large creel-like nets, which are left down for several hours and hauled at the turn of the tide. The chief catches are Bombay ducks, pomfrets and sea-basses. The last named are dried in the sun after being strung through the mouth upon lines stretched between upright posts. South of Bombay the fishermen of Ratnagiri and Rajapur make use of another and heavier class of fishing boat, especially designed for use in drift-net fishing. Fine bands of better sea fish (a large form of mackerel and allied fishes) are often made during the season from September to January and later of sharks and prawns. For the latter especially large and powerful nets are employed. For part of the fair season, when fishing is not usually remunerative, many of the larger Bombay fishing boats are employed as small carriers, a fact which shows how large they run in size.

In Sind considerable sea-fishing is carried on in the neighbourhood of Karachi chiefly for large and coarse fish, as shark, ray and sea-basses. The edible oyster trade of Karachi was once extensive, the creeks of the Indus producing a species of oyster superior to that found in Bombay and Madras backwaters and estuaries. Unrestricted exploitation of beds of limited extent inflicted great harm, and now, when various salutary restrictions are imposed, the beds are slow to respond. Occasionally large deposits of the window-pane oyster (*Pecten perleatus*) are found in the Indus creeks and as these produce seed pearls in great number, Government has laid the beds to the highest bidder. The pearls are largely exported to China for use as medicine. Considerable fisheries exist in the River Indus, chiefly for the fish known as patta, which are annually leased out by Government for about Rs. 20,000.

In the Gulf of Kutch two pearl fisheries exist, one for the true pearl oyster, the other for the window-pane oyster. The former is carried on by His Highness the Muzaffar of Jamnagar, the other partly by this Prince and partly by the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda. The latter industry owes its local existence to the enterprise of the Baroda Government which in 1805 obtained the services of a dignitary of Mr. J. Hurrell, formerly Director of Fisheries in Madras, for the purpose of examining the Marine potentialities of the Baroda territory in Kathiwar. One of the consequences was the discovery of large deposits of pearl-bearing window-pane oysters, until then unknown; of late years these beds have produced annually from Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 25,000 in revenue, perhaps the best example we have in India of the profitable nature of well-directed scientific enquiry into fishery problems. The Baroda Government, continuing their enlightened interest in the fishery development, have had two officers trained in the Madras

Fisheries Department and now employ them on development work in the Kathiwar coast.

Experiments in culture are now in progress at one of the chief fishing centres on the Southern Kathiwar coast and already promise considerable success particularly with regard to pomfrets.

Burma.

The exclusive right of fishing throughout the provinces of Burma belongs by custom of the country to Government, and the Burmese Fisheries Act provides for the protection of this right and for controlling the enjoyment of it to the people subject to certain restrictions for the conservation of the fish. The work of the Fisheries Department is to see that the taking of fish is carried out with skill and care in the Burmese fisheries. In certain cases this attitude is interfered with in proportion of the fisher's stock is not only small but their economic condition is more or less deteriorated. Though fishing is generally denounced by Burmese and Indians, the people consume the fish. The usual argument of the consumers is that they have no other means of life, and therefore have no other means of livelihood. Where fishing is the principal means of livelihood of the majority as in the Delta Districts, religious scruples tend to discourage it.

Revenue.—The economic value of any industry or tract of country can, to some extent, be gauged by the revenue it yields. The fisheries yield a substantial revenue (about one-eighth of the total land revenue), and therefore they are one of the most important sources of national wealth. There are two methods of catching fish, namely by nets in the rivers and sea and by traps in brackish fisheries. The fishery revenue derived from net-fishing amounts to over four lakhs while that from the leased fisheries amounts to more than 44 lakhs. Of the net fisheries the greatest revenue comes from the Irrawaddy District where not only is the Pearl-shell industry carried on, but leases for collecting green snails and sea slugs are leased. Open lakes, pools of water and small rivers are classed as leased fisheries and are leased by Government to the highest and best bidder at public auction. Here the Irrawaddy Division equals in importance the rest of the province, and of the five divisions in the Irrawaddy Division, Mawlaik District alone yields as much as half of the whole division. Mawlaik District therefore stands easily first in respect of fishery revenue, and out of the total collected in any year from the whole province, this district alone contributes at least a quarter.

The Delta consists of a series of saucer-shaped islands, many of which have embankments round the greater part of the delta along the north, east and west. In the hollows of these islands most of the fish come into spawn, and with the floods which overflow the embankment during October the young fry come down-country from Upper Burma.

The principal kinds of fish caught in nets on the sea-coast are (1) Kakkayan, (2) Katha-haung, and (3) Katha-haung. These are generally made into salt fish which fetch Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per viss. The creek and fresh water fish from fisheries are generally mackerel, ngayan, and magay. Most of them are sold fresh, but some are converted into salt fish. The salt

caught in the rivers are generally *maghalauk*, *ngazhi*, and *ngazmyin*, the prelaceous fish.

Fees for net licences are charged according to the size of the net. Fisheries which consist of lakes, pools and streams are put up to auction, but as no Burman fisherman has ever been known to keep a proper system of accounts, he seldom or never can gauge the real worth of the fisheries. This coupled with his impulsive nature frequently results in his bids at auction exceeding the value of the fisheries; several fishermen have thus not only brought ruin on themselves but also on their sureties who have not infrequently been sold up. Until these fisheries are brought under some settlement system for revenue assessment, bona fide fishermen must suffer from time to time. Moreover, the local authorities demand more than adequate securities and the furnishing as well as the verifying of these securities invariably mean much expenditure of time and money both to the fisherfolk and to the Government staff. With a view to ameliorate uneconomic conditions by rendering the provisions of security easier, as well as to facilitate collection Government recently introduced what is known as the group system whereby the value of the fisheries is fixed at a reasonable rental, and, instead of an individual system of furnishing security the groups hold themselves severally responsible. In order to enable the poorest of the actual workers to reap the benefit of their labours, nothing short of a co-operative system would be of any avail; this co-operative system has been tried in Tharrawaddy District with some success, by this system every fisherman employed in a fishery becomes a partner in the business and no non-fisherman can ever sweat the bona fide fisherman, poor though he be. The group system, though an improvement on the individual system of bidding and furnishing securities does not do away with the sweating system. It is reported to be attended by quarrels on the one hand and to sanction to reduce the Government rent on the other hand. With the gradual introduction of the co-operative system, which is an urgent necessity in the Delta District, the poorer fisherman of every fishing village and hamlet, after gradual and systematic training will, in course of time, be able, not only to reap the full benefit of their labours, but also by mutual control and aid to develop into a more useful and contented peasantry. Fishery leases for three to five years, are now being granted instead of leases for only one year and fisherman obtaining the long-term leases have begun to realise the need of improving the fisheries by clearing the streams and pools of that Burma pest—the water hyacinth—and other weeds.

The members of a group live too far away from one another to watch one another and their co-operation aimed at by the system is not usually obtained. Another system known as hire and premium system is under consideration and has actually been introduced in Maubin as an experimental measure. Under this system, the lease is fixed at a fair rent and tenders called for and premia invited and the lease is given to the successful bidder. To work this successfully a good deal of infor-

mation is required about the actual working of the fishery and it is to be hoped that the Fishery Settlement Enquiry which will probably be begun in 1925 will lead to improvement of the Fishery Revenue Administration and means of Government's information about the fisheries.

The principal articles of manufacture are *ngapi* (fish-paste) and salt-fish—the manufacturing methods are primitive and with more industrial education and capital, these could be considerably improved.

The Punjab.

The Rules and Regulations under the Fisheries Acts are now applicable to the streams and rivers in 17 Districts and to all the Canals of the Province. Rules for some more districts have been drafted and are under the consideration of Government. The steady increase in the number of Fishing Licences each year goes to show the popularity of the system of individual licences. The Angler's Fishing Association in Rawalpindi proved of great help to the Department in the preservation of the fish supply of the District. Besides the Association, a Fishing Club open to Europeans as well as Indians was formed during the year. A greater number of cases of illegal fishing was brought to light. The Murrel breeding experiments ended in failure. No results have so far been achieved from the experiments in Carp breeding at Cheenwan in the Gujranwala District. A notable success has been achieved in the matter of trout culture in the Hills. The Reas in Kulu and the Uhl in Mandi are well stocked with trout and very good reports were received from anglers who fished there. The Ravi in Chumla has also been reported to contain a good number of trout. Several ash were caught, two of which weighed 10 and 7 lbs. respectively. Trout were also planted in the Baspa River in Bashahr state and in the streams of Kangra proper with good result.

The levying of Harayat tax on the fishermen has set back the success achieved by the Co-operative Societies, and hence there was no increase in their number. The two already started supplied some fish to the Hill Stations of Dharm sala and Dalhousie. The expenditure of the Departments rose to Rs. 70,200. This included the cost of construction of tanks and quarters and the Research work carried out. The latter though not a paying concern at the moment is expected to be ultimately of great benefit to the Department. Excluding this item the expenditure was Rs. 51,929 as against an income of Rs. 30,903.

Travancore.

This State has affiliated fisheries to the Department of Agriculture and with the help of two officers trained in Madras and another officer trained in Japan, the Department has already accomplished a notable amount of development work. Special attention has been given to the regulation of fisheries in backwaters to the establishment of Co-operative societies among the fishers. The introduction of *Carassius auratus* and *Carassius auratus* and guano production. Useful work has been done by one of the officers in elucidating the history of the more valuable food fishes and prawns.

The Forests.

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of India indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy, but whether or not our earlier administrators realized the importance of the forests to the physical and economic welfare of the country, the fact remains that little or nothing was done. The year 1855 marked the commencement of a new era in the history of forestry in India, for it was then that Lord Dalhousie laid down a definite and far-sighted forest policy. Further progress was delayed for a time by the Mutiny, but from 1860 onwards forest organization was rapidly extended to the other provinces. The earlier years of forest administration were beset with difficulties, which is not surprising considering that the Department was charged with the unpopular duty of protecting the heritage of Nature from the rapacity of mankind, a duty which naturally roused the antagonism of the agricultural population of India. Exploration, demarcation and settlement, followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of regular management, were the first duties of the Forest Department. Work on these lines, which is not yet completed in the more backward parts of the country, has been pursued steadily from the commencement, and in consequence large tracts of forest have been saved from ruin and are gradually being brought under efficient management. Whatever may have been the opinions held in some quarters half a century ago as to the need for a policy such as that expressed in Lord Dalhousie's memorable enunciation of 1855, there is no longer any doubt that results have amply justified the steps taken, and that in her forests India now possesses a property of constantly increasing value, the future importance of which it is hardly possible to overestimate.

Types of Forest.—More than one-fifth of the total area of British India (including the Shan States) is under the control of the Forest Department. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassified State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated; in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated; while in the unclassified forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenue until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of British India (including the Shan States) on 31st March, 1924 was 228,850 square miles, or 20·3 per cent of the total area. This was classed as follows:

R	103 49	P	793	U	118,361
State	40	Protected	793	Unclassified	118,361

Throughout this vast forest area, scattered over the length and breadth of India from the Himalayan snows to Cape Comorin and from the arid juniper tracts of Baluchistan to the eastern limits of the Shan States, there is, as may be imagined, an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on variations of climate and soil and on other local factors. Broadly speaking, the following main types of forest may be distinguished:—

(1) **Arid-country forests**, extending over, said, a considerable portion of Rajasthan, part of Baluchistan and the south of the Punjab, in dry tracts where the rainfall is less than 20 inches. The number of species is few, the most important tree being the babul or kila (*Acacia arabica*), which however is the driest regions exists only by the aid of river inundations.

(2) **Desertous forests**, in which most of the trees are leafless for a portion of the year. These forests, which extend over large areas in the sub-Himalayan tract, the Peninsula of India and Burma, are among the most important comprising as they do the greater part of the teak and sal forests.

(3) **Evergreen forests**.—These occur in regions of very heavy rainfall, such as the west coast of the Peninsula, the eastern sub-Himalayan tract, and the moister parts of Burma and are characterized by the great variety and luxuriance of their vegetation.

(4) **Hill forests**.—In these the vegetation varies considerably according to elevation and rainfall. In the Eastern Himalaya, Assam and Burma, the hill forests are characterized by various oaks, magnolias and laurels, while in Assam and Burma the Khasia pine (*Pinus khasya*) grows gregariously at elevations of 3,000 to 7,000 feet. In the North-Western Himalaya the chief timber tree is the deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), which occurs most commonly at elevations of 6,000 to 8,000 feet, and in association with oaks or blue pine (*Pinus excelsa*), towards its upper limit the deodar merges into very large areas of spruce and silver fir, while below it are found extensive forests of the long-needled pine (*Pinus longifolia*) which is tapped for resin.

(5) **Littoral forests**.—These occur on the sea coast and along tidal creeks. The most characteristic trees belong to the mangrove family (*Rhizophoraceae*). Behind the mangrove belt is an important type of forest occasionally inundated by high tides, in which the most valuable species is the "sundri" (*Heritiera fomes*).

Forest Policy.—The general policy of the Government of India in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1904 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely:—

(a) **Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds**—these are usually situated in hilly country and the

on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosion and sudden floods.

(c) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example, as the teak forests of Burma, the sal forests of Northern, Central, and North-Eastern India, and the deodar and pine forests of the North-Western Himalaya.

(d) Minor forests, containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber, and managed for the production of wood, fodder, grazing and other produce for local consumption; these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(e) Pasture lands.—These are not "forests" in the generally understood sense of the term, but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other, and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration.—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Inspector-General of Forests is the head of the Forest Department and is the technical adviser to the Government of India in forest matters. Under the Constitution of 1919, Forests were made a transferred subject in Bombay and Burma, where they had long been administered by the Provincial Governments, and in 1924 the Reforms Inquiry Committee presided over by the Hon. Sir Alexander Muddiman, Home Member of the Government of India, recommended that they be transferred in other provinces now unless any local Government on examination of the position can make out a convincing case against the transfer in its own province.

Territorial charges.—The various provinces are divided into one or more Forest Circles; each in charge of a Conservator of Forests; provinces containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his province. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the Imperial or Provincial Forest Service; these Divisions in most cases are further divided into Sub-divisions. Each Division is in charge of junior members of the Provincial Service or of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers; heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Subdivisions. The Ranges are further subdivided into a number of beats or protective charges held by Forest Guards or in some cases by Foresters.

Non-territorial charges.—Apart from territorial charges there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with forest Research and Education, the preparation of Forest Working Plans, and other special duties.

The Forest Service.—The Forest Service comprises three branches:—

(1) The Indian (Imperial) Service with a sanctioned total personnel of 399 officers consisting of the Inspector-General of Forests,

Chief Conservators, Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators. Of these 353 are to be recruited direct to the service and the balance obtained by promotion from the Provincial Forest Service. The officers of this service are recruited as probationers:—

(a) by direct appointment in the United Kingdom and India; and

(b) by promotion from the Provincial Forest Service in India.

Recruitment in the United Kingdom and in India of candidates nominated for direct appointment is carried out under regulations laid down by the Secretary of State for India and the Government of India respectively. Candidates for direct appointment in the United Kingdom are required to have obtained a degree with honours in some branch of Natural Science in a University of England, Wales or Ireland, or have passed the final B.Sc. examination in Pure Science in one of the Universities of Scotland.

Candidates are also required to be considered as eligible for direct appointment in India if they are holders of a diploma or degree in Forestry.

Candidates for direct appointment in India are required to possess an Honours or a first class degree in Science or an M.Sc. degree or any class of a University incorporated by law in India.

Probationers are at present trained at a University possessing a forest school approved by the Secretary of State (Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh at present), this training being supplemented by a practical course, partly on the continent of Europe.

The process of Indianisation is steadily proceeding, as may be judged from the fact that out of a total of 7,000 forest officers in 1924, four were Europeans, two more Indians, and 6,994 were appointed on probation. The strength of the directly recruited cadre is according to the latest official return 314, while 10 probationers are under control in Great Britain.

(2) **The Indian Forest Engineering Service.**—This service was created in 1919 and at present consists of 17 Forest Engineers.

(3) **The Provincial Service.**—Formerly it consisted of Extra Deputy and Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests. All Extra Deputy Conservators who were considered to be fully qualified to hold a major charge were transferred to the Imperial Forest Service in 1920. Except for five unpromoted officers the class of Extra Deputy Conservators has been abolished and the service now consists of Extra Assistant Conservators only. The fixation of the strength of the personnel of this service rests with the local Governments.

Officers of this service are eligible for promotion to 1½ per cent. of the posts in the Indian Forest Service, such promotion being made by local Governments. These officers are recruited and trained in India, their recruitment being a matter for the local Governments. A certain number of posts in this service are filled by the

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t h e c o u r s e.

(4) The Subordinate Service, consisting of Forest Rangers (about 540), Deputy Rangers (about 300), Foresters (about 2,000) and Forest Guards (about 11,500). The Rangers are at present trained at three different centres—the Forest College at Dehra Dun (for provinces other than Burma, the Central Provinces and Madras), the Burma Forest School at Pyawbwe (for Burma), and the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore (for Madras and the Central Provinces). These three institutions were established in 1878, 1893 and 1912 respectively. The training of subordinates below the rank of Ranger is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

Research.—For the first fifty years of the existence of the Forest Department in India no attempt was made to organize the conduct of forest research, and thus to co-ordinate and elaborate the scientific knowledge so necessary to successful economic working. A commencement in organized forest research was at last made in 1906 by the establishment, at the instance of Sir Sutherland Sarder-Wilkinson, then Inspector-General of Forests, of a Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The Forest Research Institute, which is under the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Forests, is in the charge of a President. There are five main branches of research, namely Silviculture, Forest Botany, Forest Economic Products, Entomology and Chemistry, each branch being in charge of a research officer. In addition specialists are appointed temporarily when necessary and are attached to the Institute to carry out investigations in subjects of particular economic importance. Thus a paper pulp expert has been employed for some time to investigate possible new sources of paper-making materials of which the forests of India contain abundant supplies. Besides this, there are the Seasoning, the Timber Testing, and the Wood Preservation experts engaged temporarily on short term contracts. Indian Assistants have been appointed under them to receive the necessary technical training and experience in these subjects, with the object of eventually taking the place of experts if and when properly qualified.

Since 1906 research work has been prosecuted energetically so much so that in 1920 a new scheme was sanctioned for the expansion of the staff and site of the Institute. Since then new land has been acquired, on which new buildings are being built for accommodating the various expanded branches and the new machinery obtained from the United Kingdom. As a result of this and the employment of specialists in Seasoning, Timber Testing and Wood Preservation steady progress is being made in the investigations which should ultimately lead to the fuller and better utilization of the raw products produced by Indian forests.

Forest Products.—The forest products of India are of many kinds, and include all other products such as bamboos, leaves, fruits, fibres, grass, galls, resins, barks, animal and mineral products, etc. The average annual output of timber and fuel from all sources during the quinquennium ended 31st March 1921, the latest date for which statistics are available, was 10,100,000 cubic feet against an average of 30,210,000 cubic feet per annum attained in the preceding quinquennium. The highest figure ever obtained under this head occurred in 1921-22, when a total of 35,13,33,000 cu. ft. was reached, the year 1923-24 coming next with 33,36,29,180 cu. ft. The figures for 1921-22 and 1923-24 represent respectively 27 and 24 per cent. of the average of 1906-19. The reserved forests only the yield in 1923-24 was 17,000 cu. ft. per acre as compared with 10,000 cu. ft. per acre in 1918-19 the highest of the last preceding quinquennium. The year 1921-22 was marked by a phenomenal output of fuel in Burma, viz., 6,00,000 tons (24,000,000 cubic feet), which was more than 74 per cent. above the average annual output of the preceding quinquennium. With the output of timber for the year the revenue in Burma soared to Rs. 2,21,16,708 and the surplus to Rs. 1,40,34,692. The total income for the five years amounted to Rs. 7,47,000 tons, an increase of 761,000 tons, or 13 per cent. over the output in the preceding quinquennium.

The figures for the last quinquennium show that in 1923-24 the ratio of timber extracted by Government agency to that removed by purchasers was 5 to 29 compared with a ratio of 5 to 27 in 1918-20. During the period the output removed by Government agency rose by 41 per cent. whilst that removed by purchasers increased by 15 per cent. Timber and fuel to the value of Rs. 11,16 lakhs and minor products, including bamboos and grass, valued at Rs. 875 lakhs were removed by purchasers during the period. For the quinquennium 1918-19 the figures were Rs. 10,160 lakhs and Rs. 355 lakhs respectively.

Reviewing the figures of output, Government in a report issued in October 1925, says: "The results on the whole, considering the general trade depression, are most satisfactory and point to more intensive working of the forests and to better exploitation."

Forest Labour.—The forest labour force which is employed in the forests of India is not always fully recognized. Fifteen years ago it was estimated that in Germany work in the forests provided employment for 1,000,000 persons while 3,000,000 persons, earning 530,000,000 a year, were employed in working up the raw material yielded by the forests. If accurate estimates were available for India, they would no doubt show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forests and the large numbers of wood-cutters, sawyers, carters, carriers, raftmen and others working in and near them, employment on an extensive scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw products. Among these latter may be mentioned carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, boat-builders, tanners, rope-makers, lac-manufacturers, basket-makers and

many other sources. The India census shows over a million people and their dependents so employed in British India and nearly a further half million in Native States, but these are probably below the actuals, as much forest labour is not whole-time labour, devoting seven or eight months in the year to forest work and the rest to agriculture. With the opening up of the forests, the extension of systematic working, the wider use of known

products, and the possible discovery of new products, a steady and extensive extension of industries dependent on the forest products of India may be confidently anticipated.

Financial Results.—The statement of forest revenue, expenditure and surplus for the past 50 years is shown in the statement, which gives annual and quinquennial periods:—

Financial Results of Forest Administration in British India from 1864-65 to 1928-29 (in lakhs of rupees).

Quinquennial period.	Gross revenue (average per annum).	(Expenditure average per annum).	Surplus (average per annum).
	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.
1864-65 to 1868-69	27.4	23.8	13.6
1869-70 to 1873-74	56.5	39.3	17.0
1874-75 to 1878-79	65.8	45.3	20.8
1879-80 to 1883-84	88.2	56.1	32.1
1884-85 to 1888-89	116.7	74.3	42.4
1889-90 to 1893-94	150.3	86.0	73.5
1894-95 to 1898-99	177.2	93.0	79.2
1899-1900 to 1903-04	196.6	112.7	83.9
1904-05 to 1908-09	227.0	141.0	116.0
1909-10 to 1913-14	296.0	163.7	132.8
1914-15 to 1918-19	371.3	211.1	160.2
1919-20 to 1923-24	551.7	307.1	181.6

The gross revenue and surplus were Rs. 165.2 lakhs and Rs. 170.1 lakhs in 1918-19 and Rs. 541.9 lakhs and Rs. 195.6 lakhs in 1923-24 respectively. The surplus rose from Rs. 1,79,12,726 in 1918-19 to Rs. 2,19,12,510 in 1919-20, but during the next three years it steadily decreased, falling again to Rs. 1,81,60,517 during the last year of the quinquennium. The surplus in 1923-24 represents an average of 2.1 annas per acre of all classes of forest against 1.8 annas in 1918-19. The total surplus rose from Rs. 1,79,12,726 in 1918-19 to Rs. 1,95,60,942 in 1923-24. Governmental forests, which have been the main source of revenue, have had during the last 50 years a severe strain, even following on the short period of the war. But development solely with a view to increase the resources and earning capacity of the forests has never been lost sight of. Judging by the perceptible improvement in the general financial results all round, it is confidently expected that the improvements initiated in this quinquennial period will produce much better results when the slump ends.

Prospects.—The past work of the Forest Department has already borne fruit, not only in a steady rise of revenue but also in the improved condition of the forests themselves, from careful protection and management. It does in the way of opening up the forests to regular exploitation; but there is still room for enormous development in this respect, for there are extensive areas of valuable forest as yet almost untouched, and these represent a vast capital locked up and not only lying idle

but even deteriorating. Perhaps the pressing needs at present are the of improved agricultural system extension of roads and other expedients to facilitate and cheapen extraction. must proceed simultaneously, since inter-dependent, for it is obvious and other produce can be extracted economically if it is available in large within a limited radius than if it in small quantities over large tracts. Indeed this question must often deal extraction is possible or not, teaches us how to effect this or and is therefore the bed-rock on which results, financial and otherwise, it is of little avail to seek and demand markets for timbers and other products cannot be produced in regular quantities and extracted at a reasonable cost.

Forest Products.—Exploitation by the Forest Department on business the great timber forests which are most valuable natural assets of the country continues to attract the special interest of the various local Governments. For instance, the working of the Forest system, whereby the increased knowledge of the difficulties of forest administration the village obtains when he has a voice in management is bringing home understanding of the necessity for its regulation. A further important step regard to forest exploitation was taken in 1923-24 when a Chief Forest Engineer was

Forest

	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Per cent.	Cub. ft.	Ra.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras ..	148,290	10,012	19,210	13.5	24,304,000	50,71,503	51,20,520	48,23,888	9,47.22	14.9
Bombay ..	123,123	13,172	15,422	12.1	20,400,000	19,72,087	25,28,088	42,07,026	32,29.1	8.47.22
Bengal ..	70,755	3,428	5,228	13.7	31,013,000	5,16,201	25,03,100	12,40,108	12,00.54	32,29.1
United Provinces ..	106,720	5,183	5,228	4.8	36,117,000	13,20,014	61,00,281	30,76,346	27,30.40	12,00.54
Punjab ..	97,251	1,652	4,372	6.8	34,123,000	21,71,415	41,12,074	27,01,600	11,40.30	27,30.40
Burma (including Federal States and Kareml)	(6)243,207	(6)2,432	(6)12,176	07.7	11,723,000	1,41,003	2,22,18,114	86,77,143	1,00,54.57	7,11.607
Bihar and Orissa ..	82,834	1,782	2,780	8.3	11,013,000	2,06,161	10,28,592	6,00,024	0,62.00	1,00,54.57
Central Provinces & Berar ..	99,927	19,641	18,677	10.6	37,091,000	27,46,100	49,87,100	23,45,729	10,41.08	1,00,54.57
Assam ..	51,325	5,957	20,771	40.0	18,000,000	1,70,008	20,39,130	1,07,083	13,71.15	1,00,54.57
North-West Frontier Province ..	13,000	280	215	1.8	3,125,000	09,797	7,11,607	6,17,821	1,00,2.40	1,00,54.57
Baluchistan ..	54,928	313	785	1.4	420,541	43,702	23,021	81,014	1,11.51	1,00,54.57
Ajmer-Merwara ..	2,767	142	142	5.1	30,495	2,132	2,709	2,709	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
Coorg ..	1,582	610	539	32.4	30,495	2,132	2,709	2,709	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
Andamans and Nicobars ..	3,143	52	2,139	03.7	1,000,000	1,100	6,10,020	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
Total 1925-26 ..	1,004,888	201,053	227,040	20.7	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1924-25 ..	1,004,888	201,053	227,040	20.8	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1923-24 ..	1,100,112	103,761	227,040	20.8	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1922-23 ..	1,100,112	103,761	227,040	20.8	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1921-22 ..	1,098,311	103,761	227,040	20.3	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1920-21 ..	1,088,296	103,761	227,040	20.3	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1919-20 ..	1,080,144	103,761	227,040	23.1	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1918-19 ..	1,080,144	103,761	227,040	23.1	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1917-18 ..	1,080,144	103,761	227,040	23.3	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57
1916-17 ..	1,080,144	103,761	227,040	23.3	410,617,120	1,43,11,160	1,00,000	1,00,000	1,00.00	1,00,54.57

Excludes Jammu Province and the British Parganas of Manipur (Central India).

† Unclassed state forests or public forest lands, as they are classed, including 1,165,497 out of 1,465,49

* Excludes Delhi Province and the British Pargana of Munir Central India.

† Unenclosed state forests, or public forest lands, as they are often called, include in many provinces all unoccupied waste, often entirely void of trees. So the statistics do not necessarily represent the wooded area.

‡ Including Rs. 1,65,497 our account of receipts in the 11 Forests, Forest of Coorg.

§ Including expenditure under the following heads of the same stated against them—Imperial, (Rs. 11.40), Imperial Forest of Coorg.

Imperial Forest of Coorg.

It is in the Luma the work under way in the Government Timber Depot at Rangach proves to be of great value to Government from the point of view of revenue and of considerable importance to the public from the point of view of industrial development. Research work on the seasoning of timbers has been started and results which promise to be of great value have already been obtained. Experimental work on the manufacture of furniture and in other similar directions are expected to give a value to a number of different timbers which are at present more or less unknown. The Myitma River Training Works started in 1905, which have since then been conserved for the sale of Government teak timber, are of more than departmental interest. These works have also proved of great value to local people inasmuch as they have led to the reclamation of a very considerable amount of land which was previously too low lying and swampy to be fit for cultivation. In the United Provinces, the institution of the Government Sawmill and Tannery, the Government Central Wood Working Institute and the

Resin Distillery have led to important results. These, and many other examples which could be quoted, go to show that local Governments are fully alive to the importance of exploiting their forest resources to the fullest possible extent for the benefit of the country.

Agencies.—An agency has been established in India by the Government of India for the sale of Government timber and it is at present held by Messrs. Martin & Co., Calcutta. The Government of India have also appointed Messrs. W. W. Howard Bros., London, as their agents in England for the sale of Indian timbers. Local Governments, and the Andamans especially, make full use of these two agencies for the sale of their woods and the London agency has in addition been the direct means of bringing to the notice of outside countries the immense possibilities of India's wealth in this direction.

Bibliography.—A large number of bulletins and other publications has been issued by the Forest Research Institute, and of these a list can be obtained from the Superintendent, Government Printing, India, Calcutta.

PAPER MAKING.

There are five large paper mills in the country working on up-to-date Western lines, viz., at Titagarh, Kanhinara and Raniganj in Bengal, the Upper India Coopers Mills at Lucknow and the Ready Mill at Poona. There are also two smaller mills at Bombay and Surat which make only country paper, and there are one or two other mills which recently were not working. The five large mills have a large Government connection, as the greater part of Government orders for paper is placed in India.

During the past year an interesting experimental paper-making plant has been installed at the Government of India Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. Specially designed to incorporate a new system patented by Mr. Raitt, Cellulose Expert to the Government of India, the object of this plant is to test the various paper-making fibres which are available over vast forest and hill areas in India and Burma, and thus encourage the establishment of pulp and paper mills on a commercial scale.

After many delays the Carnatic Paper Mills Company commenced operations at Mahabrudray, on the Godavari river, during the year, and it is estimated that the daily output will be ten tons of pulp and five tons of paper made from bamboos and paddy straw. In Southern India the Sri Minakshi Paper Mills, established many years ago as a small concern in Travancore State, appears to have taken a new lease of life and has ordered a new plant capable of turning out fifteen tons of paper per day, whilst in Assam a new company has been formed and is said to be waiting for the arrival of its plant. A plant for manufacturing paper from bamboo has commenced at Bhabhar, and a company has obtained a comprehensive concession for Bhabhar grass

in the Punjab and is erecting a factory near the headworks of the Western Jumna Canal, about 200 miles from Lahore.

The possibility of utilizing the dense growths of bamboo in the hinterland of Cuttack has again been under consideration during the year, and the project has been investigated afresh by Mr. Raitt on behalf of the Government of Bihar and Orissa. Mr. Raitt estimates that in this area alone there is sufficient raw material for an output of 10,000 tons of paper pulp per annum.

Raw Materials.—The existence of the local industry depends chiefly on the supply of Sabai grass which on account of unfavourable seasons sometimes yields short crops. It is of great importance, therefore, to look for materials according to a constant output, and various reports have been published on the available paper-making materials. Considerable attention has been devoted to Bamboo, since 1875 when it was found that this plant—of which there are four chief varieties in India—yielded a fibrous paper stock which made a quality of paper superior to esparto grass and at a considerably less cost. It was at that time estimated that one acre of bamboo would yield 10 tons of dried stems equivalent to 6 tons of merchantable cellulose. In 1905 Mr. R. W. Sindall was invited by Government to visit Burma with a view of enquiring into the possibility of manufacturing paper pulp. His report on the subject appeared in March 1906. He made numerous experiments with bamboo and woods of Burma and laid down lines along which further enquiry should be made. Subsequently Mr. W. Raitt, a pulp expert, was engaged at the Forest Research Institute in conducting tests on the treatment of bamboos by the soda and sulphate processes, the treatment of bamboo before

but will soon be made available to the public. The Forest Department has been working on the utilization of bamboo for the manufacture of paper-pulp. The yield per acre from bamboo is larger than that of grasses usually used for paper. The cost of working into pulp has been estimated to yield a product cheaper than imported unbleached spruce sulphite and unbleached alkali grass pulp. In 1915 Mr. Dhruva Sumanas published a pamphlet, *Dendrocalamus Strictus Bamboo of the Dangs*, as the result of investigations carried on in Bansda State.

In a paper read before the Royal Society of Arts in 1921 Mr. Ralston gave an answer to the question: "What India can do to fill the gap in the world's shortage of paper!" He said that he thought it was "a moderate estimate to say that from bamboo, taking only that which is available under 'possible' manufacturing conditions, Burma, Bengal and South West India could produce ten million tons of pulp per annum, and Assam from Savanna grasses three million. India could therefore produce pulp for the whole world."

The leading Indian paper grass for the last thirty years has been the bhabu, bhabur,

The *Canavalia* draw their supplies from Saldubaj, Chora Nagpur and the Nepal Terai. The quantity annually exported from Saldubaj is between three to four lakhs of maunds. The cutting in these districts is said to commence in October when the plants are six or six and a half high. Sabai grass yields from 35 to 45 per cent. of bleached fibre. A report by Mr. R. S. Pearson, Forest Economist, Dehra Dun on the use of elephant grasses in Assam was issued in 1919. The most important species of grass found in the areas in which investigation has been made are *Echinochloa* (*Syntherisma spodiopneum*) and *Bambusa* (*Marquandiana nurensis*), with patches of *Nal* (*Parasitica* *laxa*) on the more swampy ground. Hand samples of the above grasses were sent to England to be tested on a laboratory scale, while several tons were sent to an Indian paper mill to be made into paper. The results were satisfactory and proved that a very fair quality of paper can be produced from these grasses at a relatively low price. Small samples of such paper can be obtained by persons interested in these grasses from the Forest Economist Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, who can also supply further details.

Indian paper manufacture is protected by special provisions in the Import tariff.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY AND TELEPHONY.

Beam Stations.—The year 1927 saw the commencement of beam wireless services on the Marconi system between India and the United Kingdom. Powerful transmitting and receiving stations erected at Poona and Bombay respectively by the Indian Radio Telegraph Company are connected by land lines with the Central Telegraph Office in Bombay, whilst stations at Skizner and Grimsby are similarly connected with the General Post Office in London, and the circuits are so arranged that messages are exchanged between Bombay and London without intermediate handling at the Beam stations at either end. The huge aerial system at Poona and Bombay, each supported on five steel towers 287 feet in height, are landmarks over a distance of many miles. The service was inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy on 23rd July 1927 at the Central Telegraph Office, Bombay, when His Excellency transmitted a message to the King and His Majesty's reply was received a few minutes later.

It is noteworthy that the opening of the beam wireless service coincided with a reduction in rates by the Cable companies.

For reasons of economy, most of the Indian wireless stations in India have been practically closed down and placed in charge of "Care and Maintenance" parties which carry out tests twice a month, the exceptions being Peshawar Radio, which maintains official communication with Kabul in Afghanistan and Kashgar in China, and Jorogh Radio which receives Turkish official Wireless sent out from Oxford and

Reims and passes the messages to Rangoon, Agents for distribution to subscribing news papers.

The last stations, however, have been maintained in a state of high efficiency and many improvements effected. The application of the Marconi system to the high speed continuous wave wireless stations at Madras Port and Vengalation (Bangalore) has proved extremely satisfactory, and a large portion of the traffic between Southern India and Burma is now carried by this direct route instead of the circuitous route via Calcutta. The traffic is interrupted occasionally by atmospheric interference, particularly during the hot weather, but the difficulties have been largely overcome by high speed working during the worst periods.

For many years the Bombay stations known as Bombay Radio was located on Bunder Island in the Harbour, but during 1927 a fine new station equipped with modern apparatus was erected and taken into service at Santa Cruz, just outside the limits of Bombay Municipality.

Radio telegrams exchanged with ships at sea by coast stations in India and Burma continue to increase in number, and now total about 20,000 per annum. Official telegrams are exchanged with the British Naval Station at Matara (Ceylon) via Bombay Radio. Regular services are also maintained between Burma and the Malay Peninsula via Rangoon and Poona and between Burma and Sumatra, whilst radio traffic is passed between Madras and Colombo when the normal route is interrupted.

... and Bombay and Rangoon.

Safety at Sea.—A noticeable feature of wireless development during the past two years has been the provision of direction-finding apparatus at Bombay and Karachi and facilities at other coast stations whereby ships at sea equipped with direction-finding apparatus can obtain bearings on coast stations and thus determine their position with a remarkable degree of accuracy. Improved arrangements for broadcasting time signals, weather reports and navigational warnings from coast stations have also proved of value to ships at sea.

Broadcasting.—For several years, limited broadcasting services were maintained by Radio Clubs in Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi and Rangoon, and although the transmitting sets employed by them were of very low power, the broadcasts were received over practically the whole of India. The clubs were assisted financially by a Government contribution based upon the revenue from license fees, but this did not nearly suffice to cover the cost of the transmissions, and the greatest credit is due to the members of those clubs for the sporting manner in which they provided additional funds and undertook the entire responsibility for the programmes. Credit is also due to the Indian States and Eastern Agency for the loan of transmitting apparatus, without which the broadcasts would have been impossible.

After negotiations extending over several years, an Indian Broadcasting Company was granted a license to establish broadcasting service upon lines similar to those of the British Broadcasting Corporation, and transmitting stations were erected in Bombay and Calcutta the services at the former being inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy in July 1927 and the latter by the Governor of Bengal a month later. These stations have each an aerial height of three kilowatts, the same as that of the B.C.O. stations in London, of which they are practically duplicates. The programmes are so arranged that both Indian and European music are broadcast daily and the news bulletins and market and weather reports are made in two languages.

Bombay broadcasts normally on a wavelength of 357 metres, and Calcutta on 370 metres. Reception in either of these cities, and for a distance of twenty or thirty miles around, is possible on crystal sets, of which a very large number have been sold. Valve sets are necessary for those living further afield, but although there has been a considerable demand for these, the sales have not reached expectation. One of the greatest difficulties in India is the maintenance of batteries, which is no inconsiderable item when sets containing five or six valves are employed and it is partly with a view to solving this problem and to render two-valve sets in any event more economical that the Indian Broadcasting Company has been studying the possibility of transmitting simultaneously no long and short waves.

Reports of the reception of foreign short-wave stations have been received from all parts of the country, and upon several occasions the Bombay

from the Dutch station PCJJ, but the results have not been entirely satisfactory.

Just as we go to press with this edition of the Year Book, the Indian Broadcasting Company has sprung a bombshell on the public by announcing that its revenue from license fees is insufficient to meet expenses and hinting that there are in the country a very large number of people who come within the "radio" category of "plates" i.e., those who have neglected, wilfully or otherwise to purchase the license from which the Company derives the major portion of its income. The matter is now under discussion with the Government of India.

In addition to the Radio Clubs mentioned earlier, new ones have been formed recently at Lahore and Bhusawal besides an Indian Radio Society with headquarters in Bombay.

Licenses.—Broadcast receiving licenses are issued at Head Post Offices at a fee of ten rupees per year, and cover the use of receiving sets throughout British India except Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Up till the end of October 1927, 1932 such licenses had been issued, 1,103 of them in Bombay. It is believed, however, that the number has since increased very substantially. Licenses for fixed stations for transmitting and experimental purposes are much sought after, and despite a careful scrutiny of the applications, more than 300 have been issued. The number of traders in wireless apparatus who are required to take out special Import license has increased considerably during the past year. This improvement must be ascribed primarily to the commencement of broadcasting (p. 7).

Prospects.—The Government of India has always encouraged the development of wireless in India by private enterprise and it is to this source that India must look in the immediate future for internal radio communication. There are two most promising lines of development, viz.:

(a) Erection of small sets either for speech or Morse in districts where no land lines exist, and to link such districts with the existing landlines. This is a very important matter, and it is possible to use the ordinary desk telephone instrument in daily use all over India.

(b) The use of radio as a substitute for landlines to form the trunk telephone route between two cities which already have telephone facilities.

These will open up a new industry which if properly fostered would very soon extend its sales outside the limits of India. There is no doubt that the majority of parts for small radio sets could be more cheaply manufactured in this country than they can be imported and further such an industry would find the right kind of skilled labour already in India.

The Press.

The newspaper Press in India is an essentially English institution and was introduced soon after the task of organising the administration was seriously taken in hand by the English in Bengal. In 1773 was passed the Regulating Act entrusting the Governor-Generalship and the Supreme Court in Bengal and within seven years at the end of the same decade, the first newspaper was started in Calcutta by an Englishman in January 1784. Exactly a century and a third has elapsed since, not a very long period certainly, a period almost measured by the life of a single newspaper. *The Times*, which came into existence only five years later in 1789, but then the period of British supremacy is not much longer, having commenced at Plassey, only twenty-three years earlier. Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, and Madras did not lag much behind. In 1789 the first Bombay newspaper appeared, *The Bombay Herald*, followed in the year by *The Bombay Courier*, a paper now represented by *The Times of India* with which it was amalgamated in 1861. In Bombay the advent of the press may be said to have followed the British occupation of the island much later than was the case in Calcutta. In Calcutta the English were on sufferance by Lord Clive, but in Bombay they were absolute masters after 1803, and it is somewhat strange that no Englishman should have thought of starting a newspaper during all those hundred and twenty-five years before the actual advent of *The Herald*.

The first newspaper was called *The Bengal Gazette* which is better known from the name of its founder as *Hicky's Gazette* or *Journal*. Hicky like most pioneers had to suffer for his enterprising spirit, though the fault was chiefly his own, as he made his paper a medium of publishing gross scandal, and he and his journal disappeared from public view in 1782. Several journals rapidly followed Hicky's, though they did not fortunately copy his bad example. *The Indian Gazette* had a career of over half a century, when in 1853 it was merged into the *Bengal Harikara*, which came into existence only a little later, and both are now represented by *The Indian Daily News* with which they were amalgamated in 1856. No fewer than five papers followed in as many years, the *Bengal Gazette* of 1786, and one of these, *The Calcutta Gazette*, started in February 1784, under the avowed patronage of Government, flourishes still as the official gazette of the Bengal Government.

In 1821 a syndicate of European merchants and officials commenced the publication of *John Bull in the East*, a daily paper which was intended to reflect Tory opinion in India and set an example to the Press generally in the matter of moderation and restraint. The name of this journal was altered to *The Englishman* by the famous Stockholder in 1836.

From its commencement the press was jealously watched by the authorities, who put serious restraints upon its independence and pursued a policy of discouragement and

rigorous control. Government objected to news of apparently the most trivial character affecting its servants. From 1791 to 1799 several editors were deported to Europe without trial and on short notice, whilst several more were censured and had to apologise. At the commencement of the rule of Wellesley Government promulgated stringent rules for the public press and instituted an official censor to whom everything was to be submitted before publication, the penalty for offending against these rules to be immediate deportation. These regulations continued in force till the time of the Marquis of Hastings who in 1818 abolished the censorship and substituted milder rules.

This change proved beneficial to the state of the press, for henceforward self-respect, and able men began slowly but steadily to join the ranks of journalism, which had till then been considered a low profession. Sirk Baringham, one of the ablest and best known of Anglo-Indian journalists of those days, availed himself of this comparative freedom to criticise the authorities, and under the short administration of Adam, a civilian who temporarily occupied Hastings' place, he was deported under rules specially passed. But Lord Amherst and still more Lord William Bentinck were persons of broad and liberal views, and under them the press was left practically free, though there existed certain regulations which were not enforced, though Lord Clare, who was Governor of Bombay from 1831 to 1835, once strongly but in vain urged the latter to enforce them. Meanwhile who succeeded for a brief period Bentinck, removed even these regulations, and brought about what is called the emancipation of the press in India in 1835, which was the beginning of a new era in the history of the Indian press. Among papers that came into being, was the *Bombay Times* which was started towards the close of 1838 by the leading merchants of Bombay, and which in 1861 changed its name to the *Times of India*. *The Bombay Gazette*, founded in 1791, ceased publication in 1914.

The liberal spirit in which Lord Hastings had begun to deal with the press led not only to the improvement in the tone and status of the press, but also to the rise of the press. The first newspaper in the South was the *Samachar* at Serampore. Missionaries Ward, Carey and Marshman in 1816 in Bengal, and it received encouragement from Hastings who allowed it to circulate through the post office at one-fourth the usual rate. This was followed in 1822 by a purely native paper in Bombay called the *Bombay Samachar* which still exists, and thus was laid the foundation of the Native Indian Press which at the present day is by far the largest part of the press in India, numbering over 650 papers.

From 1835 to the Mutiny the press spread to other cities like Delhi, Agra, Gwalior, and even Lahore, whereas formerly it was chiefly confined to the Presidency towns. During

mutiny to which had a very important bearing on the press, and in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to public interests. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more free.

On India passing to the Crown in 1858, an era of prosperity and progress opened for the whole country in which the press participated. There were 19 Anglo-Indian papers at the beginning of this period in 1858 and 25 Native papers and the circulation of all was very small. The number of the former did not show a great rise in the next generation, but the rise in

the number of the latter was satisfactory. Famous journalists like Robert Knight, James Maclean and Hurris Mookenji flourished in this generation. The *Civil and Military Gazette* was originally published in Simla as a weekly paper, the first issue being dated June 22nd 1872. Prior to and in the days of the Mutiny the most famous paper in Northern India was the *Mofussil*, originally published at Meerut, but afterwards at Agra and then at Ambala. After a lively existence for a few years in Simla the *Civil and Military Gazette* acquired and incorporated the *Mofussil*, and in 1876 the office of the paper was transferred from Simla to Lahore, and the *Gazette* began to be published daily.

INDIAN PRESS LAW.

Before 1835 all printing of books and papers was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and made a few minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1867 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act, and, except for an Act which was in force for one year during the Mutiny, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1898 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907, but the dissemination of sedition through the Press continued. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910, was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

The Act deals, not only with incitements to murder and acts of violence, but also with other specified classes of published matter, including any words or signs tending to seduce soldiers or sailors from their allegiance or duty, to bring into hatred or contempt the British Government, any Native Prince, or any section of His Majesty's subjects in India, or to intimidate public servants or private individuals.

The different sections of the Act have in view (i) Control over presses and means of publication; (ii) control over publishers of newspapers; (iii) control over the importation into British India and the transmission by post of objectionable matter; (iv) the suppression of seditious or objectionable newspapers, books, or other documents wherever found.

Repeal of Press Legislation.—By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than once consulting Local Governments, a Committee was appointed to examine the Act, 1867, and to report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made an unanimous report in July 1921, recommending:—

(1) The Press Act should be repealed.
(2) The Newspapers Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed.

(3) The Press and Registration of Books Act and the Post Office Act should be amended where necessary to meet the conclusion noted below: (a) The name of the editor should be inscribed on every issue of a newspaper and the editor should be subject to the same liabilities as the printer and publisher, as regards criminal and civil responsibilities; (b) any person registering under the Press and Registration of Books Act should be a major as defined by the Indian Majority Act; (c) local Governments should retain the power of confiscating openly seditious leaflets, subject to the owner of the press or any other person aggrieved being able to protest before a court and challenge the seizure of such document, in which case the local Government ordering the confiscation should be called upon to prove the seditious character of the documents. The powers conferred by Sections 13 to 15 of the Press Act should be retained. Customs and Postal officers being empowered to seize seditious literature within the meaning of Section 124A of the I. P. C. subject to review on the part of the local Government and challenge by any persons interested in the courts; (e) any person challenging the orders of Government should do so in the local High Court; (f) the term of imprisonment prescribed in Sections 12, 13, 14 and 15 of the Press and Registration of Books Act should be reduced to six months; (g) the provisions of Section 16 of the Press Act should be reproduced in the Press and Registration of Books Act.

Effect was given to these recommendations during the year 1922.

Press Association of India.—The Press Association was formed in Bombay. According to the articles of constitution "its objects shall be to protect the press of the country by all lawful means from arbitrary laws and their administration, from all attempts of the Legislature to curtail its liberty or of the executive authorities to interfere with the free exercise of its calling by journalists and press proprietors, and for all other purposes of mutual help and protection which may be deemed advisable from time to time." Members pay a *nominal* subscription of Rs. 10 annually. The affairs of the Association are managed by a Council.

Number of Printing Presses at Work, and Number of Newspapers, Periodicals, and Books Published.

Province.	Printing Presses.	Newspapers.	Periodicals.	Books.	
				In English, or other European Languages.	In Indian Languages (Vernacular and Classical) or in more than one language.
Madras	612 1/2	6,125	817	621	2,595
Bombay	572	517	1,465	193	1,878
Bengal	1,085	1,01	484	715	2,543
United Provinces	748	206	278	215	2,777
Punjab	374	139	221	220	2,468
Burma	3/4	57	140	10	173
Bihar and Orissa	206	40	74	70	1,013
Central Provinces and Berar	168	69	5	20	164
Assam	52	17	29	1	72
North-West Frontier Province	22	2	5	1	7
Ajmer-Merwara (c)	24	5	10	6	79
Goorg	6	2	2	3	1
Delhi	110	43	42	18	209
Total, 1925-26	5,862	1,578	3,081	2,117	14,276
Totals	1924-25	5,912	1,491	3,146	14,278
	1923-24	4,900	1,363	2,888	13,802
	1922-23	4,500	1,232	2,759	12,894
	1921-22	4,088	1,094	2,252	11,807
	1920-21	3,795	1,017	2,297	10,165
	1919-20	3,371	941	2,152	9,162
	1918-19	3,146	855	2,049	9,687
	1917-18	3,155	838	1,997	10,772
	1916-17	3,101	805	1,900	12,149

(a) Relate to the Calendar year 1925.

(b) This includes 621 official publications.

(c) Relate to the Calendar year 1925.

(d) Includes 4 Presses which are reported not working.

Newspapers and News Agencies registered under the Press Rules and arranged alphabetically according to Station where they are published and situated.

NOTE.—News Agencies are distinguished by an asterisk.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Agra	Agra Akbbar	Wednesdays.
	Jain Path Pradarshak
	Navyug	Daily.
	Sanadhyap Karak	On the 3rd and 18th of every month.
Annedabad	Gujarati Punch	Sundays.
	Navayivan	Fridays.
	Political Bhomyo	Thursdays.
	Praja Bandhu	Saturdays.
	Young India	Thursdays.
Akola, Berar	Praja Paksha	Saturdays.
Akyab	Arakan News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Aligarh	Aligarh Institute Gazette	Wednesdays.
Allahabad	Abhyudaya	Fridays.
	Bhavishya	Weekdays.
	Democrat
	Hindustan Review	On first of every month.
	Leader	Daily, except Mondays
	Navayug	Daily.
Allahabad Extra Alleppey	Pioneer	Daily.
	Stri Dharam Shikshak	Monthly
Amraoti	Travancore Publicity Bureau
	Bharat	Wednesdays.
	Udaya	Mondays.
Amritsar	Akali te Pardesi	Daily except Sundays.
	Daily Vakil	Daily.
	Gurumukhi Daily Khalsa	Daily.
	Punjab Press Bureau
Amroha	Qaumi Dard	Daily.
	Tanzeem	Daily.
Amroha	Itihad	Saturdays.
Asansol	Ratnakar	Sundays.
Bagalkot	Kannadiga	Thursdays.
	Navina Bharat	Tuesdays.
Bagerhat	Jagaran	Sundays.
Bangalore	Daily Post	Daily.
	Kasim-ul-Akhbar	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Truth	Mondays and Thursdays.
Barisal	Barisal Hitaishi	Sundays.

Stations,	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Baroda	Jagriti Surte Sayaji Vidyai	Weekly. Thursdays.
Bassein, Burma	Bassein News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Belgaum	Belgaum Samachar	Mondays.
Benares City	Awaz-e-Khalik	Daily. Every Wednesday
	Sharat Jiwan	Sundays.
	Hindi Kesari	Thursdays.
	Kashi Temperance Samachar	Monthly.
	Mahamandal Magazine	Monthly.
	Trishul Varanasi	Monthly. On Mondays and Fridays.
Bhavnagar	Daily Market Report	Saturdays.
	Jain	Fridays.
	Market News	Daily, except Sundays.
Bhiwani	Sandesh	Sundays.
Bijapur	Karnatak Vaibhav	Saturdays.
Bombay	Akhbar-i-Islam and Sondagar	Daily, except on Sundays.
	Bombay Chronicle	Daily.
	Bombay Samachar	Daily.
	Bread Co.'s Market Report	Daily, except Sundays.
	Catholic Examiner	Saturdays.
	Commercial Sporting News
	Dnyana Prakash	Daily, except Mondays.
	Evening News of India	Daily.
	Goan World	Monthly.
	Gujarati	Sundays.
	Gujarati Kesari	Wednesdays.
	Indian Daily Mail	Daily.
	Indian Industries and Power	On the 15th of each month.
	Indian National Herald	Daily.
	Indian Social Reformer	Saturdays.
	Isma'ili	Every Saturday.
	Jam-e-Jamshed	Daily, except Sundays.
	Kaiser-i-Hind	Sundays.
	Kashshaf	Every Friday.
	Khilafat Daily Khilafat Bulletin	Saturdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Bombay—contd.	Muslme Rozgar	Sundays.
	Muslim Herald	Daily.
	Nawa Kal	Daily, except Mondays.
	Nyayadarshak	Thursdays.
	Nusrat	Daily.
	O Amigo do Goano	Fridays.
	O Anglo-Lusitano	Saturdays.
	Parsi & Praja Mitra & Hindustan	Daily, except Sunday.
	Railway Times	Fridays.
	Rushimukh	1st week of every month (accord- ing to Hindu Calendar).
	Sandrah	Daily, except Sundays.
	Sarf Vartaman	Daily, except Sundays.
	Shri Venkateshwar Samachar ..	Fridays.
	Times of India	Daily.
	Times of India Illustrated Weekly.	Sundays.
	Wahdat	Daily.
Dowringpet	Young Messenger of India ..	Monthly.
	Kolar Gold Fields News	Tuesdays.
Budaon	Akhbar Zulqarnain	6th, 13th, 20th and 27th of every month.
	A Voz do Povo	Saturdays.
Calcutta (Goa).. ..	Alkawal	Daily.
	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Daily.
	Ananda Bazar Patrika	Daily, except Sundays.
	Asrjodid	Daily.
	Bangabasi	Wednesdays.
	Basmatal	Daily.
	Bengalee	Daily, except Sundays.
	Bhagavan Gandhi	Mondays.
	Bharata Mitra	Thursdays.
	Business World	Monthly.
Calcutta	Capital	Thursdays.
	Collegian	Bi-monthly.
	Commerce	Wednesdays.
	Commercial News	On the 10th of each month
	Dowrajid	Daily.

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Englishman	Daily.
Forward	Daily.
Gandya	Every Friday.
Guardian	Fridays.
Railway Patriot	Daily, except Saturdays.
Hindusthan	Daily, except Sundays.
Hindustan	Wednesdays.
Indian and Eastern Engineer	14th of each month.
Indian Engineering	Thursdays.
Indian Mirror	Daily.
Indian News Agency	Monthly
Industry	Monthly
Inqilab-i-Zamana	Daily, except Sundays.
Jain Gazette	Saturdays.
Liberty	Daily, except Sundays.
Mahashwari	Every Monday.
Market Intelligence	Daily.
Muslim Standard	Tri-weekly.
Muslimman	Thursdays.
Nayak	Daily.
Planters' Journal and Agriculturist	Saturdays.
Prakash	Daily.
Rajya Bhandu	Sundays.
Sanjibani	Wednesdays.
Samay	Wednesdays.
Samparadi	Daily.
Servant	Daily.
Statesman	Daily.
Sulian	Every Wednesday.
Swatantra	Daily.
Swaraj	Daily, except Mondays.
Telegraph
United Press Syndicate
Vishwamitra	Daily.
Venpar	Daily.
Young Men of India	Monthly.
World Peace	Wednesdays.
Alameen	On Mondays, Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Kerala Sanchari	Wednesdays.
Mangrama	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Mathrubhumi	On Mondays, Wednesdays and Thursdays.
Mitavadi	Daily.
West Coast Reformer	Sundays and Thursdays.
West Coast Spectator	Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Cawnpore	Azad	Wednesdays.
	Cawnpore Journal	Daily.
	Daily Vartaman
	Harriet	Daily, except Sundays.
	Prabha	Monthly.
	Pratap, Hindi Daily and Weekly Paper	Saturdays.
Chandernagore	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited
	Zamans	25th day of every month.
Chindwara	Probartak	Bi-monthly.
Chindwar	Lokmitra	Saturdays.
Chitaurah	Education Gazette	Tuesdays.
Chittagong	Jyoti	Wednesdays.
Cochin	Cochin Argus	Saturdays.
	Cochin News Agency
	Malabar Herald	Saturdays.
Cochin Mattancherry	Malabar Islam
Cocanada	Ravi	Thursdays.
Colombo	Ceylon Catholic Messenger	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Ceylon Daily News	Daily.
	Ceylonese	Daily.
	Ceylon Independent	Daily.
	Ceylon Morning Leader	Daily.
	Ceylon Observer	Daily.
	Dinakara Prakasa	Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays
	Dinamina
	Dravida Mitran
	Ganartha Pradipaya	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Islam Mitran	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Lokmitra	Daily, except Sundays.
	People	Daily.
	Sarasavi Sandaresa	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Coutal	Times of Ceylon	Daily.
	Nihar	Mondays.
Cuttack	Utkal Deepika	Fridays.
	Indian Sunday School Journal	Monthly.
Dacca	Dacca Gazette	Mondays.
	Dacca Prakash	Sundays.

Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Defecting Times and Herald's Gazette.	Tuesdays.
Alaman	Daily.
Arjun	Daily.
Asia	Daily.
Comrade	Wednesdays.
Daily Hamard	Daily, except Fridays.
Edwin Howard	Daily.
General News Agency and Book Depot.	Daily.
General News Billmaran	Weekdays.
Hindu Samachar	Daily.
Hindustan Times	Daily.
Indian News Agency	Weekdays.
Maharwan (Hindi)	Weekdays.
Mail Trading	Monthly.
National News Agency	Weekdays.
Quam	Weekdays.
Rajasthan	Tuesdays.
Rivast	Thursdays.
Sabha	Daily.
Swarajya	Daily.
Tej	Daily.
Tamadan	Monthly.
Vijaya	Saturdays.
Weekly Hindi Paper	Weekdays.
Weekly Mohallig	Weekdays.
Weekly Bharat Senak	Saturdays.
Dharwarvrit	Wednesdays.
Karnatakavritta and Dhananjaya	Tuesdays.
Karm Veer	Fridays.
Raja Hansa	Daily.
Vijaya	Daily.
Khandesh Valbhav	Fridays.
Prabodh	Saturdays.
Times of Assam	Fridays.
Assamya	Saturdays.
Swadesh	Saturdays.
Deshabhimani	Daily.
Bisva Jute	Daily.
Musheer-i-Deccan	Daily.
Shifa-i-Rozana	Daily.
Usman Gazette	Daily.
Bharatvasi	Daily.
Hindu	Daily.
Musafir	Saturdays.
Prakash	Daily, except Sun. & M.
Sind Journal	Wednesdays.
Sind Mail	Daily.
Sindvasi	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Jaffna	Ceylon Patriot and Weekly Advertiser.	Tuesdays.
	Jaffna Catholic Guardian.. ..	Saturday Mornings.
	Sithna Veda Pathukavulan	Fortnightly.
	Vasavilan Jaffna Native Opinion	Fortnightly.
Jaffna (Vannarponnai)	Hindu Organ	Wednesdays.
Jalgaon (Khandesh)	Pragatik	Weekly.
Jaramonla	Daily Bopar Patar	Daily.
Jhansi	Free India	Fridays.
Jhansi	Sahas	Sundays.
Jhansi City.. ..	Nyaya	Wednesdays.
Jubbulpore	India Sunday School Journal	Third Thursday of every month.
	Sarmaveer	Fridays.
	Alwahid	Daily, except Sundays.
	Bharat	Daily.
	Chowkidar	Fridays.
Karachi	Daily Gazette	Daily.
	Kesari	Daily, except Sundays.
	New Times	Daily.
	Parsi Sansar	Saturdays.
	Rozana Bupar	Daily.
	Rozana Samachar.. ..	Daily.
	Sind Observer	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Sind Sudhar	Saturdays.
	Weekly Memon Samachar	Thursdays.
	Dhena Vysia Ootran	Fridays.
Kurai Kudl	Kumaran	Wednesday.
Khulna	Khulna Basl	Thursdays.
Kolhapur City	Vidyavilas	Fridays.
Kottayam	Kerala Varathi	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Malayala Manorama	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Malayalam Daily News	Daily.
	Nazrani Deepika	Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
	Powtraprabha	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Kumta	Kanara News	Thursday.
	Kanara Leader	Thursday.
	Akali	Daily.
	Akhbar-i-Am	Daily.
	Bande Mataram	Daily, except Sundays.
Lahore	Civil and Military Gazette	Daily (Sundays excepted).
	Congress Publicity Bureau
	Daily Karamvir	Daily, except Tuesdays.
	Daily Mjlap
	Daily Updeshak
	Daily Urdu Itifag
	Daily Zamindar
	Desh	Daily.
	Darpan	Daily.

Title in full.

Day of going to Press.

Haq	Fridays.
Kesari	Daily, except Sundays.
Muslim Outlook	Daily.
Palgham-i-Sulah	Sundays and Wednesdays.
Panth	Daily except Sundays.
Prakap	Daily.
Rajput Gazette	1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of every month.
Scientific World	Monthly.
Salamat	Daily except Sundays.
Sadarsman	Monday.
Sunday Times	Sunday.
The People	Saturdays.
Tribune	Daily, except Sundays.
N. W. Railway Union Gazette	Weekly.
Watan	Thursdays.
Khalikhab	Saturdays.
Larkana Gazette	Fridays.
Advocate	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Anand	Thursdays.
Daily Hamdani	Daily.
Hajrat	Daily.
Hindustan	Bi-weekly.
Indian Daily Telegraph	Daily.
Indian Witness	Wednesdays.
Kaukab-i-Hind	Wednesdays.
Lucknow Times	Daily.
Muslim Gazette	Fridays.
Oudh Akbar	Daily, except Sundays.
Patriot	Every Saturday.
The Haque.	Daily.
Daily Commercial News	Daily.
Daily Market Report	Daily.
Al Mazmun	On the first of every month.
Andhra Patrika	Tuesdays.
Anglo-Indian	Thursdays.
Azadi	Daily.
Catholic Leader	Wednesdays.
Christian Patriot	Saturdays.
Daily Express	Daily, except Sunday and Monday mornings.
Desakhakatan	Daily.
Jama Jethi
Hindu	Daily.
Indian Railway Journal	15th of every month.
Indian Review	Monthly.
Jamarathnamani	Weekdays.
Jamda-i-Rozgar	Saturdays.
Justice	Daily.
Law Times	Saturdays.
Madras Mail	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Madras—contd. ..	Muhammadan	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Mukhibir-i-Dewan	Wednesdays.
	Nyayadipika	Daily.
	New India	Daily.
	Shamshul Akbar	Mondays.
Madras	Swadesa Mitran	Daily.
	Swarajya.. ..	Daily.
	To-day	Daily.
Madras	South Indian Mail	Mondays.
Mandalay	Upper Burma Gazette	Daily.
Margao (Goa)	A Terra	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Noidas	Mondays.
	Ultramar	Mondays and Fridays.
Mattancheri	Chakravathi	Saturdays.
Meerut	Roznama Qaum	Daily.
Mhow	Setyarth Patrika	Thursdays.
Mirpurkhas	Mirpurkhas Gazette	Wednesdays.
Mirpur City	Khichri Samachar	Saturdays.
Moulmetn	Moulmetn Advertiser	Daily.
Mount Road, Madras	Hindu	Daily, except Sundays.
Mussoorie	Mussoorie Times	Thursdays.
Muttra	Jain Gazette	Mondays.
Muvattupuzha	Kerala Dheepika	Saturdays.
Muzaffarnagar	Weekly Sewak	Weekly.
Mymensingh	Charu Minir	Tuesdays.
Mysore	Sadhvi	Thursdays.
	Sampadabhyudaya	Daily, except Sundays.
Nagarsol	Wealth of Mysore	Do.
	Travancore Times	Tuesdays.
Nagpur	Desha-Sewak	Mondays.
	Hitavada	Wednesdays.
	Mahatashtra	Tuesdays.
	Khabbar	Daily.
	Marwadi	Tuesdays.
Nagpur	Prazavar	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Samaj Sewak	Mondays.
	Sankalpa	Daily.
	Sankalpa Mahal	Fridays.
	Swatantrya	Daily, except Mondays.
Nagpur	Young Patriot	Sundays.
Naini Tal	Naini Tal Gazette	Wednesdays.
Nasik	Loksatta	Saturdays.
Naushahro	Shakti	Mondays.
Nova Goa	Mario de Noite	Daily.
	Heraldo	Daily, except Mondays.
	O'Debate	Mondays.
Ootacamund	O'Heraldo	Daily, except Sundays and holidays.
	South of India Observer and	Daily issue, except Sundays.
	Nilgiri News	
Ootacamund	Nilgiri Times	Wednesdays.

Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Utash Pandhara Mitra	Thursdays. Sundays.
Kangal O'Crente Litara Tharaka	Fridays. Saturdays. Saturdays.
Behar Herald Express Searchlight	Saturdays. Daily. Saturdays.
Kolaba Samachar	Fridays.
Deccan Herald Davana Prakash	Daily. Daily, except Mondays.
Kesari	Tuesdays.
Maharatta War Cry	Sundays. Monthly.
Satvagraha Servant of India	Bi-weekly. Weekly.
Alfazel Alhakam Alfarooq Nur Review of Religions (in English) Do (in Urdu)	Bi-weekly. Weekly. Weekly. Fortnightly. Monthly. Monthly.
Baluchistan Gazette	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Baluchistan Herald Daily Bulletin.	Daily.
Desabhimani Malayali	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Kathiawar Opinion Kathiawar Times Lohana Hitechhu	Bi-weekly. Wednesdays and Saturdays. Wednesdays.
Saurashtra	Daily.
Burma Sunday Times Burma Exchange Gazette and Daily Advertiser.	Sundays. Daily.
Chinese Daily News Free Burma	Daily.
New Burma New Light of Burma	Tri-weekly. Daily, except Mondays.
Rangoon Daily News Rangoon Evening Post	Thursdays. Week-days.
Rangoon Gazette Rangoon Times Rangoon Mail The Sun	Daily, except Mondays. Daily, except Sundays. Saturdays. Daily, except Sundays.
Bakool Balvant Satya Shodhak	Saturdays. Tuesdays. Sundays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Rawalpindi..	{ Daily Press Frontier Bulletin Shanti	Daily. Saturdays. Daily.
Samastipur.. Vigilant	Saturdays.
Satara Shriha Suchaka	Fridays.
Satara City.. Prakash	Wednesdays.
Secunderabad	{ Hyderabad Bulletin Notice Sheet	Daily. Daily.
Shahjahanpur Sarpunch	Daily.
Sholapur ..	{ Kalpataru Karmayogi Sholapur Samachar	Sundays. Thursdays. Tuesdays.
Silchar ..	{ Navajug Sarwa	Monthly. Sundays.
Simla Sunday Times Simla Edition	Mondays.
Sukkur Sizdhi	Saturdays.
	{ Deshbandhu Deshi Mitra Deshodaya Gujrat Mitra and Gujarat Darpan	Daily, except Sundays. Thursdays. Tuesdays. Saturdays.
Surat ..	{ Jain Mitra Navayuga Weekly Peoples' Business Gifts	Wednesdays. Monthly.
	{ Praja Pokar Samachar Surat Akhbar	Wednesdays. Daily, except Mondays. Sundays.
Sylhet Paridarsaka	Wednesdays.
Tinnevely Kalnaka	Monthly.
Trichinopoly Wednesday Review	Wednesdays.
Tichur Lokaprakasam	Mondays.
Tirupur Commercial News	Daily, except Sundays.
Tiruvalla ..	{ Kerala Kalam Kerala Taraka	Wednesdays. Wednesdays.
	{ Bhurata Kesari Samadarsi	Bi-weekly. Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
Trivandrum	{ Travancore Press Service Trivandrum Daily News Western Star Daily. Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
Udipi Satyagrahi	Thursdays.
Vizagapatam Andhra Advocate	Fridays.
Wai ..	{ Modavritta Vritbasar	Mondays. Mondays.
Wardha Maharashtra Dharma	Tuesdays.
Yerimal ..	{ Rajasthan Kesari Lokamat	Saturdays. Thursdays.

Banking.

An event of great importance in the history of Indian banking was the formation on the 27th January 1921 of the Imperial Bank of India by amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

The idea of a Central Banking establishment for British India was mooted as early as 1836, and was the subject of a minute by Mr. James Wilson, when Finance Member, in 1859. Again, in 1867 Mr. Dickson, the well-known Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for an amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. On various later occasions the matter was brought forward without result and it was discussed by the Chamberlain Commission on Indian Finance and Currency in 1912. The present scheme which has come to fruition was however the result of a rapprochement on the part of the Banks themselves as a result of the experience gained during the war and the realisation of the desirability of streamlining and extending the Banking system in India.

The Presidency Banks.—The history of the Presidency Banks in their relationship with Government falls into three well-defined stages. Prior to 1842 the Presidency Banks had the right of note issue, but were directly controlled by Government and the scope of their business was restricted by their charters. The second period was from 1842 to 1876. In 1842 the Banks were deprived of the right of note issue, though by their agreements of that year they were authorised to transact the paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given the use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work at the Presidency towns and at their branches. The old statutory limitations on their business were at the same time greatly relaxed, though the Government's power of control remained unimpaired. In 1866 the agreements were revised and the paper currency business was removed from their control and placed under the direct management of Government. The third period dates from the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 by which nearly all the most important limitations of the earlier period were reimposed. Put very briefly, the principal restrictions imposed by this Act prohibited the Banks from conducting foreign exchange business, from borrowing or receiving deposits payable out of India, and from lending for a longer period than six months, or upon mortgage or on the security of immovable property or upon promissory notes bearing less than two independent names or upon goods, unless the same were deposited at the same time. In the management, ceasing to appoint official directors and disposing of their shares in the Banks. The Banks no longer enjoyed the full use of the Government balances. Reserve Treasuries were constituted at the Presidency towns into which the surplus revenues were drawn and the balances left at the disposal of the Banks were strictly limited.

The system continued with only minor modifications until 1900. During the war, however, the policy was deliberately adopted of reducing the amount of the balances held in the Reserve Treasuries and leaving much larger balances with the Headquarters of the Presidency Banks in order to assist the money market.

The Imperial Bank.—Under the Imperial Bank of India Act (XVIII) of 1920, the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Governors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council may determine. The Central Board of Governors consists of—

- (a) Managing Governors not exceeding two in number, appointed by the Governor-General in Council on recommendation by the Central Board;
- (b) the Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards;
- (c) the Controller of the Currency, or other officer nominated by the Governor-General in Council; and
- (d) not more than four non-officials, nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

Representatives of any new Local Boards, which may be constituted, may be added at the discretion of the Central Board.

The Controller of the Currency and the Secretaries of the Local Boards are entitled to attend the meetings of the Central Board but not to vote under the Agreement with Government. The Governor-General in Council is entitled to issue instructions to the Bank in respect of any matter which in his opinion vitally affects its financial policy or the safety of the Government balances, and if the Controller of the Currency or such other officer of Government as may be nominated by the Governor-General in Council to be a Governor of the Central Board shall give notice in writing to the Managing Governors that he considers that any action proposed to be taken by the Bank will be detrimental to the Government or affecting the matters aforesaid, such action shall not be taken without the approval in writing of the Governor-General in Council. Under the Imperial Bank of India Act provision was made for the increase of the capital of the Bank. The capital of the three Presidency Banks consisted of 53 crores of rupees in shares of Rs. 500 each, fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised was 7½ crores in shares of Rs. 500 each, of which Rs. 12½ has been called up, making the present capital of the Bank Rs. 11½ crores, of which Rs. 5,82,50,000 has been paid up. The Reserve Fund of the bank is Rs. 5,07,50,000 and the Balance Sheet of 30th June 1927 showed the Government balance at Rs. 10,64,43,927, other deposits at Rs. 73,17,24,712 and cash Rs. 22,85,50,864 with a percentage of cash to liabilities of 22·917.

Class of Business. The India Act renounces the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 in defining absolutely the class of business in which the Bank may engage, though the older limitations are modified in some minor points. It permits for the first time the constitution of a London Office and the borrowing of money in England for the purpose of the Bank's business upon the security of assets of the Bank, but not the opening of cash credits, keeping cash accounts or receiving deposits in London except from former customers of the Presidency Banks. The Act provides for an agreement between the Bank and the Secretary of State, and this agreement, which was signed on the 27th January 1901 and is for a period of ten years determinable thereafter by either party with one year's notice, provides, *inter alia*, for the following important matters:—

- (1) All the general banking business of the Government of India is to be carried out by the Imperial Bank.

(2) The Bank will hold all the Treasury Balances at Headquarters and at its branches. This involves the abolition of the Reserve Treasury system.

- (3) Within five years the Bank undertakes to open 100 new branches of which the Government of India may determine the location of one in four. The branches and agencies of the three Presidency Banks prior to the date of the Act numbered 60, including the Bank of Bengal had no branches prior to the proposal to transfer Government business to the Bank in 1861-62 but no less than 18 branches were established before 1868.

- (4) The management of the Public Debt will continue to be conducted by the Bank for specified remuneration.

THE DIRECTORATE.

Managing Governors

{ Sir N. M. Murray, Kt.

{ O. A. Smith, Esquire (Offg.)

Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards.

CALCUTTA—

B. E. G. Edie, Esquire President.
Sir Alexander R. Murray, Kt., C.B.E., M.L.A. Vice-President.
D. S. McClure, Esquire Secretary.

BOMBAY—

Sr Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E., M.L.A. President.
F. C. Annisley, Esquire Vice-President.
J. G. Kidland, Esquire Secretary.

MADRAS—

Sir James Simpson, Kt. President.
C. E. Wood, Esquire Vice-President.
W. D. MacBain, Esquire (Offg.) Secretary.

Controller of Currency .. (Offg.) J. B. Taylor, Esquire, I.C.S.

Nominated by Government.

The Hon'ble Sir Maneckji B. Dadabhoy, K.C.I.E., Nagpur.
The Hon'ble Sir Dinshaw E. Wacha, Kt., J.P., Bombay.
Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Calcutta.

MANAGER IN LONDON.

Sir Sidney Silwell, Kt.
BRANCHES.

Burra Bazaar, Calcutta.
Olive Street, Calcutta.
Park Street, Calcutta.
Byculla, Bombay.
Mandvi, Bombay.
Sandhurst Road, Bombay.
Mount Road, Madras.
Abbottabad.
Agra.
Ahmedabad.
Ahmedabad City.
Ahmednagar.
Ajmer.
Asola.
Akrab.
Aharb.
Allahabad.
Alleppey.
Ambala.
Ambala Cant.
Amroati.

Amritsar.
Araon.
Bangalore.
Barilly.
Bassain.
Bellary.
Benares.
Berhampore (Gaujam).
Bezwada.
Bhagalpur.
Bhals (Sub-Agency).
Bhopal.
Briest.
Bulandshahr.
Calcutta.
Cawnpore.
Chandpore.
Chhapra.
Chittagong.
Cocanada.
Cochin.

Colombatara.
Colombo.
Cuddalore.
Cuddapah.
Cuttack.
Dacca.
Darbhanga.
Darjeeling.
Dehra Dun.
Delhi.
Dhanbad.
Dunlia.
Dibrugarh.
Ellora.
Etawah.
Farrukhabad.
Ferozepore.
Fyzabad.
Gaya.
Godhga.

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Hyderabad (Deccan).
Hyderabad (Sind).
Indore.
Jaipur.

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Jaipur.
Jalgaon.
Jalgaon.
Jalgaon.
Jalgaon.

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In Schedule 1, Part 1, of the Act, the various descriptions of business which the Bank may transact are laid down, and in Part 2 it is expressly provided that the Bank shall not transact any kind of banking business other than that sanctioned in Part 1.

Briefly stated, the main clauses of business sanctioned are:—

- (1) Advancing money upon the security of:—
 - (a) Stocks, &c., in which a trustee is authorised by Act to invest trust monies.
 - (b) Securities issued by State aided Railways, notified by the Governor-General-in-Council.
 - (c) Debentures, or other securities issued under Act, by, or on behalf of, a District Board.
 - (d) Goods, or documents of title thereto, deposited with, or assigned to the Bank.
 - (e) Accepted Bills of Exchange or Promissory Notes.
 - (f) Fully paid shares and debentures of Companies with limited liability or immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, as collateral security where the original security is one of those specified in a, b, c, d and, if authorised by the Central Board, in e.

(2) With the sanction of the Local Government, advancing money to Courts of Wards upon security of estates in their charge.

(3) Drawing, accepting, discounting, buying and selling bills of exchange and other negotiable securities payable in India and Ceylon and, subject to the directions of the Governor-General in Council, the discounting, buying and selling of bills of exchange payable outside India for and from or to such Banks as may be approved.

(4) Investing the Bank's funds in the securities referred to in (1) a, b, c.

(5) Making Bank Post Bills and Letters of Credit payable in India and Ceylon.

(6) Buying and selling gold and silver.

(7) Receiving deposits.

(8) Receiving securities for safe custody.

(9) Selling such properties as may come into the Bank's possession in satisfaction of claims.

(10) Transacting agency business on commission.

(11) Acting as Administrator, for winding up estates.

(12) Drawing bills of exchange and granting letters of credit payable out of India for the use of principles in connection with (11) and also for private constituents for bona fide personal needs.

The Imperial Bank

Government Deposits.

Government deposits have borne from time to time to the total Capital of the three Banks are shown below:—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

1 Capital.	2 Reserve.	3 Government deposits.	4 Other deposits.	Proportion of Government deposits to 1, 2, 3 & 4.
350	158	289		
360	215	340	1492	11.2 per cent.
360	279	397	1480	14.3 "
360	294	397	2745	8.3 "
360	309	397	2741	8.8 "
360	318	397	2761	8.4 "
360	331	397	2767	7.4 "
360	340	438	2764	9.7 "
375	361	438	2719	9.6 "
375	370	438	2772	9.0 "
375	386	567	2644	11.8 "
375	399	561	4042	10.2 "
375	358	477	3660	9.5 "
375	363	521	4479	9.0 "
375	340	571	6771	8.0 "
375	375	574	5097	12.9 "
375	375	772	7226	8.8 "
		901	7727	9.6 "
547	371	2220	7016	
562	411	1673	6316	21.8
562	485	1256	7047	14.6 "
562	457	2203	7662	13.5 "
562	477	2252	7383	20.2 "
562	482	3254	7530	20.7 "
562	707	1014	7531	27.4 "
				16.8 "

Recent Progress.

Statements show the progress made by the three Banks prior to their amalgamation with the Imperial Bank.—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

BANK OF BENGAL.

Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Invest- ments.	Dividend for year.
200	69	184	677	422	132	10 per cent.
200	103	175	582	243	136	11 "
200	140	167	1234	396	131	12 "
200	150	160	1505	523	149	12 "
200	157	187	1573	460	279	12 "
200	163	178	1575	507	342	13 "
200	170	168	1760	615	411	14 "
200	175	193	1609	514	363	14 "
200	180	270	1677	729	321	14 "
200	185	234	1711	663	310	14 "
200	191	301	1824	640	319	14 "
200	200	287	2160	1169	621	16 "
200	*204	265	1978	785	793	16 "
200	*213	274	2143	772	768	16 "
200	†221	448	2234	1432	773	17 "
200	†189	534	2392	894	779	17 "
200	†260	405	3254	937	864	17 "
200	†210	484	3398	1221	910	18 "

† is Rs. 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation of investments.

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The Exchange Banks

BANK OF BOMBAY.

	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Inv mer
5	100	51	76	268	228	1
0	100	70	87	432	129	
6	100	87	93	678	269	1
8	100	92	101	832	354	1
7	100	96	113	821	324	1
8	100	101	94	832	377	1
9	100	103	120	1035	415	1
0	100	105	152	1053	430	1
1	100	106	107	1104	468	2
2	100	106	117	1124	315	2
3	100	106	200	1015	477	2
4	100	110	183	1081	646	2
5	100	100	130	1079	433	2
6	100	99	142	1367	667	3
7	100	93	225	2817	1393	7
8	100	101	177	1710	542	3
9	100	110	262	2756	928	3
0	100	120	340	2748	876	2

BANK OF MADRAS.

5	60	16	45	278	144	
1	60	23	35	260	82	
7	60	30	41	344	140	
8	60	32	54	355	151	
7	60	36	35	416	162	
7	60	40	53	447	153	
9	60	44	48	500	141	
0	60	48	72	567	184	
1	60	52	69	625	165	14
2	75	70	75	743	196	1
3	75	72	84	673	219	1
4	75	76	91	761	267	1
5	75	65	84	808	250	1
6	75	55	104	960	236	1
7	75	50	87	1020	496	1
8	75	50	102	964	271	1
9	75	45	104	1215	436	1
0	75	45	118	1579	505	2

IMPERIAL BANK.

June.						
5	547	371	22,20	70,16	34,34	16,
6	562	411	16,72	63,26	23,96	9
7	562	425	12,56	70,47	23,13	9
8	562	457	22,08	76,62	21,96	11,
9	562	477	22,52	75,88	35,82	14,
0	562	492	22,54	75,30	45,03	21,
1	562	507	10,04	73,17	22,82	20,

THE EXCHANGE BANKS.

Banks carrying on Exchange business are merely branch agencies of Banks (their head offices in London, on the continent, or in the Far East and the United States). Originally their business was confined exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India; but in recent years, while continuing to finance this India's trade, have also taken an active part in the financing of the internal portion also. In places where their branches are situated, they carry on their business in the same manner as the Banks carried on their operations elsewhere, principally in London—some offices of the Banks attracting deposits for use in India & interest much higher than they were able to quote. Whenever it has been discovered to attract deposits in India on the same terms as can be done elsewhere, a large proportion of the Exchange Banks is now means of money actually in India. No information is available as to the Bank has secured deposits in India. The following statement published by the General of Statistics in India shows that such deposits have grown within recent years.

TOT 9	DEPOSITS OF ALL EXCH AND BANKS In £ l s f w s			0	LARGE COUNTRIES OF EXCHANGE CURRENCY AND EXCHANGE		£
1900	1450	Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China,	15,000	4,017,000
1905	1764	Eastern Bank, Ltd.	15,000	9,231,000
1910	2170	Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation,	15,000	5,735,000
1911	2218	Maritime Bank of India, Ltd.	15,000	5,575,000
1912	2753	National Bank of India, Ltd.	15,000	11,074,000
1913	3103	P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd.	15,000	25,250,000
1914	3011	The above figures do not of course relate to red- counts of Indian bills alone, as the banks operate in other parts of the world also, but it may safely be inferred that bills drawn in India form a very large proportion of the whole. The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well known firms at home or abroad credit opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first possible mail so that immediately they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London the Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 16 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.		
1915	3254			
1916	3808			
1917	3327			
1918	6155			
1919	7425			
1920	7450			
1921	7519			
1922	7558			
1923	6214			
1924	7060			
1925	7071			

Exchange Banks' Investments.

Turning now to the question of the investment of the Banks' resources, so far as it concerns India, this to a great extent consists of the purchase of bills drawn against imports and exports to and from India.

The financing of the import trade originated and is carried through however for the most part by Branches outside India, the Indian Branches' share in the business consisting principally of the bills at maturity.

As regards the export business that the Indian Branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able however by a system of red-count in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through. No definite information can be secured as to the extent to which red-counting in London is carried on but the following figures appearing in the balance sheets dated 31st December 1925 of the under-noted Banks will give some idea of this.

The Banks place themselves in funds in India for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal:—

- (1) Proceeds of import bills as they mature.
- (2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and elsewhere out of India.
- (3) Purchase of Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the Secretary of State.
- (4) Imports of bar gold and silver bullion.
- (5) Imports of sovereigns from London, Egypt or Australia.

The remaining business transacted by the Banks in India is of the usual nature and need not be given in detail.

An interesting event in Indian Banking history is the recent entry in the Banking Directory of one of the English "Big Five." This has been brought about by the acquisition of the business of Cox & Co., by Lloyds Bank.

The following is a statement of the position of the various Exchange Banks carrying on business in India as at 31st December, 1926:—

In Thousands of £.

Name.	Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	11,111	9,335	62,682	24,567
Bank of Taiwan, Ltd.	3,427	174	23,417	9,881
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China, Ltd.	3,000	4,000	50,067	22,162
Comptoir National D'Escompte de Paris	10,000	3,164	237,011	29,573
Eastern Bank, Ltd.	1,000	380	5,987	4,788
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corp'n. Ltd.	1,958	7,258	60,323	23,817
Imperial Bank of Persia	650	520	6,483	6,249
Lloyds Bank, Ltd.	15,810	10,000	346,132	112,445
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.	1,030	1,735	14,977	9,160
Mitsui Bank, Ltd.	6,000	4,940	45,584	17,721
National Bank of India, Ltd.	2,000	2,800	31,973	19,716
National City Bank of New York	15,000	13,755	239,991	61,985
Netherlands Trading Society	6,666	3,708	24,704	8,063
N. Y. M. B. Bank	4,683	2,058	15,583	5,202
..... Ltd.	2,594	180	8,427	4,369
..... Ltd.	5,000	2,543	62,380	21,113
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.	10,000	9,250	50,723	50,162

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Previous to 1906 there were few Banks of this description operating in India, and such as were then in existence were of comparatively small importance and had their business confined to a very restricted area. The rapid development of this class of Bank, which has been so marked a feature in Banking within recent years, really had its origin in Bombay and set in with the establishment of the Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank in 1906. After that time there was a perfect stream of new formations, and although many of the new Companies confined themselves to legitimate banking business, on the other hand a very large number engaged in other businesses in addition and can hardly be properly classed as Banks.

These Banks made very great strides during the first few years of their existence, but it was generally suspected in well-informed circles that the business of many of the Banks was of a very speculative and unsafe character and it was a matter of no great surprise to many people when it became known that some of the Banks were in difficulties.

The first important failure to take place was that of the People's Bank of India and the loss of confidence caused by the failure of that Bank resulted in a very large number of other failures, the principal being that of the Indian Specie Bank.

Since those events of ten years ago confidence has been largely restored. But in April 1923 the Alliance Bank of India suspended payment and is now in voluntary liquidation. The effect of the failure of this old established Bank might have been disastrous but for the prompt action of the Imperial Bank which dealt with the situation in close association with the Government of India. The Imperial Bank undertook to pay the depositors of the Alliance Bank 60 per cent. of the amounts due to them. A panic was averted and a critical period was passed through with little difficulty.

During 1923 the Tata Industrial Bank, which was established in 1913, was merged in the Central Bank of India.

The following shows the position of the better known existing Banks as it appears in the latest available Balance Sheets:—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

Name.	Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Allahabad Bank, Ltd., affiliated to P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd.	35	44	1,006	497
Bank of Baroda, Ltd.	30	22	563	350
Bank of India, Ltd.	100	79	986	302
Bank of Mysore, Ltd.	20	12	182	82
Central Bank of India, Ltd.	168	100	1,705	1,273
Industrial Bank of Western India, Ltd.	59	2	41	13
Indian Bank, Ltd. (Madras)	12	6	87	17
Karachi Bank, Ltd.	2	1	43	19
Punjab National Bank, Ltd.	21	20	778	313
Shahjod Bank, Ltd.	4	...	19	15
Union Bank of India, Ltd.	59	5	22	51

Growth of Joint Stock Banks
 In the following table, appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics, showing the growth of the Capital Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India. —

Year	In Lakhs of rupees.			Capital	Reserve	Deposits
	Capital	Reserve	Deposits			
1870	9	1	13	266	87	2048
1875	14	2	27	275	100	2595
1880	18	3	83	285	126	2539
1885	18	5	34	284	124	2725
1890	34	17	270	275	162	3250
1895	62	31	866	281	241	1710
1900	82	45	507	287	150	1787
1905	184	56	1117	287	173	2471
1907	229	63	1400	287	162	3117
1908	239	68	1628	287	165	4059
				289	224	5590
				287	255	7114
				288	300	7689
				282	261	8163
				280	254	4442
				280	284	8250
				280	280	8448

LONDON OFFICES, AGENTS OR CORRESPONDENTS OF BANKS AND FIRMS (DOING BANKING BUSINESS IN INDIA.)

Name of Bank.	London Office — Agents or Correspondents.	Address.
Imperial Bank of India	London Office	22, Old Broad Street, E. C. 4.
Other Banks & Kindred Firms.		
Allahabad Bank	National Provincial Bank	15, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
	P. & O. Banking Corp.	117-122, Leadenhall Street, E. C. 3.
Bank of India	Westminster Bank	1, Bartholomew Lane, E. C. 2.
Bank of Merchants	National Provincial Bank (Branch)	15, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Central Bank of India	Lloyds Bank	42, Gracechurch St., E. C. 3.
Grindlay & Co.	London Office	34, Parliament Street, S. W. 1.
Karnal Industrial Bank	Barclays Bank	108, Fenchurch Street, E. C. 2.
King's Branch (Calcutta) (Bombay)	Lloyds Bank	42, Gracechurch St., E. C. 3.
Punjab National Bank	William Bank	5, Threadneedle St., E. C. 2.
Sindia Banking & Industrial Co.	Ditto	Ditto.
Union Bank of India	Westminster Bank	1, Bartholomew Lane, E. C. 2.
Exchange Banks.		
American Express Co. (Ing.)	London Office	62-a, Lombard Street, E. C. 3.
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	Ditto	9, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Bank of Taiwan	Ditto	Grays Inn House, 25, Bedford Street, E. C. 2.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	Ditto	24, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris	Ditto	8-13, King William Street, E. C. 4.
Eastern Bank	Ditto	2-3, Crosby Sq., E. C. 3.
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Ditto	9, Gracechurch St., E. C. 3.
Imperial Bank of Persia	Ditto	33-35, King William Street, E. C. 4.
The National City Bank of New York	Ditto	56, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Lloyds Bank	Ditto	42, Gracechurch St., E. C. 3.
Ditto (Cox's Branch)	Ditto	Ditto
Mercantile Bank of India	Ditto	17, Gracechurch St., E. C. 3.
Mitsui Bank, Ltd.	Ditto	200, Old Broad St., E. C. 2.
National Bank of India	Ditto	26, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij	National Provincial Bank	15, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Nederlandsche Indische Handelsbank	London Representative	27, Old Broad Street, E. C. 2.
P & O. Banking Corporation	London Office	117-122, Leadenhall Street, E. C. 3.
Sumitomo Bank	Ditto	67, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Thomas Cook & Son	Ditto	Leadenhall Circus, E. C. 4.
Yokohama Specie Bank	Ditto	7, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.

INDIAN PRIVATE BANKERS AND SHROFFS.

Indian private Bankers and Shroffs flourished in India long before Joint Stock Banks were ever thought of, and it seems likely that they will continue to thrive for some very considerable time to come. The use of the word

"Shroff" is usually associated with a person who charges usurious rates of interest to unpeccious people, but this is hardly fair to the people known as "shroffs" in banking circles, as there is no doubt that the latter are of very real service to the business community and of very great assistance to Banks in India. Under present conditions the Banks in India can never hope to be able to get into sufficiently close touch with the affairs of the vast trading community in India to enable them to grant accommodation to more than a few of these traders direct and it is in his capacity as middleman that the shroff proves of such great service. In this capacity also he brings a very considerable volume of business within the scope of the Presidency Banks Act, and enables the Presidency Banks to give accommodation which, without his assistance, the Banks would not be permitted to give. The shroff's position as an intermediary between the trading community and the Banks usually arises in something after the following manner. A shopkeeper in the bazaar, with limited means of his own finds that, after using all his own money, he still requires say Rs. 25,000 to stock his shop suitably. He thereupon approaches the shroff, and the latter after very careful inquiries as to the shopkeeper's position grants the accommodation, if he is satisfied that the business is safe. The business, as a rule, is arranged through a bonded broker, and in the case referred to the latter may probably approach about ten shroffs and secure accommodation from them to the extent of Rs. 2,500 each. A bonded usually drawn at a currency of about 2 months is almost invariably taken by the shroffs in respect of such advances.

A stage is reached however when the demands on the shroffs are greater than they are able to meet out of their own money, and it is at this

point that the assistance of the Banks is called into requisition. The shroffs do this by taking a number of the bills they already hold to the Banks for discount under their endorsement and the Banks accept such bills freely to an extent determined in each case by the standing of the shroff and the strength of the drawers. The extent to which any one shroff may grant accommodation in the bazaar is therefore dependent on two factors, viz., (1) the limit which he himself may think it advisable to place on his transactions, and (2) the extent to which the Banks are prepared to discount bills bearing his endorsement. The shroffs keep in very close touch with all the traders to whom they grant accommodation, and past experience has shown that the class of business above referred to is one of the safest the Banks can engage in.

The rates charged by the shroffs are usually based on the rates at which they in turn can discount the bills with the Banks and necessarily vary according to the standing of the borrower and with the season of the year. Generally speaking, however, a charge of two annas per cent. per mensem above the Bank's rate of discount, or $1\frac{1}{2}\%$, is a fair average rate charged in Bombay to a first class borrower. Rates in Calcutta and Madras are on a slightly higher scale due in a great measure to the fact that the competition among the shroffs for business is not so keen in these places as it is in Bombay.

The shroffs who engage in the class of business above described are principally Marwaries and Multanis having their Head Offices for the most part in Bikanir and Shikarpur, respectively, the business elsewhere than at the Head Offices being carried on by "Moonims" who have very wide powers.

It is not known to what extent native bankers and shroffs receive deposits and engage in exchange business throughout India, but there is no doubt that this is done to a very considerable extent.

THE BANK RATE.

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank Rate, and the rates were not uniform. Now the Imperial Bank fixes the rate for the whole of India. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the Banks on demand loans against Government securities only and advances on other securities or discounts are granted as

a rule at a slightly higher rate. Ordinarily such advances or discounts are granted at from one-half to one per cent. over the official rate, but this does not always apply and in the monsoon months, when the Bank rate is sometimes nominal, it often happens that such accommodation is granted at the official rate or even less.

The following statement shows the average Bank Rate since the Imperial Bank was constituted:—

Year.	1st Half-year.	2nd Half-year.	Yearly average
1921	6.038	5.108	5.573
1922	7.132	4.510	5.821
1923	7.419	4.6	5.959
1924	8.05	5.315	6.682
1925	6.585	4.701	5.643
1926	6.651	4.---	---
1927	6.503	4.---	4.825

BANKERS CLEARING HOUSES

Clearing House and a clearing house in Calcutta, Madras, Rangoon, and Bombay. In Calcutta all cheques drawn on him negotiated by the latter. After all cheques have been received and delivered to the representative of each Bank advises the clearing Bank of the difference between his total receipts and deliveries and the clearing Bank thereupon strikes a final balance to satisfy itself that the total of the other balances agrees with the total of the clearing Bank. The debtor Banks thereafter arrange to pay the amounts due by them to the clearing Bank during the course of the day and the latter in turn arranges to pay the receipts of those amounts to the creditor Banks. In practice however all the members keep Bank accounts with the clearing Bank so that the final balances are settled by cheques and book entries thus doing away with the necessity for cash in any form.

for the Clearing Houses in India above referred to are given below:—
Total amount of Cheques Cleared Annually.

In lakhs of Rupees.

Calcutta.	Bombay	Madras	Rangoon.	Colombo.	Karachi.	Total.
Not available	6511	1838	Not available	"	178	8027
"	7913	1293	"	"	284	9574
"	8762	1464	"	"	340	10566
"	9492	1530	"	"	365	11282
"	10927	1560	"	"	324	12811
22446	10912	1583	"	"	490	12895
21281	12845	1545	"	"	530	37107
19776	12585	1754	"	"	643	35282
22238	14875	1948	"	"	702	36901
25768	16652	2117	4765	"	765	16627
25831	17805	2068	5549	"	762	51812
38153	20831	1152	6043	"	1159	58016
28031	21890	2340	6198	"	1219	64760
32266	17696	2127	4869	"	1315	54158
46017	16462	1887	4068	"	1252	56036
47193	24051	2495	4353	"	2503	80919
74397	38055	2339	4966	"	2028	90121
90241	53362	2528	6827	"	2429	139643
153388	76250	3004	8937	"	2268	160598
91672	126353	7500	10779	"	3120	301140
94428	89788	3847	11675	"	3570	200761
89148	56563	4279	12220	9681	3294	210523
92249	75015	4722	11094	11940	4064	195983
101823	65250	5746	11555	13173	4515	192249
95944	51944	5716	12493	14978	4119	191083
	42066	5688	12511	16032	3158	175408

Table of Wages, Income &c

Day	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	2	6	0	3	1	0	4	7
2	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
3	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
4	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
5	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
6	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
7	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
8	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
9	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
10	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
11	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
12	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
13	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
14	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
15	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
16	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
17	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
18	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
19	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
20	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
21	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
22	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
23	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
24	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
25	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
26	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
27	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
28	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
29	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5
30	0	1	0	0	2	0	3	1	0	4	7	0	5	1	0	5

The Railways.

The history of Indian Railways very closely reflects the financial vicissitudes of the country. Not for some time after the establishment of Railways in England was their construction in India contemplated, and then to test their applicability to Eastern conditions three experimental lines were sanctioned in 1845. These were from Calcutta to Ranigunj (120 miles), the East Indian Railway; Bombay to Kalyan (33 miles), Great Indian Peninsula Railway; and Madras to Arkonam (39 miles), Madras Railway. Indian Railway building on a serious scale dates from Lord Dalhousie's great minute of 1853, wherein, after dwelling upon the great social, political and commercial advantages of connecting the chief cities by rail, he suggested a great scheme of trunk lines linking the Presidencies with each other and the inland regions with the principal ports. This reasoning commended itself to the Directors of the East India Company, and it was powerfully reinforced when, during the Mutiny, the barriers imposed on free communication were severely felt. As there was no private capital in India available for railway construction, English Companies, the interest on whose capital was guaranteed by the State, were formed for the purpose. By the end of 1859 contracts had been entered into with eight companies for the construction of 5,000 miles of line, involving a guaranteed capital of 252 millions. These companies were (1) the East Indian; (2) the Great Indian Peninsula; (3) the Madras; (4) the Bombay, Baroda and Central India; (5) the Eastern Bengal; (6) the Indian Branch, now the Oudh and Rohilkund State Railway; (7) the Sind, Punjab and Delhi, now merged in the North Western State Railway; (8) the Great Southern of India, now the South Indian Railway. The scheme laid the foundations of the Indian Railway system as it exists to-day.

Early Disappointments.

The main principle in the formation of these companies was a Government guarantee on their capital, for this was the only condition on which investors would come forward. This guarantee was five per cent. coupled with the free grant of all the land required; in return the companies were required to share the surplus profits with the Government, after the guaranteed interest had been met; the interest charges were calculated at 22½. to the rupee, the Railways were to be sold to Government on fixed terms at the close of twenty-five years and the Government were to exercise close control over expenditure and working. The early results were disappointing. Whilst the Railways greatly increased the efficiency of the administration, the mobility of the troops, the trade of the country; and the movement of the population, they failed to make profits sufficient to meet the guaranteed interest. Some critics attributed this to the unnecessarily high standard of construction adopted, and to the engineers' ignorance of local conditions; the result was that by 1869 the deficit on the Railway budget was Rs. 1,664 lakhs, of which the Government had to meet

secured sanction to the building of lines by direct State Agency, and funds were allotted for the purpose, the metre-gauge being adopted for cheapness. Funds soon lapsed and the money available had to be diverted to converting the Sind and Punjab lines from metre to broad-gauge for strategic reasons. Government had therefore again to resort to the system of guarantee, and the Indian Midland (1882-85), since absorbed by the Great Indian Peninsula; the Bengal-Nagpur (1883-87) the Southern Maratha (1882); and the Assam Bengal (1891) were constructed under guarantees, but on easier terms than the first companies. Their total length was over 4,000 miles.

Famine and Frontiers.

In 1879, embarrassed by famine and by the fall of the exchange value of the rupee, Government again endeavoured to enlist unaided private enterprise. Four companies were promoted:—the Nilgiri, the Delhi-Umballa-Kalka, the Bengal Central, and the Bengal North-Western. The first became bankrupt, the second and third received guarantees, and the Tirhut Railway had to be leased to the fourth. A step of even greater importance was taken when Native States were invited to undertake construction in their own territories, and the Nizam's Government guaranteed the interest on 330 miles of line in the State of Hyderabad. This was the first of the large system of Native State Railways. In the first period up to 1870 4,255 miles were opened, of which all save 45 were on the broad-gauge; during the next ten years there were opened 4,239, making the total 8,494 (on the broad-gauge 6,562, the metre 1,865, and narrow 87). Then ensued a period of financial ease. It was broken by the fall in exchange and the costly lines built on the frontier. The Penjdeh incident, which brought Great Britain and Russia to the verge of war; necessitated the connection of our outposts at Quetta and Chaman with the main trunk lines. The sections through the desolate Hamai and Bolan Passes were enormously costly; it is said that they might have been ballasted with rupees; the long tunnel under the Khojak Pass added largely to this necessary, but unprofitable, outlay.

Rebate Terms Established.

This induced the fourth period—the system of rebates. Instead of a gold subsidy, companies were offered a rebate on the gross earnings of the traffic interchanged with the main line, so that the dividend might rise to four per cent. but the rebate was limited to 20 per cent. of the gross earnings. Under these conditions, there were promoted the Ahmedabad-Prantel, the South Behar, and the Southern Punjab, although only in the case of the first were the terms strictly adhered to. The Barsi Light Railway, on the two feet six inches gauge, entered the field without any guarantee, and with rolling stock designed to illustrate the carrying power of this gauge. The rebates being found unattractive in view of the low rate of 4 per cent. trustee stocks they were in 1896 provided for an

absolute guarantee of 3 per cent. with a share of surplus profits, or rebate up to the full extent of the main line's net earnings in supplement of their own net earnings, the total being limited to 3½ per cent. on the capital outlay. Under these terms, a considerable number of feeder line companies was promoted, though in none were the conditions arbitrarily exacted. As these terms did not at first attain their purpose, they were further revised, and in lieu was substituted an increase in the rate of guarantee from 3 to 3½ per cent. and of rebate from 3½ to 5 per cent. with equal division of surplus profits over 5 per cent. in both cases. At last, the requirements of the market were met, and there was for a time a mild boom in feeder railway construction and the stock of all the sound companies promoted stood at a substantial premium. Conditions changed after the war and the Acworth Committee so far from approving of this system, considered that the aim of the Government should be to reduce by amalgamation the number of existing companies and that it should only be in cases where the State cannot or will not provide adequate funds that private enterprise in this direction should be encouraged.

The existing Branch Line Companies have ceased for some time to raise additional capital for capital requirements. They have either obtained overdrafts from various Banks for this purpose at heavy rates of interest or issued debentures at special rates of interest (usually about 7 per cent.) or in several cases asked for money to be advanced to them by the Railway Board. So far, therefore, from reducing the amount that the Government of India have to raise in the open market, they were increasing the amount. For the above reasons, the Government of India have abolished this system and are now prepared themselves to find the capital required for the construction of extensions or branches to existing main line systems. They have also announced their readiness to consider the question of constructing branch or feeder lines which were not expected to be remunerative from the point of view of railway earnings upon a guarantee against loss from a Local Government or local authority which might desire to have such lines constructed for purely local reasons or on account of administrative advantages likely to accrue in particular areas. This proposal was put forward as affording a suitable method of reconciling the interests of the Central and the Local Governments and of providing for local bodies and for Local Governments a method of securing the construction of railways which may be required for purely local reasons and which, while not likely to prove remunerative on purely railway earnings, are likely to give such benefits to Local Governments and local bodies as will more than repay the amounts paid under the guarantee. Some such arrangements have already been made with Local Government in Madras, Punjab, Burma and Bombay.

Railway Profits Commence.

Meantime a much more important change was in progress. The gradual economic development of the country vastly increased the traffic, both passenger and goods. The rising in the contracts allowed Gov

ernment to renew them on more favourable terms. The development of irrigation in Punjab and Sind transformed the North-Western State Railway. Owing to the burden of maintaining the unprofitable Frontier line this was the Cinderella Railway in India—scapegoat of the critics who protested against the unwise of constructing railways borrowed capital. But with the completion of the Chenab and Jhelum Canals, the North-Western became one of the great grammers of the world, choked with traffic at certain seasons of the year and making a large profit for the State. In 1900 the railways for the first time showed a small gain to the State. In succeeding years the net receipts grew rapidly. In the four years ended 1907 they averaged close upon £2 millions a year. In the following year there was a relapse, but harvests in India, accompanied by the monetary panic caused by the American financial crisis, led to a great falling off in receipts when working expenses were rising, owing to the general increase in prices. Instead of profit, there was a deficit of £1,240,000 in railway accounts for 1908-09. But in the following year there was a reversion to a profit, and the net Railway gain has steadily increased. For the year ended March 1919 the gain amounted to £10,573,000. Although in a country like India, where the finances are mainly dependent upon the character of the monsoon, the railway revenue must fluctuate, there was no reason to anticipate a further deficit, but the net railway gain decreased £3,787,000 in 1920-21 and there was an actual loss of £6,182,000 in 1921-22. As a result of the steps taken by the Railway Board, however, on the report of the Acworth Committee in 1921, this loss was changed into a gain of £818,000 in 1922-23 and this was further increased to a gain of £4,275,000 in 1923-24 of £8,579,800 in 1924-25 and of £5,796,000 in 1925-26. Thanks to the separation of the Railway from the General Finances which is described later, and provided that the present railway policy is not influenced too much by political considerations, railways should continue to show a net yearly gain.

Contracts Revised.

One factor which helped to improve financial position was the revision of the original contracts under which the guaranteed lines were constructed. The five per cent. dividend guaranteed at 22½ per rupee, and the bi-yearly settlements made these companies a drain on the State at a time when their stock was at a high premium. The first contract to fall in was the East Indian, the great line connecting Calcutta with Delhi and the Northern provinces. When the contract lapsed the Government exercised their right of purchasing the line, paying the purchase-money in the form of terminable annuities, derived from revenue, carrying with them a sinking fund for the redemption of capital. The railway thus became a State line; but it was leased to the Company which actually worked it. Under these new conditions the East Indian Company brought to the State in sixteen years ended 1909 after meeting all charges the payments on the annuity by which of which

purchase of the line was made, and interest of all capital outlay subsequent to the date on purchase, a clear profit of nearly ten millions. At the end of seventy-four years from 1880, when the annuity expires, the Government will come into receipt of a clear yearly income of upwards of £2,700,000, equivalent to the creation of a capital of sixty to seventy millions sterling. No other railway shows results quite equal to the East Indian, because, in addition to serving a rich country by an easy line, it possesses its own collieries and enjoys cheap coal. But with allowance for these factors, all the other guaranteed companies which have been acquired under similar conditions as their contracts expired, have proportionately swelled the revenue and assets of the State. It is difficult to estimate the amount which must be added to the capital debt of the Indian railways in order to counterbalance the loss during the period when the revenue did not meet the interest charges. According to one estimate it should be £50 millions. But even if that figure be taken, Government have a magnificent asset in their railway property.

Improving Open Lines.

These changes induced a corresponding change in Indian Railway policy. Up to 1900 the great work had been the provision of trunk lines. But with the completion of the Nagda-Muttra line, providing an alternative broad-gauge route from Bombay to Delhi through Eastern Rajputana, the trunk system was virtually complete. A direct broad gauge route from Bombay to Sind is needed, but chiefly for strategic purposes. The poor commercial prospects of the line and the opposition of the Rao of Cutch to any through line in his territories, keep this scheme in the background. There does not exist any through rail connection between India and Burma, although several routes have been surveyed; the mountainous character of the region to be traversed, and the easy means of communication with Burma by sea, rob this scheme of any living importance. Further survey work was undertaken between 1914 and 1920, the three routes to be surveyed being the coast route, the Manipur route, and the Hukong valley route. The metre-gauge systems of Northern and Southern India must also be connected and Karachi given direct broad-gauge connection with Delhi, a project that is now under investigation. But these works are subordinate to the necessity for bringing the open lines up to their traffic requirements and providing them with feeders. The sudden increase in the trade of India found the main lines totally unprepared. Costly works were necessary to double lines, improve the equipment, provide new and better yards and terminal facilities and to increase the rolling stock. Consequently the demands on the open lines altogether overshadowed the provision of new lines. Even then the railway budget was found totally inadequate for the purpose, and a small Committee sat in London, under the chairmanship of Lord Inchcape, to consider ways and means. This Committee found that the amount which could be spent on railway construction in India was limited only by the

capacity of the money market. They fixed the annual allotment at £12,000,000 a year. Even this reduced sum could not always be provided.

Government Control and re-organisation, of Railway Board.

As the original contracts carried a definite Government guarantee of interest, it was necessary for Government to exercise strong supervision and control over the expenditure during construction, and over management and expenditure after the lines were open for traffic. For these purposes a staff of Consulting Engineers was formed, and a whole system of checks and counterchecks established, leading up to the Railway Branch of the Public Works Department of the Government of India. As traffic developed, the Indian Railways outgrew this dry nursing, and when the original contracts expired, and the interests of Government and the Companies synchronised, it became not only vexatious but unnecessary. Accordingly in 1901-02 Mr. Thomas Robertson was deputed by the Secretary of State to examine the whole question of the organization and working of the Indian Railways, and he recommended that the existing system should be replaced by a Railway Board, consisting of a Chairman and two members with a Secretary. The Board was formally constituted in March 1903. The Board was made subordinate to the Government of India in which it was represented by the Department of Commerce and Industry. It prepared the railway programme of expenditure and considered the greater questions of policy and economy affecting all the lines. Its administrative duties included the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, the improvement of railway management with regard both to economy and public convenience, the arrangements for through traffic, the settlement of disputes between lines, the control and promotion of the staff on State lines, and the general supervision over the working and expenditure of the Company's lines. Two minor changes have taken place since the constitution of the Railway Board. In 1908, to meet the complaint that the Board was subjected to excessive control by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the powers of the Chairman were increased and he was given the status of a Secretary to Government with the right of independent access to the Viceroy; he usually sits in the Imperial Legislative Council as the representative of the Railway interest. In 1912 in consequence of complaints of the excessive interference of the Board with the Companies, an informal mission was undertaken by Lord Inchcape to reconcile differences. Various changes were introduced during the years 1912-1920 such as the modification of the rule that the President and members of the Railway Board should all be men of large experience in the working of railways due to the importance of financial and commercial considerations in connection with the control of Indian Railway policy. This decision was however, revised in 1920 and an additional appointment of Financial Adviser to the Railway Board was made. The Board is now fully constituted by the Act of 1921.

Operation of Indian Railways

and a revised organization which is described later was introduced from 1st April 1924.

Some of the difficulties involved in the constitution of a controlling authority for the railways of India may be realised from a study of the "Notes on the Relation of the Government to Railways in India" printed as an appendix to the Railway Administration report for 1923-23. These notes bring out the great diversity of conditions prevailing which involve the Railway Department in the exercise of the functions of —

- (a) the directly controlling authority of the three State-worked systems aggregating 15,414 miles in 1925,
- (b) the representative of the predominant owning partner in systems aggregating 27,325 miles,
- (c) the guarantor of many of the smaller companies, and
- (d) the statutory authority over all railways in India.

Moreover in all questions relating to railways or extra municipal tramways in which Provincial Governments are concerned, the Railway Department is called upon to watch the interests of the Central Government and is frequently asked to advise the Local Governments. Its duties do not end there. The future development of railways depends largely on the Government of India and the Railway Department is therefore called upon to plan out schemes of development, to investigate and survey new lines and to arrange for financing their construction. The statement of the varied responsibilities of the Government of India in regard to railways might be extended almost indefinitely. It will perhaps be sufficient to mention only the complications that may and do arise owing to the very considerable railway mileage in Indian States. In the exercise of all these functions the Railway Department is a Department of the Government of India, its policy must be in accord with the policy of the Government as a whole and every decision must be made with that consideration in mind. The evolution of a satisfactory authority for the administration of these varied functions has proved extremely difficult and the question was one of those referred to the Railway Committee (1920-21) presided over by Sir William Acworth who expressed the unanimous opinion that material changes were necessary in the constitution of the Railway Board. Amongst their recommendations they advised the early appointment of a Chief Commissioner of Railways whose first duty should be to prepare a definite scheme for the reorganization of the Railway Department and Mr. C. D. M. Hindley, formerly Agent of the East Indian Railway and Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust, was appointed Chief Commissioner on November 1st, 1922.

The principal constitutional change involved in this appointment is that the Chief Commissioner who takes the place of the President of the Railway Board is solely responsible—under the Government of India—for arriving at decisions on technical matters and for advising the Government of India on matters of railway policy and is not as was the subject to be and over-ruled by him as the

the Board. The detailed re-organization of the Railway Board in accordance with the Chief Commissioner's proposals required careful consideration but one of the most important of his recommendations namely the appointment of a Financial Commissioner was considered of particular urgency and the Secretary of State's sanction was therefore obtained to the appointment with effect from 1-4-1923. While in the person of the Chief Engineer the Railway Board has always had available the technical advice of a senior Civil Engineer, the questions it assistance.

ment have become increasingly evident and it was therefore decided with effect from November 1st, 1922, to create the new appointment of Chief Mechanical Engineer with the Railway Board.

The reorganization carried out in 1924 had for one of its principal objects the relief of the Chief Commissioner and the Members from all but important work so as to enable them to devote their attention to larger questions of railway policy and to enable them to keep in touch with Local Governments, railway administrations and public bodies by touring to a greater extent than they had been able to do in the past. This object was effected by placing a responsible Director at the head of each of the main branches of the Board's work, namely Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Traffic and Establishment. The former Chief Engineer and the Chief Mechanical Engineer, who had been employed mainly in cultivative work, became Directors and together with the Directors of Traffic and Establishment have been made responsible for the direct disposal of the work of their branches under the general orders of the Railway Board.

The posts of Joint Secretary and 4 Assistant Secretaries were replaced by 6 Deputy Directors working under the Directors and in charge of branches dealing with Establishment, Works, Projects, Stores, Statistics and Traffic. One Assistant Director was also added to supervise the Technical Branch and the Drawing Office. The disposal of the general work of the Railway Board was provided for by the continuance of the post of Secretary in whose name all letters and orders of the Board are issued. The position of the Board as a Department of the Government of India has been maintained and it works under the Member for Commerce and Railway. As already stated the Chief Commissioner is the Secretary to the Government of India in the Railway Department and orders issued by the Board over the signature of the Secretary are orders of the Government of India.

Experience of the working of this organization during 1924-25 and the decision agreed to by the Legislative Assembly in September 1924 to separate railway finances from the general finances of the country made it necessary to appoint a Deputy Director and an Assistant Director of Finance. An Assistant Director of Statistics was also added during that year. Later a Director of Finance was to the establishment occupying, as of work, the same to above.

Further experience of the reduction of work resulting from the large delegation of power and responsibility to the Agents of State-managed Railways and the Board of Directors of Company-managed railways enabled a rearrangement of work to be made during 1925-26 accompanied by a reduction in the staff. Under this rearrangement the posts of 3 Deputy Directors, an Assistant Director and the Assistant Secretary were held in abeyance. The personal work was transferred from the Directors of Establishment to the Secretary and a temporary post of Deputy Secretary was created. Further a separate technical office was established to take charge of the technical work of the engineering branches. The Technical Officer also acts as *ex-officio* Secretary to the permanent Standardization Committees which have been appointed to deal progressively with all questions of standards of equipment.

The present superior staff under the Railway Board, therefore, consists of 5 Directors, 4 Deputy Directors, a Technical Officer, 2 Assistant Directors, a Secretary and a Deputy Secretary.

The question of transferring the supervision of railway accounts of State Railways from the Finance Department to the Railway Board has been under consideration for some time and in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Legislative Assembly in September 1925, a start has been made with the transfer of the supervision of railway accounts on the East Indian Railway. At the same time a separate Audit Staff has been appointed reporting directly to the Auditor-General. If the revised procedure proves a success, it will probably be extended to other State Railways.

Management.

The Railways managed by Companies have Boards of Directors in London and are represented in India by an Agent. The Company managed railways are generally organised on a departmental basis with a Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer, Locomotive and Carriage and Wagon Superintendent, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor, while the State managed lines have generally a Chief Engineer, Chief Commercial Engineer, Mechanical Engineer, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor.

Clearing Accounts Office.

On the results of an experiment carried out in 1925 on the North Western Railway with the object of demonstrating that grouped divisions of traffic could be effected on the basis of ton mileage carried on each railway under particular commodities of Particular rates. Railway Board decided to set up a Central Clearing Accounts Office to be placed in 1925, who in the course of his investigations discovered a new method of much greater simplicity for apportioning the traffic.

The working of the new method has been fully and it is expected to be of great

that the establishment of a Central Office for the check and apportionment of traffic under the revised method will make for increased efficiency and economy.

The Clearing Accounts Office will undertake the internal check of the returns from statistics of State-worked Railways in respect of all through trade of such railway. It will in addition undertake the apportionment of all traffic interchanged between State-worked Railways. This apportionment will be done under the revised method. It will also be responsible for the apportionment of all traffic interchanged with the Company-worked Railways which under the existing procedure, the State-worked Railways are responsible to clear. All such work will for the present be performed under existing methods in order that the Company-worked Railways may receive the same returns as they do at present. From enquiries that have been made it is hoped however, that some at least of the Companies will desire to receive returns in the modified forms with the traffic apportioned under the new method.

The question of extending the functions of the Clearing Accounts Office to include the preparation of certain classes of statistics and the adjustments of certain classes of expenditure is also under consideration.

The present cost of the work transferred to the Clearing Accounts Office compared with the cost of performing the same work in the latter office shows that a substantial saving in expenditure will be secured immediately. As Company-worked Railways agree to accept the application of the new method of apportionment of traffic the saving will increase.

The Railway Conference.

In order to facilitate the adjustment of domestic questions, the Railway Conference was instituted in 1876. This Conference was consolidated into a permanent body in 1908 under the title of the Indian Railway Conference Association. It is under the direct control of the railways, it elects a President from amongst the members, and it has done much useful work.

The Indian Gauges.

The standard gauge for India is five feet six inches. When construction was started the broad-gauge school was strong, and it was thought advisable to have a broad-gauge in order to resist the influence of cyclones. But in 1870, when the State system was adopted it was decided to find a more economical gauge, for the open lines had cost £17,000 a mile. After much deliberation, the metre-gauge of 3 feet 3½ inches was adopted, because at that time the idea of adopting the metric system for India was in the air. The original intention was to make the metre-gauge lines provisional they were to be converted into broad-gauge as soon as the traffic justified it; consequently they were built very light. But the traffic expanded with surprising rapidity, and it was found cheaper to improve the carrying power of the lines than to convert them to the broad gauge. So except in the Indian Valley where the

an unbroken gauge, the metre gauge lines were improved and they became a permanent feature in the railway system. Now there is a great metre-gauge system north of the Ganges connected with the Rajputana lines and Kathiawar. Another System in Southern India embracing the Southern Maratha and the South India Systems. These are not yet connected,

but the necessary link from Kharwa by way of the Nizam's Hyderabad-Godavari Railway, cannot be long delayed. All the Burma lines are on the metre-gauge. Since the opening of the Bar line, illustrating the capacity of the two feet six inch gauge, there has been developed a tendency to construct feeders on this rather than on the metre-gauge.

The following statement brings out the more important features of the operation of Indian railways during the year 1926-27 together with similar information for the year 1925-26:—

Mileage open on the 31st March—					1925-26.	1926-27.
1.	Single line	35,186.73	35,542.41
2.	Double line or more	3,392.75	3,506.47
3.	Total route mileage	38,579.48	39,048.88
4.	Total track mileage	52,079.13	52,826.27
Capital and Revenue Earnings and Expenditure—						
5.	Total capital at charge including ferries and suspense on open line	Rs.	7,54,81,52,000	7,88,06,66,000
6.	Gross earnings	1,13,39,21,000	1,12,35,66,000
7.	Gross earnings per train mile	6.99	6.58
8.	Working expenses	71,09,05,000	69,70,08,000
9.	Working expenses per train mile	4.38	4.08
10.	Net earnings	42,30,16,000	42,65,58,000
11.	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings.	62.69	62.04
12.	Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay.	5.61	5.41
Equipment—						
13.	Locomotives	10,011	9,873
14.	Passenger carriages	20,449	20,590
15.	Other passenger vehicles	5,556	5,879
16.	Goods stock	226,769	2,30,728
Passenger Traffic—						
17.	Number of passengers carried	599,144,800	6,04,871,800
18.	Passenger miles	20,831,762,000	20,366,250,000
19.	Average journey	Miles.	33.9	33.7
20.	Earnings from passengers carried	Rs.	39,45,00,000	38,11,89,000
21.	Average rate charged per passenger per mile	Pies.	3.73	3.59
22.	Total coaching earnings	Rs.	45,81,86,000	44,48,36,000
Goods Traffic—						
23.	Number of tons earned	79,859,000	85,833,000
24.	Net ton miles	19,900,018,000	20,374,679,000
25.	Average haul	249.2	239.4
26.	Earnings from tonnage carried	Rs.	64,42,17,000	65,00,65,000
27.	Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile	Pies.	6.23	6.12
28.	Total goods earnings	64,83,30,000	65,35,68,000
Number of employees					751,603	762,553

At the close of the year 1926-27, the total capital invested in railways was Rupees 7,88,06,66,000 represented by a property which in terms of route mileage amounted to 39,049 miles of railway. This property brought in to the owners a return of 5.41 per cent. on the capital at charge. Similar figures for the railways owned by the State are:—

	Rs.
Total capital at charge	6,96,50,000
Total route mileage	18,004
Return on capital outlay	6.20

In 1925-26 there was a falling off of Rs. 3,88,84,000 in the net gain from the working of State-owned Railways due principally to a decline in earnings of Rs. 1,84,56,000, an increase of Rs. 1,51,18,000 in working expenses and to enhanced interest charges of Rs. 90,97,000.

State versus Company Management.—The relative advantages and disadvantages of State and Company management of the railways owned by the Government and the private companies out of which the great bulk of the railway mileage in India have

been the subject of discussion in official circles and the public press for many years. In India the question is complicated by the fact that the more important companies have not in recent years been the owners of the railways which they manage and the headquarters of their Boards are in London. The subject was one, perhaps the most important, of the terms of reference of the Acworth Railway Committee. That Committee was, unfortunately, unable to make a unanimous recommendation on this point, their members being equally divided in favour of State management and Company management. They were, however, unanimous in recommending that the present system of management by Boards of Directors in London should not be extended beyond the terms of the existing contracts and this recommendation has met with general public acceptance. During the year 1922-23, the question was again referred to certain Local Governments and public bodies and opinions collected and discussed. The approaching termination of the East Indian Railway contract on 31st December 1924 and of that of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 30th June 1925 rendered an early decision on this question imperative. When the question was debated in the Legislative Assembly in February 1923, the non-official Indian Members were almost unanimously in favour of State management and indeed were able to carry a resolution recommending the placing of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway under State management at the close of their present contracts. The Government of India, however, expressed themselves as being so convinced by the almost universal failure of this method in other countries that they proposed, while accepting the necessity for taking over the management of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to continue their efforts to devise a satisfactory form of Company domiciled in India to take these railways over eventually on a basis of real Company management. On 1st January 1925 the East Indian Railway was amalgamated with the Outh and Rohilkhand Railway and brought under direct State management while on 1st July 1925 the Great Indian Peninsula Railway followed suit. The Naini-Jubbulpore Section of the East Indian Railway was transferred to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 1st October 1925.

Separation of the Railway from the General Finances.—The question of the separation of the railway from the general finances has been under consideration for some time and as a result of the recommendations of the Acworth Committee in 1921, the question was further examined by the Railway Finance Committee and the Legislative Assembly but it was decided to postpone a definite decision for the present.

The question was examined afresh in connection with the recommendation of the Retrenchment Committee in 1923, that the railways in India should be so worked as to yield an average return of at least 5½ per cent. on the capital at charge and it was decided that a suitable time had arrived when this separation could be carried out. A was introduced in the by on the 22nd to the in Council

"that in order to relieve the general budget from the violent fluctuations caused by the incorporation therein of the railway estimates and to enable the railway to carry out a continuous railway policy based on the necessity of making a definite return over a period of years to the State on the Capital expended on railways—

(1) The railway finances shall be separated from the general finances of the country and the general revenues shall receive a definite annual contribution from railways which shall be the first charge on railway earnings.

(2) The contribution shall be a sum equal to five-sixths of 1 per cent. on the capital at charge of the railways (excluding capital contributed by Companies and Indian States and Capital expenditure on strategic Railways) at the end of the penultimate financial year plus one-fifth of any surplus profits remaining after payment of this fixed return, subject to the condition that if any year railway revenues are insufficient to provide the percentage of five-sixths of 1 per cent. on the capital at charges surplus profits in the next or subsequent years, will not be deemed to have accrued for purposes of division until such deficiency has been made good. From the contribution so fixed will be deducted the loss in working, and the interest on capital expenditure on strategic lines.

(3) Any surplus profits that exist after payment of these charges shall be available for the Railway administration to be utilised in

(a) forming reserves for.

(c) equalising dividends, that is to say, or securing the payment of the percentage contribution to the general revenues in lean years,

(i) depreciation,

(ii) writing down and writing off capital

(b) the improvement of services rendered to the public,

(c) the reduction of rates.

(4) The railway administration shall be entitled, subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by the Government of India, to borrow temporarily from capital or from the reserves for the purpose of meeting expenditure for which there is no provision or insufficient provision in the revenue budget subject to the obligation to make repayment of borrowings out of the revenue budgets of subsequent years

(5) In accordance with present practice the figures of gross receipts and expenditure of railways will be included in the Budget Statement. The proposed expenditure will, as at present be placed before the Legislative Assembly in the form of a demand for grants and on a separate day or days among the days allotted for the discussion of the demands for grants the Member in charge of the Railways will make a general statement on railway accounts and working. Any reductions in the demand for grants for railways resulting from the votes of the Legislative Assembly will not ensure to general revenues, i.e., will not have the effect of increasing the fixed contribution for the year

(6) The Railway Department will place the estimate of railway expenditure before the Central Advisory Council on date prior to the date for the of the d for grants for

When nt du ng h e H n b
 ember for Commerce stated that it had been
 presented to him that there was a general
 aling in the House that before the House was
 led to commit itself to those proposals, it
 ould be allowed to refer them to a committee
 f the House. He further stated that he had
 o objection to this course provided that the
 ommittee met rapidly. This was agreed to
 nd members were appointed.

The committee met twice and considered the
 solution but was not able within the time allow-
 i to satisfy itself fully as to the effect of the
 roposals in the resolution on the control of
 n Assembly over railway finance and policy
 nd as to the amount and form of contribution
 e paid by the railways to general revenues.
 n the circumstances, the committee recommend-
 i that the consideration of the resolution be
 djourned till the autumn session to allow the
 ommittee further time for examination. Gov-
 nment raised no objection to this proposal and
 was agreed to by the Assembly.

The resolution was further examined by the
 tanding Finance Committee in September
 nd as a result of the views expressed by the
 ommittee and in the Assembly certain modifi-
 cations were introduced. The final resolution
 agreed to by the Assembly on September 20th,
 1924, and accepted by Government differed from
 the original resolution in that the yearly con-
 tribution had been placed at 1 per cent. instead
 f 1/6th per cent. on the capital at charge and if
 e surplus remaining after this payment to
 eneral Revenues should exceed 3 crores, only
 rd of the excess over 3 crores were to be trans-
 rferred to the Railway Reserve and the remaining
 rd was to accrue to General Revenues. At
 e same time a Standing Finance Committee
 r Railways was to be constituted to examine
 e estimate of railways expenditure and the
 emand for grants, the programme revenue
 penditure being shown under a depreciation
 und. This committee was to consist of one
 ominated official member of the Legislative
 ssembly as Chairman and 11 members elected
 y the Legislative Assembly from that body.
 his would be in addition to the Central Advi-
 sory Council which will include the Members of
 e Standing Finance Committee and certain
 ther official and non-official members from the
 legislative Assembly and Council of State.
 hese arrangements were to be subject to peri-
 odic revision but to be provisionally tried for
 t least 3 years. They would, however, only
 old good as long as the E. I. Railway and the
 I. P. Railway and existing State Managed
 ailways remain under State management and
 any contract for the transfer of any of the
 above to Company management was concluded
 gainst the advice of the Assembly. The Assembly
 ould be at liberty to terminate the arrange-
 ments in this resolution.

The Assembly in an addendum recommended
 at the railway services and the Railway Board
 ould be rapidly Indianised and that the stores
 r the State Managed Railways should be pur-
 chased through the organisation of the Indian
 Stores Department.

Re-organ n problems. The growing
 complexity of railway n in India
 and the evolution of new of con

Mc ha e given a stimu s to the effo ts of
 various railways to re-verse when organisations
 the general direction in which this re-organisa-
 tion is being considered is that of consolidation
 into one department of the operating or trans-
 portation work of the railway, including the
 provision of power. This system which is
 commonly known as the divisional system, was
 first adopted on the Great Indian Peninsula
 Railway during 1922-23 and entailed :—

- (a) the separation of the commercial and
 operative duties of the Traffic Department,
- (b) the separation of the mechanical and
 running duties of the Locomotive Department,
- (c) the fusion of the operative duties of the
 Traffic Department with the running duties of
 the Locomotive Department.

Under the new organisation there is now—

- (1) a Chief Transportation Superintendent
 in charge of all operating functions,
- (2) a Chief Traffic Manager in charge of the
 commercial side of the railway,
- (3) a Chief Mechanical Engineer in charge
 of the design and construction of rolling stock
 and of all repairs and renewals of rolling stock
 carried out in the central workshops.

This organisation is more or less similar to the
 divisional organisation found on most American
 Railways with the exception that the Engineer-
 ing Department still works on a departmental
 basis. This, however, is being changed and the
 Works is being brought
 sation while new con-
 outside.

A somewhat similar organisation was intro-
 duced on the North-Western Railway from 1st
 October 1924, except that it follows rather the
 organisation in force on the South African Rail-
 ways where the railways are divided into a
 number of areas or divisions each under one
 chief officer and all reporting to the General
 Manager who is assisted by a number of principal
 officers in charge of definite phases of the work-
 ing. A similar organisation was also introduced
 on the East Indian and Oudh and Rohilkhand
 Railways early in 1925.

Revision of Railway statistics.—A Com-
 mittee consisting of one officer from the Traffic
 Department and one from the Audit Depart-
 ment of the North Western Railway was
 appointed in October 1922 to suggest alterations
 in the existing administrative statistics
 furnished by railways to the Railway Board
 and to bring them into line with present up to-
 date practice. For many years after the first
 railways were opened, such statistics as were
 produced were primarily directed towards
 showing the return on capital invested, although
 commodity statistics were also prepared to some
 extent for trade purposes. It was only when
 comparisons between different railway systems
 came to be a matter of interest that statistics
 of actual working were found to be necessary
 and even then the tabulation and examination
 of these figures were directed primarily towards
 ascertaining the ultimate cost of transportation
 as a marketable odify The int
 of scientific of railway working in
 t years, h has shown that property

Railway Earnings

prepared statistics form a most valuable portion of the machinery whereby the railway management is able to improve efficiency in the details of working and effect economies in working costs.

The existing statistics are based on the report of a Committee which sat in 1880 to revise the form of the statistics. Considerable changes have been introduced since then, and certain individual railway administrations have made considerable progress in the introduction of modern railway statistics, but the Acworth Committee which sat in 1921 criticised the figures prepared and used for the purposes of the Railway Board as being out of date and not in conformity with present-day practice.

The main changes recommended by the Committee of 1922 and accepted by the Railway Board are:—

(1) The introduction of monthly statistics in addition to the yearly statistics at present furnished to the Railway Board.

(2) The classification of railways under three classes for statistical purposes.

The former change will ensure the supply of up-to-date information of the working of railways to the Railway Board and will enable railways to compare their own working with that of other railways month by month as is done in England and America. The second change will relieve the

smaller railways of the necessity of the detailed statistics which large railways have to prepare.

Revised Statistics were introduced in October 1923, on all railways and their value has been proved as not only able to compare their results with those of other railways but the Railway Board's possession of up-to-date figures on all railways. Starting from April 1923 complete monthly statistics of all railways have been published on the lines of the statements issued by the Ministry of Transport for English Railways and are now available to the public.

Earnings.—Of the total earnings of the railways of Rs. 112.30 crores, Rs. 65.35 per cent were from goods traffic, Rs. 34.65 per cent from passenger traffic, Rs. 8.57 crores or 7.7 per cent from luggage and miscellaneous earnings.

Passenger Earnings.—Passenger earnings showed a decrease of 3.45 per cent from Rs. 38.13 crores in 1923 to Rs. 36.83 crores in 1924. The following table shows the numbers of passengers carried and earnings from passenger traffic separately for each class for the 4 years to the War and for the 6 latest years prior season and vendors' tickets are included for the last 4 years as well as the earnings from the respective classes.

Year.				Number of passengers carried (in thousands)			
				1st Class.	2nd Class.	Inter.	3rd Class.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1910	685	2,784	10,702	3,10,830
1911	703	2,817	11,400	3,21,000
1912	700	3,030	10,508	3,36,789
1913-14	715	3,253	12,000	3,90,112
1921-22	900	6,020	9,086	4,75,190
1922-23*	807	4,825	7,085	4,77,637
1923-24*	617	3,936	7,125	4,85,412
1924-25	611	3,860	7,092	4,96,644
1925-26	603	3,909	9,136	5,15,227
1926-27	611	4,167	10,476	5,15,821
1923-24†	1,199	10,128	11,371	5,44,622
1924-25 ‡	1,101	9,778	12,201	5,53,266
1925-26†	1,033	9,901	13,602	5,74,608
1926-27†	1,000	9,000	14,000	5,800,000

Year.	Earnings from passengers (in Rs.)		
	1st class.	2nd class.	Later
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1910	58,82	77,28	94 99
1911	66,78	83,83	1,08 58
1912	62,00	83,01	91 17
1913-14	68,91	88,70	1,03 48
1914-15	1 38,47	2,28,87	1,45 11
1922-23*	1,30,72	2,11,77	1,38 0
1923-24*	1 20,80	1,95,09	1,37 88
1924-25	1,21,62	1,95,51	1,44 48
1925-26	1,19 24	1,82,74	1,55 55
1926-27	1,16,66	1,81,95	1,58 20
1927-28 †	1,31,17	2,02,73	1,41 10
1928-29 †	1,22 93	1,92,00	1,48 01
1929-30 †	1,20,42	1,89,42	1,59 01
1930-31 †	1,17,75	1,88,27	1,61 79

* Excludes the Maunbhanj and Parikimedi Light Railways for which is not available.

† The number of season and vendor's tickets and their earnings included classes: the former at the rate of 50 single journeys per month.

Note.—In previous reports the sum or the number of passengers carried has been shown as the total number of passengers carried on all railways, over two or more railways* have thus been counted as two or more passengers carried on all railways is the same as the total number carried and this figure has been adopted for number of passengers carried in the number of passengers originating is not available prior to 1923-24 the figures been adjusted.

Rates Advisory Committee

In their terms of reference the Acworth Committee were directed to report *inter alia* "whether the present system of control by Government of rates and fares and the machinery for deciding disputes between Railways and traders are satisfactory, and if not to advise what modifications are desirable." The Committee recommended the establishment of a Rates Tribunal to adjudicate upon disputes between Railways and the public in the matter of rates and fares levied by the former. After careful consideration it was decided, with the sanction of the Secretary of State, to set up a Rates Advisory Committee consisting of a President, one Member representative of Commercial interests and one Member representative of the interests of the public. The Committee is to select one for individual panel consisting of members of various Chambers of Commerce and Associations.

- (1) Complaints of undue preference (Section 42 (2) of the Indian Railways Act, 1890).
- (2) Complaints that rates are unreasonable in themselves,
- (3) Complaints or disputes in respect of terminals (Section 44 of the Railways Act

- (4) The reasonableness of conditions as to special facilities liable to cause damage to goods.
- (5) Complaints in respect of packing attached to goods.
- (6) Complaints that Railways do not fulfil their obligations under the reasonable facilities clause (42 (3) of the Indian Railways Act, 1890).

Sir Narayana Sarma late Executive Council of the Government of India, agreed to serve on the Committee. Mr. S. D. Manson, Director of the Railway Board, was appointed to represent the Railway interests. The Committee is to select one for individual panel consisting of members of various Chambers of Commerce and Associations.

It was first laid down that the Committee should refer to the agent of the Railway deposit of Rs. 100 and the receipt of such application the Railway should prepare a report and submit it with his recommendations to the Committee.

A further expenditure was approved for commendation of the Rates Advisory Committee. The Government of India reviewed the above procedure and decided that in future applications should be submitted direct to the Government of India, Railway Department, copies being forwarded to the Agent of the Railway concerned, that the deposit of Rs. 100 be reduced to Rs. 10 and that the period of 3 months allowed to the Agents of Railways for the submission of the statement of their case be curtailed to 2 months. The revised procedure was introduced with effect from the 21st January 1927.

As regards complaints made for submission to the Committee cases were slow in coming in. By the end of March 1927, 15 cases had been submitted, out of which six have been referred to the Committee, on one of which their recommendations have been received for the consideration of the Government of India.

Publicity.

In other countries it has been recognised that publicity plays a very great part in attracting business to Railways. In this country, however, little attention had in the past been given to it. As yet on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, The G. I. P. Railway had by means of pamphlets and advertisements in co-operation with the Canadian Pacific Railway attempted to attract American tourists to India, and has met with a good deal of success. This has not only added to the earnings of the Railway but has also helped the business of the country generally. The propaganda work mentioned above was directed towards attracting upper class tourist traffic, but it was essential to devise publicity methods to appeal to the large bulk of the people of India from whom the Railways obtained their most paying business. The people were mainly illiterate and the circulation of papers and handbills even in the vernacular or advertisements in the press scarcely touched them. With a view to reaching the general mass of the people the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, which had a Publicity Bureau, introduced in November 1925 a travelling cinema which gives exhibitions in the open air illustrating instructive subjects, and films of fairs and festivals, etc.

The Railway Board considered that it was necessary to develop the system in force on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and to extend it to the other three State-worked Railways. The question was fully discussed with the Agents of State-worked Railways and as a result it was decided to establish Publicity Bureaux on the North Western, East Indian and Eastern Bengal Railways. Sanction was accorded to the creation of a post of Publicity Officer for each of the three Railways as a temporary measure for three years in the first instance with a requisite staff of photographers, cinema operators, clerks, menials, etc.

The necessity for a Central organisation to co-ordinate and direct the methods on the several Railways has also been recognised by the Board, and the Board have sanctioned a temporary post of Chief Publicity Officer for a period of three years from 1st March 1927.

The new business that this Publicity propaganda is to bring to Railways will be very considerable and the expenditure

to the extra earnings. Moreover the Publicity Bureau will be in charge of the work in connection with advertisement by the public on Railways, and it is anticipated that income from this source alone will more than cover the expenditure on the establishment charges of the Bureau on most of the Railways.

Remodelling of State Railway Workshops

The whole question of the capacity of the workshops of the State Railways and the possibility of their reorganisation and improvement on co-ordinated lines was investigated during the cold weather of 1924-26 by the State Railway Workshops Committee, an expert Committee presided over by Sir Vincent Raven, formerly Chief Mechanical Engineer, North Eastern Railway, England. The results of this investigation have indicated the imperative necessity at any rate for some time to come, for heavy expenditure on the remodeling and improvement of State Railway Workshops in general. The recommendations of the Committee as to the lines on which the reorganisation and improvement of the workshops should proceed have been examined and, in the main, accepted by the Railway Board. These recommendations with the Railway Board's views thereon have recently been communicated to the Railway Administrations concerned and a special officer has also been appointed to see that effect is given to them as early as possible.

The important schemes of workshops construction and remodelling on which work was in progress during the year under review were as follows:—

- (1) Kancheepuram—Remodelling of Loco shops and machinery (E. S. Ry.)
- (2) Dohad—New Loco. shops (B. E. & C. I. Ry.)
- (3) Perambur—Remodelling of shops (M. C. S. M. Ry.)
- (4) Lucknow—Extension to Loco. shops (E. I. Ry.)
- (5) Trichopoly—New workshops (S. I. Ry.)

Capital Expenditure.—The outlay during the year 1926-27 was Rs. 29.20 crores, of which Rs. 27.14 crores represented expenditure incurred on State-owned lines.

Considerable progress has been made with the programme of new construction and although only 4.21 miles of new railway were opened for traffic during 1926-27, at the close of the year there were 2,256 miles under construction.

Trade review.—The earnings of railways are dependent on the general prosperity of the country which in the case of India is most easily measured by the agricultural position and the returns of foreign trade. Judged by the usual criteria, the year was not a favourable one for trade generally and this is reflected in the fact that the total earnings of all railways decreased by Rs. 1 crore, 82 l., from Rs. 113.99 crores to Rs. 112.36 crores.

The earnings from, first and second class passengers carried still continue to decrease but inter class passenger traffic again shows an increase. Third class passenger traffic shows an increase of nearly 4 million in numbers but a decrease of Rs. 33 lakhs on a reduction of off

The increase in and earnings from the main commodities of Class I Railways during the last two years are shown in the table below. The principal increases were under Jute, Coal, Grain, Jaggree, & principal decreases wood unwrought &c.

Commodity.	1925-26		1926
	No. of tons originating in millions.	Rs. in crores	No. of tons originating in million
(1) Fuel for public and Foreign Railways ..	16.11	9.11	18.90
(2) Fuel and other stores on Revenue account ..	16.43	2.91	16.10
(3) Wheat ..	1.61	2.12	1.76
(4) Rice in the husk and rice not in the husk ..	4.66	4.42	4.11
(5) Gram and Pulse, Jowar and Bajra and other grains ..	3.19	4.19	3.00
(6) Marble and stone ..	0.31	0.84	2.90
(7) Metallic ores ..	2.34	1.07	2.40
(8) Salt ..	1.33	1.74	1.42
(9) Wood, unwrought ..	1.73	1.06	1.32
(10) Sugar, refined and unrefined ..	0.70	1.85	0.77
(11) Oilseeds ..	2.40	3.69	2.35
(12) Cotton raw and manufactured ..	1.76	6.42	1.33
(13) Jute, Raw ..	0.80	1.23	1.20
(14) Fodder ..	0.81	0.33	0.80
(15) Fruits and vegetables fresh ..	1.02	0.91	1.08
(16) Iron and steel wrought ..	1.02	2.03	1.02
(17) Kerosine oil ..	0.91	1.92	0.92
(18) Gurr, Jaggree, Molasses, &c. ..	0.67	1.00	0.78
(19) Tobacco ..	0.27	0.68	0.20
(20) Provisions ..	0.36	1.23	0.63
(21) Military stores ..	0.34	0.98	0.38
(22) Railway materials ..	2.64	0.73	8.50
(23) Live stock ..	0.25	0.75	0.22
(24) Other commodities ..	10.80	11.80	9.65
	76.71	62.83	62.07

Open Mileage.—The total route mileage on March 31st, 1927, was 39,048.88 made up of—

Broad-gauge ..	19,367.41 miles.
Metre-gauge ..	15,931.81 "
Narrow-gauge ..	3,740.63 "

Under the classification adopted for statistical purposes, this mileage is divided between the three classes of railways as follows:—

Class I	35,131.95 Miles = 90 per cent.
Class II	1,775.31 " = 7 "
Class III	1,141.62 " = 3 "

Class I includes all the 5'-6" gauge mileage, 13,761 miles or 87 per cent. of the metre-gauge, and 2,004 or 54 per cent. of the narrow-gauges.

The State owned 25,004 miles or about 71 per cent. and directly managed 15,716 miles or about 40 per cent. of the total mileage open at the end of the year.

During the year 1926-27, 420.77 miles of new lines were opened for public traffic. Of this mileage, 343.52 miles belong to Class I, and 52.25 miles to Class II Railways.

Additions to Equip-

ment. The number of old

During 1926-27

replaced during the larger seating capacity there was an accommodation of 25,367,487 in the metre-gauge of 32,837. The vehicles, represent as additions, placed and metre-gauge was 1,874 compared year. In addition were on order and placed on the line actual net increase on the broad-gauge.

The following table seating accommodation

Class I Railways.	1st.
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3.6	2.900
3.41	10.20

The additions to the goods stock of Class I railways were 865 covered and 972 open broad-gauge and 971 covered and 474 open metre-gauge wagons.

The Opening of the Khyber Railway.—The opening of the Khyber Railway on November 2, 1925, marks an interesting stage in the development of India's great railway system. Previously the railway stopped short at Jammrud a few miles from Peshawar on the Indian side of the Khyber Pass. This pass has been the main trade route to India from the north from the earliest days and most of the trade with far distant Central Asia still follows this route in picturesque caravans.

The question of extending the railway along the trade route was first considered in 1890 and since then three possible routes have been surveyed, namely, the Lohi Shuman route, the Mulla-garhi Shilman route and the Khyber Pass route.

As a result of a survey rapidly made in 1914 by Colonel G. R. Hearn, C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E., it was decided to build a railway through the Khyber Pass on a new alignment and after considering the merits of a line built to a two feet gauge, a metre-gauge with rack and a 5'6" gauge adhesion line it was finally decided that

a 5'6" gauge line should be adopted.

The total length of the Khyber Railway is 27.74 miles from Jammrud to the Afghanistan frontier. Although this line is only a short one yet the work entailed has been very heavy. Starting at a height of about 1,500' it rises to about 3,500' at Landi Kotal and then descends to a height of about 2,400' at Landi Khana.

The ruling grade for up trains to Landi Kotal is 1 in 33 compensated for curvature while that for down trains from Landi Khana is 1 in 25 also compensated.

The line passes through 32 tunnels with a total length of nearly 3 miles. There are in all ten stations excluding Jammrud and of these, three are reversing stations necessitated by the development of distance for reductions of gradient.

Financial Results of Working.—The total gross earnings of all railways in India during the year 1926-27 amounted to Rs. 112.38 crores as compared with 118.39 crores in 1925-26. These figures, however, include railways owned by Indian States and companies to which the Government of India has no direct financial responsibility. The figures of receipts and expenditure for railways with which the Government are directly concerned are as follows:—

		(Omitting 000). 1925-26.
	Rs.	
Traffic receipts from Government Railways	99,70,00
Interest on Depreciation and Reserve Fund balances	58,39
Surplus profits from Subsidized Companies' railways	85,07
	Total ..	1,00,58,46
	Rs.	
Working expenses including depreciation	64,41,96
Surplus profits paid to Companies	1,77,42
Interest on Government debt	24,81,12
Land and subsidy to Companies	4,38
Miscellaneous	25,98
	Total charges ..	91,30,31
	Net gain ..	9,27,85
Contribution from Railway to General Revenues	5,48,80
Railway reserve	3,78,85

After meeting all interest and annuity charges Government therefore received a net profit of 13.12 crores as against a profit of 8.47 crores in 1923-24. On the capital at charge of the State minus the net receipts, that is the gross receipts minus the working expenses, have in recent years given the following returns:—

	Percent.
1913-14	5.01
1922-23	4.38
1923-24	5.24
1924-25	5.85
1925-26	5.31
1926-27	4.95

Up to date figures of the results of working of other lines are not available but the following table compares the latest available figures of a receipt per ton mile of those

countries which have published statistics of working later than 1919:—

	Receipts per ton mile. Pies.
United States of America 1925	5.85*
United Kingdom 1925	15.17
Japan 1924-25	7.22
Switzerland 1924	21.91
	Receipts per ton mile Pies.
South Australia 1924-25	17.01
Canadian Railways 1925	5.30*
India 1926-27	5

Con. contd at p. 480—E 1 and at R. — 6

In the case of receipts per passenger mile the figures for United States of America and India are as follows:—

United States of America 1925. 15.53 ples.

India 1926-27 3.50 "

while in England the present fare charged per mile third class is 19 ples.

From the above it was transportation of freight cheapest in the world passenger traffic.

An examination of the of operating ratios of for out results not unfavourable.

	Year.
United States of America	1925
France—State Lines only	1922
All Lines	1922
English Railways	1923
South African Railways	1924-25
Argentine Railways	1921-22
Canadian Railways	1925
India	1923-24 1924-25 1925-26 1926-27

Value of Railway Materials Purchased.—The value of material railways in 1926-27 fell from 23.30 crores to 23.14 crores excluding coal; the value of indigenous materials rose from 8.74 crores or 37.4 per cent of total to 45.3 per cent. If coal, stone, brick, lime, etc., are included the percentage

	Value of imported materials.			Value of indigenous materials
	Purchased direct.	Purchased through Agents in India.	Total imported materials.	
	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.
Rolling-Stock	3.27	0.89	3.96	0.83
Tools and stores	0.84	2.96	3.80	3.80
Permanent-way	0.85	0.38	1.23	3.40
Electric plant	0.86	0.68	1.54	0.04
Buildings and station materials and fencing	0.24	0.37	0.61	2.25
Bridge work	0.23	0.05	0.28	0.17
Workshop machinery	0.42	0.27	0.69	0.01
Engineer's plant	0.21	0.17	0.38	0.06
Other Materials*	4.89
Total	11.97	5.57	17.54	15.49

*Other materials consists of coal, stone, lime and ballast, etc., and sign available.

Railway Collieries.—Good progress was made during 1926-27 with the development of the Jarandih and Bharkunda collieries. At Jarandih the Central Electrical Supply Station was completed and the electrification of Jarandih and Jarandih Colliery out-put of railway owned 27 was 2,192,164 ton of Indian Coal consumed.

Number of Staff.—The total number of employees on Indian Railway 1926-27 was 762,553 as compared with 751,603 at the end of 19 route mileage during the same period was 431 miles. The following table employees by communities on 31st March 1926 and 1927 —

	Europeans	Statutory Indians.			
		Hindus.	Muham- madans.	Anglo- Indians.	Other Classes
1926-27	5,808	5,239	1,88,080	38	40,20
1927-28	4,908	50,925	68	007	4,80

Indianisation.—The various Railway Companies managing State and other Railway lines have followed the lead given by Government and accepted the recommendation of the Lee Commission that the extension of existing training facilities should be pressed forward as expeditiously as possible in order that recruitment in India may be advanced as soon as practicable up to 75 per cent. of the total number of vacancies in the Superior Services of the Railway concerned.

Schemes of recruitment.—The Secretary of State's approval to the schemes of recruitment and training of superior officers of the State Railways in the main branches of service—(1) Civil Engineering, (2) Transportation, (3) Commercial and (4) Mechanical Engineering—were received and the Regulations for the recruitment of these services issued under Railway Department Resolution No. 2508-E of 15th July 1926. Schemes of recruitment for the Electrical Engineering and Signal Engineering Departments have been formulated and submitted to the Secretary of State in Council for his approval. Schemes for other branches of the service are under consideration. Certain Company-worked Railways have expressed their desire to join the Railway Board in their scheme of recruitment and others in their scheme of training the Superior Railway Officers.

Public interest in the question has been maintained during the year, finding voice in the press and by interpellations in the Legislature. Considerable progress has been made with the scheme for the training of junior railway officers and of the senior subordinate staff on Indian railways. In this connection a Transportation school was opened at Chandauli on March 2nd, 1925.

Progress was also made in 1926-27 towards the formation of a Railway Training School at Lyallpur for the North Western Railway.

The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under passengers railway servants and others for 1925-26 as compared with 1926-27 :—

	Killed.		Injured.	
	1925-26.	1926-27.	1925-26.	1926-27.
A. Passengers—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	22	16	161	126
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	352	324	1,131	1,117
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	3	7	31	21
B. Servants—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling stock, permanent-way, etc.	20	25	141	126
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	333	319	1,285	1,253
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	49	45	190	204

A temporary training school for the G. I. P. Railway has been established at Bina, pending the provision of a permanent school at Betul and the scheme for forming a similar school at Guna for the E. I. and E. B. Railways is under consideration.

These schools will provide courses of training for probationers before they are allowed to take up regular duties and for members of the staff to enable them to qualify for promotion to the upper grades; and in addition to these courses separate refresher courses will be provided through which the entire subordinate staff will be passed through at definite intervals.

College for training Railway Officers at Dehra Dun.—The provision of an institution to give practical training to junior officers on railways has been a long-felt need. The Railway Transportation School at Chandauli which is meant for the training of subordinates only, could neither be suitably extended to provide a college for officers nor afford the facilities necessary for the purpose. The Railway Board have, therefore, decided to provide a college at Dehra Dun, which place is eminently suited for the purpose owing to its climate, situation and proximity to two other similar institutions, viz., the Forest Research Institute and the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College. The layout of the Railway College is under preparation and it is expected that work will soon be commenced. The scheme is estimated to cost about Rs 20 lakhs.

Fatalities and Injuries.—During 1926-27 there was a decrease of 25 in the number of persons killed and an increase of 127 in the number of persons injured as compared with the figures of 1925-26. The number of passengers killed shows a decrease of 30 while the number of passengers injured shows an increase of 59.

The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under various causes and others for 1925-26 as compared with 1924-25 —*contd.*

	Killed	
	1925-26.	1924-25
C Others—		
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	35	10
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	2,081	2,107
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	23	30
Total ..	2,918	2,893

Of the total number of 2,893 persons killed 1,784 were trespassers on the line and 253 committed suicide. Thus 2,037 or over 70 per cent. of the persons killed on railway premises were for causes over which the railways have no control.

Local Advisory Committees—With the formation of a Committee on the B. N. Ry. during 1926-27 all State-owned Railways now possess Local Advisory Committees. A Committee has also been formed on H. E. H. the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway, the subjects discussed are many and varied indicating increasing value attached by the public to this scheme for bringing Railways into close touch with their clients. Of the many subjects discussed the following may be mentioned as typical—Overcrowding in trains, time table attractions, Refreshments, drinking water and other facilities for passengers, Reductions and concessions in fares, Goods rates, Construction of new lines and stations, Designs of Railway Carriages, and Passengers travelling without tickets.

Compensation for loss and damage to goods in transit.—A great improvement was made during 1923-24 in reducing the amount paid in compensation for loss and damage to

goods in transit, the total for 1924-25 being Rs. 22 lakhs in 1924-25 and Rs. 22 lakhs in 1924-25. This satisfactory result has attracted the special attention of the Government to the subject by the R. N. Ry. the remedial and preventive measures by Railway Administration under the supervision of the State Railway Commission, riveting of wagons and of the Watch and Ward

As a result of a resolution of the Legislative Assembly in March 1924, the Government was appointed to revise the forms. The recommendations of the committee, received in September 1924, indicated considerable changes in the forms, aiming chiefly at imposing a more onus of proof in cases where the loss was *prima facie* due to negligence of the staff. After obtaining the approval of the Governments, Railway Chambers of Commerce and other bodies, the revised forms were issued, legal advisers of Government and note forms A, B, D, G and H in 1924.

THE CHIEF RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

The Assam-Bengal Railway, which is constructed on the metre gauge, starts from Chittagong and runs through Surma Valley across the North Cachar Hills into Assam. It is worked under a limited guarantee by a company.

Mileage open	1,049.09
Capital at charge	Rs. 22,14,85,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 91,12,000.
Earnings per cent.	4.11.

Bengal and North-Western.

The Bengal and North-Western Railway was constructed on the metre gauge system by a company without any Government assistance other than free land and was opened to traffic in 1885. The system was begun in 1874 as the Tirhut State Railway. In 1880 this line was leased by the Government to the Bengal and North-Western Railway. Since then the company has been made a both

sections. It is connected with the metre gauge system at Calcutta and Eastern Bengal State Railway. The Oudh and Rohilkhand

Mileage open
Capital at charge
Net earnings
Earnings per cent.

Bengal N.

The Bengal-Nagpur Railway was constructed as a metre gauge from Calcutta to Nagpur in the Central Provinces. A company was formed under the Act of 1880 and took over the line, converted it to metre gauge and extended it to Katni. In 1901 a part of the line from Cuttack to Katni was given for

coal fields and for a connection with the branch of the East Indian Railway at Haridwar.

Mileage open ..	31,41.50
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 68,80,21,000.
Net earnings ..	Rs. 3,52,45,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	5.12.

Bombay Baroda.

The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway is one of the original guaranteed railways. It was commenced from Surat via Baroda to Ahmedabad, but was subsequently extended to Bombay. The original contract was terminable in 1880, but the period was extended to 1905; and then renewed under revised conditions. In 1885 the Rajputana Malwa metre gauge system of State railways was leased to the Company and has since been incorporated in it. On the opening of the Nagda-Muttra, giving broad gauge connection through Eastern Rajputana with Delhi the working was entrusted to this Company. On the acquisition of the Company in April 1907 the purchase price was fixed at £11,685,581.

Mileage open ..	3,857.45.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 73,82,10,000.
Net earnings ..	Rs. 4,31,71,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	6.12

Burma Railways.

The Burma Railway is an isolated line, and although various routes have been surveyed there is little prospect of its being connected with the Railway system of India in the near future. In reply to a question in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1910, Sir Arthur Anderson said — "During 1914-15 extensive survey operations were carried out to ascertain the best alignment for a railway connection along the coast route between Chittagong and certain stations on the Burma Railways south of Mandalay. A rival route via the Hukong Valley between the northern section of the Assam-Bengal Railway and the section of the Burma Railways north of Mandalay was to have been surveyed during the following year but was postponed because of the war. It is now proposed to commence this survey during the coming cold weather, and on its completion, Government will have sufficient information to enable them to decide which route shall be adopted. Thus no arrangements for the construction of a line have yet been made nor has any concession been granted, but it is probable that the line selected will be built at the cost of Government and worked by one or other of the main lines which it will connect. It was commenced as a State Railway and transferred in 1896 to a Company under a guarantee.

Mileage open ..	1,882.57.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 20,49,23,000.
Net earnings ..	Rs. 1,79,41,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	6.08.

Eastern Bengal.

The Eastern Bengal State Railway was promoted under the original form of guarantee and was constructed on the broad gauge. The first portion of the line running to Calcutta over the Ganges was opened in 1862. In 1874 it was for the on the metre gauge of the Northern Bengal State Railway which ran from the north bank of

the Ganges to the foot of the Himalayas on the way to Darjeeling. These two portions of the line were amalgamated in 1884 into one State Railway.

Mileage open ..	1,710.88
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 46,26,88,000
Net earnings ..	Rs. 2,42,93,000
Earnings per cent. ..	5.15

The East Indian.

The East Indian Railway is one of the three railways sanctioned for construction as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. The first section from Howrah to Pandua was opened in 1854 and at the time of the Mutiny ran as far as Raniganj. It gives the only direct access to the port of Calcutta from Northern India and is consequently fed by all the large railway systems connected with it. In 1880 the Government purchased the line, paying the shareholders by annuities, but leased it again to the company to work under a contract which was terminable in 1919.

The contract was not terminated until January 1st, 1925, when the State took over the management.

Mileage open ..	3,988.85
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 1,38,26,68,000
Net earnings ..	Rs. 7,09,64,000
Earnings per cent. ..	5.05

Great Indian Peninsula.

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway is the earliest line undertaken in India. It was promoted by a Company under a guarantee of 5 per cent. and the first section from Bombay to Thana was open for traffic in 1853. Sanction was given for the extension of this line via Poona to Raichur, where it connects with the Madras Railway, and to Jubbulpore where it meets the East Indian Railway. The feature of the line is the passage of the Western Ghats these sections being 16½ miles on the Bhor Ghat and 9½ miles on the Thal Ghat which rise 1,131 and 972 feet. In 1900, the contract with the Government terminated and under an arrangement with the Indian Midland Railway that line was amalgamated and leased to a Company to work.

The contract was terminated on June 30th 1925, when the State took over the management.

Mileage open ..	38,70.06
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 1,13,19,57,000
Net earnings ..	Rs. 4,51,41,000
Earnings per cent. ..	3.99

Madras Railway.

The Madras Railway was the third of the original railways constructed as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. It was projected to run in a north-westerly direction in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and in a south-westerly direction to Calicut. On the expiry of the contract in 1907 the line was amalgamated with the Southern Mahratta Railway Company, a system on the metre gauge built to meet the famine conditions in the Southern Mahratta Country and to a large Company called the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company.

Mileage open	Rs. 3,041.75.
Capital at charge	Rs. 57,34,24,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 3,82,63,000.
Earnings per cent.	6.67.

The North-Western.

The North-Western State Railway began its existence at the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway, which was promoted by a Company under the original form of guarantee and extended to Delhi, Multan and Lahore and from Karachi to Kotri. The interval between Kotri and Multan was unbridged and the railway traffic was exchanged by a ferry service. In 1871-72 sanction was given for the connection of this by the Indus Valley State Railways and at the same time the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore towards Peshawar was begun. In 1886 the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway was acquired by the State and amalgamated with these two railways under the name of the North-Western State Railway. It is the longest railway in India under one administration.

Mileage open	6,839.93.
Capital at charge	Rs. 1,35,28,23,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 43,26,000.
Earnings per cent.	4.02.

Oudh and Rohilkhand.

Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was another of the lines constructed under the original form of guarantee. It began from the north bank of the Ganges running through Rohilkhand as far as Saharanpur where it joins the North-Western State Railway. It was not until 1887 that the bridge over the Ganges was completed and connected with the East Indian Railway. To effect a connection between the metre gauge systems to the North and those to the South of the Ganges; a third rail was

laid between Bhuriwal and Cawnpore. The Company's contract expired in 1889 when the Railway was purchased by the State and has since been worked as a State Railway.

The working of this railway was amalgamated with that of the East Indian Railway from 1st July 1925.

The South Indian.

The South Indian Railway was one of the original guaranteed railways. It was begun by the Great Southern India Railway Company as a broad-gauge line; but was converted after the seventies to the metre-gauge. This line has been extended and now serves the whole of the Southern India, south of the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Between Tuticorin and Ceylon a ferry service was formerly maintained, but a new and more direct route to Ceylon via Rameshwaram was opened at the beginning of 1914. As the original contract ended in 1907, a new contract was entered upon with the Company on the 1st of January 1908.

Mileage open	1,911.93
Capital at charge	Rs. 38,80,09,000
Net earnings	Rs. 2,70,61,000
Earnings per cent.	8.13

The Indian States.

The principal Indian State Railways are the Nizam's, constructed by a company under a guarantee from the Hyderabad State the Kathiawar system of railways, constructed by subscriptions, among the several Chieftains in Kathiawar; the Jodhpur and Bikaner Railways constructed by the Jodhpur and Bikaner Chiefs; the system of railways in the Punjab, constructed by the Patiala, Jind, Maler Kotla and Kashmir Chiefs; and the railways in Mysore, constructed by the Mysore State.

PROGRAMME OF FUTURE CONSTRUCTION.

At the end of the financial year 1926-27 a total of 2,554 miles of new lines was under construction, distributed as follows:—

	Miles.
5'-6" gauge	932.13
3'-3½" gauge	1,260.97
2'-6" gauge	360.21

During 1925-26 sanction was accorded to the construction of new lines totalling 1,102.16 miles.

	Miles.
5'-6" gauge	204.53
3'-3½" gauge	249.17
2'-6" gauge	38.54

Khyber Railway.

The construction of the Khyber Railway, a length of about 28 miles, was sanctioned in July 1900 and in November of that year, after various difficulties had been overcome, the construction actually commenced. The work was carried out under very arduous conditions and had to be carried out, five years elapsed before the section from Jamrud to Landikotal, a length of about 21 miles, was completed and opened for public traffic on 2nd Nov. 1905. The section from Landikotal to Peshawar was opened on 24.2.1906.

This is the first 5 feet 6 inches gauge line which has been built to the new Standard Dimensions and allows for a maximum running width of 12 feet and running height of 15 feet 6 inches. The great engineering difficulties which have had to be overcome, and the standard to which the railway has been built render it a technical achievement ranking with the greatest engineering works carried out by Railway Engineers.

The line is situated entirely outside the administrative border of British India in the strip of tribal territory which separates it from Afghanistan. The trade that passes through the Khyber Pass is already considerable and it is hoped that the railway will still further increase its volume, thereby bringing profit and employment to many who in the past have subsisted with difficulty on the meagre agricultural resources of the country which it traverses.

Lines under Construction.

Of the total of 2,554 miles of lines of various gauges under construction at the end of the year those mentioned below are the more important including three (the Kasipet-Ballarab, the Indian Campfield line and the Balpur line) which are being built to serve

Kazipet-Ballarshah.

The Ballarshah Extension of the N. G. S. Railway, 150 miles long, is perhaps of first importance, for it will open up a new broad gauge route from Madras to the North and effect a saving in distance of some 200 miles in the journey from Madras to Delhi. The section from Kazipet to Padapalli has been already opened to traffic, and construction is now well advanced on the remaining portion, which passes through a difficult tract of country between the Godavari and Wardah rivers where there are large bridges. Good progress has been made with these bridges and the portion of the line between the two rivers is being rapidly completed. It is hoped that it will be possible to open it throughout for public traffic by the end of 1927.

The Central Indian Coalfields Railway.

This broad gauge project is important as opening the way for the development of the South Karanpura and Korra Coalfields; it will also open a shorter route for coal traffic to the North-West and West.

Of the two sections under construction, i. e. the Karanpura section (113 miles) and the Korra section (100 miles), progress during 1926-27 has been satisfactory but on the former section considerable damage was done by floods which delayed work. It is hoped to have both sections ready for opening to traffic by December 1928.

Raipur-Vizianagram Railway.

This trunk line on the 5'-6" gauge, 261 miles in length, passes through a large undeveloped area, and will provide direct communication between the Central Provinces and the new Harbour now under construction at Vizapatam on the east coast. The section of the line from Vizianagram to Parvatipuram, 48 miles long, was completed and opened to traffic in 1924.

During 1926-27 some realigning work has been carried out which will appreciably reduce the length of the line. Work at the northern and southern ends is progressing well but on the middle portion sickness and delay in obtaining possession of land have impeded progress. The line will be opened by sections as they are ready, but it is not expected that the whole line will be opened throughout till 1931.

Culebrita Chord Railway.

Progress has been rather slow on account of the exceptional nature of the works completed in the scheme, and the coal strike in England seriously delayed the supply of heavy plant required for sinking the caissons of the Bally Bridge. This was expected to arrive in October 1926, but did not begin to arrive till April 1927.

The connection will probably not be completed till 1930.

Amritsar-Narowal Railway.

The construction of this line about 40 miles long on the N. W. gauge was begun in February 1926. It will traverse a fertile and well irrigated area and in

addition to the Sikh shrines at Dera Baba Nanak and Kartarpur; by giving a direct connection between Amritsar and Jammu, it is also expected to stimulate the already considerable trade between the former and Kashmir. A length of 28 miles up to Dera Baba Nanak from the Amritsar end will be opened shortly but the remainder including a large bridge over the Ravi River is not expected to be finished until 1928.

Chak Jhumra Khushab Railway.

The construction of this broad gauge chord line by the N. W. Railway was sanctioned in two parts, (a) from Chak Jhumra to Chinot in November 1926 and (b) the remainder in April 1927. It will provide across connection between the Lyallpur District and Shahpur which is badly required and will also provide a shorter alternative route to Waziristan to the relief of the main line north of Lahore. About 80 miles of new line are involved and two large bridges over the Chenab and Jhelum rivers. It is hoped to open this line in 1929.

The Villupuram-Trichinopoly Railway

The construction of this metre gauge chord on the S. I. Ry., 110 miles long, was put in hand in the year 1925-26. It is being built to main line standard and will form an alternative route between Madras and Trichinopoly. Its importance lies mainly in the relief it will afford to the existing main line, but it will also serve to open up and develop a populous tract of country.

Progress has been satisfactory but the supply of permanent way material has been interfered with by the coal strike in England. It is hoped to have the line ready for opening to traffic by the end of 1928.

The Shoranur-Nilambur Railway.

The construction of this broad gauge branch on the S. I. Railway, 41 miles long, was sanctioned in May 1924. It is designed to open out and develop the Moplah country in the Malabar District with its important forest areas. From Shoranur to Angadipuram (18 miles) was opened to traffic by R. E. the Governor of Madras on the 3rd of February 1927 and it is hoped to have the remaining and more difficult portion ready for opening by June 1927.

Kangra Valley Railway.

This line is a 2'-6" gauge extension from the N. W. Ry. broad gauge terminal at Pathankote and traverses the wide and fertile tract known as the Kangra Valley. The line will shorten the journey to the important hill station of Dalhousie and Dharamsala.

The Punjab Government, which has in hand the construction of the Uhl Hydro-Electric Scheme, had agreed to guarantee this line against loss in working over a number of years as a rail connection of some kind is necessary for the transport of machinery and stores required for the Hydro Electric Scheme and for maintenance of the transmission lines after opening.

New Construction Programme.

In recent Annual Reports reference has been made to the arrangements and investigations which were being made with a view to the adoption of a largely in programme of new construction. The sum of millions under

construction" has been steadily growing and the efforts of the Railway Board and the Railway Administrations have now materialised in the production of a 5-year programme of constructions by each of the large Railways. These programmes have been prepared in collaboration with the Governments of the Provinces served by the several Railway systems and subsequently discussed by the Agents with the Railway Board. The procedure laid down, moreover, provides for the annual revision of them after further consultation with the Local Governments.

It cannot, of course, be expected that every one of the many projects, which have been included in the programmes, will prove to be financially justifiable, but since the sum of the total additional open line mileage shown in them amounts to over 7,000 miles at the end of the quinquennium, there appears to be no reason why the anticipations in last year's Report in regard to an annual addition of 1,000 miles to the open mileage of Indian Railways should not be realized.

Indian Railway Engineers employed on the big Railway systems have sometimes been criticised in the past for a lack of ability to design low grade railways so that the construction cost may be commensurate with the traffic that is expected to be carried and it is recognised that in order to build some of the lines included in the construction programme on a remunerative basis, special attention must be paid to the necessity for this. Although, therefore, there has been nothing authoritative in the past to preclude the building of cheap feeder lines, it has been thought advisable to encourage Railway Administrations to give special consideration to the question by laying down on broad line certain standards of constructions to suit different traffic requirements. These standards range from the highest class designed for lines which have to carry a fast and heavy traffic down to the lightest form of construction and include feeder lines of lesser gauge than the parent lines.

Electrification of Railways.

The electrification of railway lines in the Bombay area at present in hand comprises (a) on the G. I. P. Ry. the suburban lines up to Kalyan and the main lines to Igatpuri and Poona; (b) on the B. B. & C. I. Railway the suburban lines between Church Gate and Borivli and the main line between Grant Road and Bandra. The work on the electrification of the G. I. P. Ry. lines has reached an advanced stage and electrified services have already been opened between Victoria Terminus and Kurla and between the Harbour Branch and between Victoria Terminus and Bandra. These services have become highly popular and promise to be entirely successful.

With a view to inaugurating electrified services on the whole of these sections as early as possible the work on the uncompleted portions is being vigorously pushed forward. By the opening of these electrified services not only will Bombay derive a great benefit in the matter of a better distribution of its population, but on the railway side a considerable reduction in the operating costs will be effected.

Re-investigation of the electrification of lines in the vicinity of Calcutta and

Madras were also completed during the year. The results of these investigations are at present under consideration. Proposals for the electrification of the Trichinopoly-Madras and other sections of the S. I. Railway have also been under consideration by the Railway Board in view of the possibility of the supply of cheap power from hydro-electric sources.

An examination of hydro-electric schemes in the Madras Presidency, of which mention was made in the last year's report, was carried out during the year and the results of these investigations were under discussion with the Government of Madras at the end of the year.

Dindigul-Pollachi.

The construction of this line—75 miles 3'-3½" gauge—was sanctioned in April 1926. When completed it will link up the isolated metre gauge Podanur-Pollachi branch with the South Indian metre gauge system and while providing direct communication between the West Coast and the Madras District will open up the intervening districts. The probable date of opening is 31st March 1928.

Madras-Bodinayakanur.

This line 55 miles, 3'-3½" gauge, is of considerable importance from the administrative point of view as it will help to open up the tract of country between the South Indian Railway main line and the Travancore Hills. It is expected, that, while facilitating trade and generally assisting in the development of this rich tract of country the branch will attract considerable passenger traffic to the trade centres of Theni and Bodinayakanur.

Nidadavolu-Narasapur and Guduvada-Bhuvanagiri Railways.

These lines which branch off the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway system will provide railway communication in the densely populated portions of the Kistna and Godavari deltas where, owing to the number of canals, existing communications are inconvenient.

It is anticipated that they will be opened for traffic in 1928.

Agra-Bah

This line will open out an irrigated tract of the Agra District situated at the head of the Jumna Chambal Doab at present devoid of railway communication.

Calcutta Chord Railway.

This line starts from a point near Dankhori station on the Burdwan-Howrah Chord of the East Indian Railway and joins the Eastern Bengal Railway near Dum Dum Junction.

It is about 8 miles in length and includes a bridge over the Hooghly river at Bally. This connection is primarily intended for export of coal from the East Indian Railway. But it is likely in the near future to be used also for coal from the Bengal Nagpur Railway Coalfields, and with the developments anticipated in the terminal arrangements at Calcutta and the electrification of the lower portion of the Eastern Bengal Railway a large proportion of the suburban passenger traffic will pass over it.

INDIA AND CEYLON.

The possibility of connecting India and Ceylon by a railway across the bank of sand extending the whole way from Rameswaram to Mannar has been reported on from time to time, since 1835 various schemes having been suggested.

The South Indian Railway having been extended to Dhanushkoti, the southernmost point of Rameswaram Island, and the Ceylon Government Railway to Talaimannar, on Mannar Island, two points distant from each other about 21 miles across a narrow and shallow strait, the project has again been investigated with the idea of connecting these two terminal stations by a railway constructed on a solid embankment raised on the sand bank known as "Adam's Bridge," to supersede the ferry steamer service which has been established between these two points.

In 1913, a detailed survey was made by the South Indian Railway Company, and a project has now been prepared. This project contemplates the construction of a causeway from Dhanushkoti Point on the Indian side to Talaimannar Point on the Ceylon side, a length of 20.05 miles of which 7.19 will be upon the dry land of the various islands, and 12.86 will be in water. The sections on dry land will consist of low banks of sand pitched with coral and present no difficulty. The section through the sea will be carried on a causeway which it is proposed to construct in the following way. A double row of reinforced concrete piles, pitched at 10 feet centres and having their inner faces 14 feet apart, will first be driven into the sand. These piles will then be braced together longitudinally with light concrete arches and chains and transversely with concrete ties, struts and chains. Behind the piles slabs of reinforced concrete will be slipped into position, the bottom slabs being sunk well into the sand of the sea bottom. Lastly, the space enclosed by the slabs will be filled in with sand.

The top of the concrete work will be carried to six feet above high water level, and the rails will be laid at that level. The sinking of the piles and slabs will be done by means of water jets. This causeway, it is expected, will cause the suspended sand brought up by the currents, to settle on either side bringing about rapid accretion and eventually making one big island of Rameswaram island and Mannar island.

Indo-Burma Connection.

The raids of the Emden in the Bay of Bengal in 1914, and the temporary interruption of communications between India and Burma, stimulated the demand for a direct railway connection between India and Burma. Government accepted the position and appointed Mr. H. Inst. C.R. to be the engineer of the project. The route for a railway from India to

coast route appears to be the best one but at present would not be remunerative. This would start from Chittagong, which is the terminus and head-quarters of the Assam-Bengal Railway and a seaport for the produce of Assam. The route runs southwards through the Chittagong district, a land of fertile rice fields intersected by big rivers and tidal creeks and it crosses the Indo-Burma frontier, 94 miles from the town of Chittagong. For about 100 miles further it chiefly runs through the fertile lowlands of Arrakan and crosses all the big tidal rivers of the Akyab delta. These include the Kaladan river which drains 4,700 miles of country and even at a distance of about 30 miles from its mouth is more than half a mile wide. About 200 miles from Chittagong the railway would run into the region of mangrove swamps which fringe the seacoast north and south of the harbour of Kawkphu stretching out into the mangrove swamps like ribs from the backbone. Innumerable spurs of the Arrakan Yoma have to be crossed. Yoma is a mountain ridge which extends from Cape Negrais northwards until it loses itself in a mass of tangled hills east of Akyab and Chittagong. At its southern end the height of the ridge is insignificant but it has peaks as high as 4,000 feet before it reaches the altitude of Sandway and further north it rises much higher. It is a formidable obstacle to railway communication between India and Burma. This route is estimated to cost about £7,000,000 and would have to be supplemented by branch lines to Akyab where there is at present a considerable rice traffic and the cost of this would have to be added to the £7,000,000 already referred to.

The other routes examined have been the Hukong Valley route and the Manipur route which were surveyed by the late Mr. R. A. Way many years ago. The Manipur route was estimated to cost £10,000,000 and has to cross three main mountain levels of 2,650, 3,000 and 4,000 feet. Altogether there would be about four miles of tunnelling through the three main ridges and through other hills and more than 100 miles of expensive undulating railway with grades as steep as 1 in 30 and 11,000 feet of aggregate rise and fall. The Hukong valley route is only about 284 miles long and it presents fewer engineering difficulties than either the Coast or the Manipur route. One hundred and fifty miles of this route lie in open country capable of cultivation though at present it is only very thinly populated. Only one range of hills has to be crossed and this can be negotiated with a summit tunnel of 5,000 feet long at a height of 2,500 feet. There are less than fifty miles of very heavy work and only about 4,500 feet aggregate of rise and fall. The Hukong Valley route is cheaper than the Manipur route and both may be ruled out of

Railway Statistics

	Particulars.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25	1925 MU.	1926 27.
1	Mileage open at close of the year	Miles	36,735	37,029	37,266	37,618	38,039	38,270.	38,049
2	Total Capital outlay; including fertiles and suspense, on open lines (in thousands of rupees)	Rs. 6,66,37.77	6,26,80.53	6,47,97.17	6,97,46.07	7,32,37.88	7,54,31.52	7,88,03.66
3	Gross earnings (in thousands of rupees)	80,15.32	91,08.76	92,88.67	1,05,65.19	1,07,79.06	1,14,75.20	1,12,95.05
4	Gross earnings per mile open †	24,269	24,842	24,925	27,086	28,350	29,785	28,540
5	Gross earnings per mile open per week †	467	478	479	538	545	578	549
6	Gross earnings per train-mile	5.50	5.60	5.80	6.60	6.79	7.01	6.53
7	Total working expenses (in thousands of rupees)	50,65.65	60,29.04	70,79.95	72,99.49	68,44.77	69,80.08	71,00.03
8	Working expenses per mile open †	13,789	16,274	18,998	19,314	17,992	17,992	18,408
9	Working expenses per train-mile	3.13	3.73	4.42	4.62	4.31	4.24	4.08
10	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	56.81	65.51	76.22	69.09	63.50	60.45	62.04
11	Net earnings (in thousands of rupees)	Rs. 38,49.67	31,69.72	22,08.72	32,65.70	39,34.39	45,88.52	42,30.16
12	Net earnings per mile open †	10,480	8,555	5,927	8,651	10,348	11,780	10,951
13	Net earnings per train-mile	2.87	1.96	1.38	2.07	2.48	2.77	2.50
14	Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay (item 2)	Percent	6.8	5.06	3.41	4.68	5.48	6.19	5.41
15	Passenger train-miles (in thousands)	Train-miles	89,009	93,016	90,617	93,901	91,484	96,081	97,547

Railway Statistics

6

16	Goods train-miles (in thousands)	70,001	67,010	63,180	68,319	57,538	59,96	57,411	57,42
17	Mixed train-miles (in thousands)..	34,160	32,254	30,402	30,342	30,221	29,661	30,386	29,71
18	Total, including miscellaneous train-miles (in thousands) ..	162,161	161,802	160,155	168,041	158,049	163,619	162,258	1,70,720
19	Unit-mileage of passengers (in thousands)	20,614,612	20,985,008	19,794,596	18,923,705	19,405,379	19,910,350	20,231,752	20,566,250
20	Freight ton-mileage of goods (in thousands) ..	20,401,656	19,920,888	17,786,009	18,373,696	18,527,873	21,268,691	19,990,018	20,374,479
21	Average miles a ton of goods was carried ..	232.33	227.56	205.57	196.8	* 258.6	* 273.4	249.2	237.
22	Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile ..	4.48	4.62	6.30	6.05	6.15	6.00	6.22	6.1
Average miles a passenger was carried.									
23	1st class ..	139.16	130.55	120.98	123.5	† 89.8	† 97.5	107.7	117.
24	2nd class ..	85.63	77.81	74.08	67.4	† 35.4	† 38.0	38.0	42.
25	Intermediate class..	75.85	71.66	72.08	62.5	† 40.6	† 47.0	45.8	45.4
26	3rd class ..	40.73	38.78	36.58	35.2	† 33.9	† 34.1	33.4	33.
27	Season and Vendor's tickets ..	9.18	9.16	8.89	9.5
28	Total ..	89.04	87.52	85.26	83.5	† 81.3	† 94.5	83.9	83.1
Average rate charged per passenger per mile.									
29	1st class ..	16.04	16.72	20.25	23.74	† 23.4	† 22.0	20.8	19.
30	2nd class ..	7.59	7.84	9.13	11.75	† 10.5	† 9.92	9.51	8.60
31	Intermediate class..	4.21	4.36	4.45	5.88	† 5.12	† 4.95	4.92	4.58
32	3rd class ..	2.84	2.92	3.04	3.62	† 3.46	† 3.47	3.47	3.45
33	Season and Vendor's tickets ..	1.54	1.60	1.71	1.74
34	Total ..	3.09	3.18	3.33	3.78	† 3.75	† 3.74	3.73	3.69

Railway Miles e

Railways,	1918 19	1919-20.	1920 21.	1921-22.	1922 3	1923 24.	1924 25	1925 26	19 27
STATE LINES.									
Aden	..	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Alma ar Dandeh (Provincial)*	..	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
Alon Y. M. U.*	14	27	27	27	49
Amman-Bengal*	..	809	809	809	874	874	874	874	874
Bangalore-Harhar*	..	2107	210	210	210	210	210	210	210
Batal-Nagpur*	..	1,820	1,891	1,002	1,022	1,098	2,013	2,059	2,201
Berwada Extension*	..	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Bombay, Baroda & Central India*	..	2,819	2,819	2,819	2,852	2,868	2,868	2,899	2,890.57
Breach-Jambusar*	..	80	80	30	30	30	30	30	80
Bunga*	..	1,535	1,536	1,536	1,530	1,530	1,530	1,537	1,590.7
Cawnpore-Burhwal (x)	..	80	80	80	80	80	80	83	83
Dera Ismail Khan Tank Deenville	42	42
Dhoke-Kurnool*	..	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Dua Indlan	..	2,409	2,459	2,462	2,479	2,481	2,485	3,751	3,793
Eastern Bengal	..	1,688	1,682	1,630	1,622	1,622	1,610	1,604	1,611
Sat ura	..	217	217	217	217	217	627	627	627
Great Indian Peninsula	..	2,562	2,562	2,562	2,605	2,616	2,671	(b) 2,136	2,196
Godhpur-Hyderabad* (British Section)	..	124	124	124	121	124	124	134	124
Godhat Provincial State	..	32	32	32	3	32	32	32	32
Kalka Simla	..	60	60	60	62	60	60	60	60
Lab V Nev	40	46	46	46	46

Railway Wileage

STATE LINES—contd.					
X bat-Thal	62	62	62	62
Ko ar Gold-fields*	10
Lacknow-Bareilly*	312	316	316	312
Madras and Southern Mahratta	2,550	2,566	2,559	2,560
Mappur-Hosur *	73	73	73	73
Medunin-yo *	89
Nilgiri*	29	29	29	29
North-Western	3,805	3,984	4,064	4,112
Palanpur-Deesa*	17	17	17	17
Pulla-Ranchi*	115	115	115	115
Pynmana-Taunglingyl*
Rampur-Dhambari *	57	57	57	57
Southern Shan States*	1,327	1,327	1,327	1,353
Tamoor British section	50	50	50	50
Tatoo*	810	815	814	808
Tripattur-Krishnagiri*	25	25	25	25
Trans Indus (Kalabagh-Bannu)	135	135	162	162
Tumtar-Tirodi Light *	46	46	46	47
ASSISTED COMPANIES.					
Ahmedabad-Parantij	89	89	89	89
Ahmadpur Katwa	32	32	32	32

Railways		1918-19	1919-20	1920-21.	1921-22	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25	1925-26.	1926-27
Assisted Companies—contd.										
Amritsar-Patti	..	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Arrah-Sasaram Light	..	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Bachura-Damodar River..	..	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Bahadur-Basirhat Light	..	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Bahadur Light	..	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
Bangal and North-Western..	..	1,243	1,249	1,248	1,248	1,248	1,250	1,251	1,270	1,270
Bogal Doobra	..	158	158	158	158	158	157	157	157	156
Borwada-Masulpatam *	..	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Bokhtiarpur-Bihar Light	..	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Bordwan Katwa	..	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Champaner-Sitvrajpur Pant Light *	..	32	32	32	32	32	31	31	31	31
Chaparmukh-Sligbat *	..	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Darjeeling-Himalayan Extension	..	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95
Dasghara-Jamalpurgunj *	..	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Doh-Rohas Light	..	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Doband-Baramati *	..	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Dobru-Sadiya	..	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86
Dulchupur-Yectmal *	..	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Fatwah-Islampur	..	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Godhra-Lunavada *	..	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Hardwar-Delhra *	..	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44
Howrah-Anta Light	..	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Howrah-Sheakhala Light	..	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77
Jacobabad Kashmir *	..	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20

Railway Mileage

Parlay Mileage

[illegible]

Railway Mileage

Railways	1918 1)	1919 20	1920 21	1921 22	1922 23	1923 24	1924 25	1925 26	1926 -
ASSISTED COMPANIES—continued.									
Butelej Valley †	127	127	213	21
Tanjore District Board*	..	135	135	135	131	131	131	131	131
Tapti Valley *	..	156	156	156	156	156	156	156	156
Tenali-Bepalli *	..	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Ternur-Balipara	..	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Tinnelly-Tiruchendur *	38	38	38	38	3
UNASSISTED COMPANIES.									
Bengal Provincial	..	38	38	33	33	33	33	33	33
Jagadhri Light	..	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Kulasekarapatnam Light	..	32	32	18	24	25	25	25	25
Jado and Tikak Margherita Colliery	..	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Tirvalore Light	2	2	2	2	2	2
INDIAN STATE LINES.									
Kanpur Baharshah	47	58	53	55
Bangalore-Chik Ballapur Light	..	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	3
B. Nagar	..	206	217	240	253	253	253	253	25

INDIAN STATE INKS--contd

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Pa leay Mleage

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Mines and Minerals.

Total value of Minerals for which returns of Production are available for the years 1925 and 1926.

	1925 (£1 = Rs. 13.3).	1926 (£1 = Rs. 13.4).	Increase.	Decrease.
Coal	9,508,818	7,574,509	1,920,229
Petroleum	7,740,727	7,305,500	435,218
Manganese (a)	2,617,220	2,590,357	26,863
Lead and lead-ore	1,660,824	1,680,505	23,681
Gold	1,072,501	1,024,236	48,265
Building materials	853,851	860,558	6,707
Salt	574,628	886,830	262,202
Mica (b)	790,483	820,901	21,418
Silver	705,503	663,063	42,440
Tin and tin-ore	267,981	475,882	187,431
Copper ore and matte	262,297	302,566	100,269
Iron-ore	330,775	349,670	12,901
Zinc-ore (b)	156,375	321,177	164,802
Saltpetre (b)	147,617	98,846	48,771
Tungsten-ore	23,975	57,335	23,560
Jadeite (b)	12,237	35,001	22,864
Ruby, Sapphire and Spinel	27,454	34,831	7,380
Clays	18,254	22,807	14,553
Chromite	40,171	30,810	9,361
Magnesite	31,179	26,444	4,735
Steatite	(c) 15,119	11,215	3,906
Ilmenite	492	7,587	7,095
Gypsum	5,810	5,704	106
Alum	1,718	3,761	2,043
Zircon	4,608	2,987	1,621
Ochre	2,839	2,277	562
Diamonds	1,098	2,131	1,033
Bauxite	6,320	2,744	3,576
Amber	710	1,599	889
Fuller's earth	1,615	1,761	146
Refractory materials	3,022	1,624	1,398
Muscovite	947	947
Apatite	850	804	46
Asbestos	361	786	425
Barytes	1,328	690	638
Corundum	342	342
Antimony	25	201	175
Soda	171	285	114
Beryl	7	7
Serpentine	8	3	5
Copperas	1	2	1
Boxax	2	2
Oil Shale	16	16
Total	27,515,741	25,899,103	860,977	2,557,555
			-1,696,578	

Mineral Industries

one feature which stands out most prominently in a survey of the mineral industries of India is the fact that until recent years little has been done to develop those minerals which are essential to modern metallurgical and chemical industries, while most striking progress has been made in opening out deposits from which they are available for export, and in determining by what means they may be transported to the market. In respect India of to-day stands in contrast to India of a century ago. The European is now armed with cheap supplies of sulphuric acid and alkali, and aided by low sea freights and increased facilities for internal distribution by the spreading network of railways, has been enabled to stamp out, in all but a few localities, the once flourishing native manufactures of alum, the various alkaline salts, blue vitriol, copperas, copper, lead, and iron, and seriously to curtail the export of nitre and borax. The reaction against that invasion is of recent date. The quality of the native-made iron, the early adoption of the processes now employed in Europe for the manufacture of high-class steels, the artistic products in copper and brass have placed the country in a prominent position in the world metallurgical world, while as a chief source of nitre India held a position of peculiar local importance until, less than forty years ago, the chemical manufacturer of Europe found among his by-products, cheaper and more effective compounds for the manufacture of explosives.

With the spread of railways, the development of manufactures connected with jute, cotton, paper, and the gradually extended use of electricity the demand for metallurgical and chemical products in India has steadily grown. Before long the stage must be reached at which the variety and quantity of products required, now imported, will satisfy the conditions necessary for the local production of those which can be economically manufactured only by the supply of groups of industries.

Coal.

Most of the coal raised in India comes from Bengal and Bihar and Orissa—Gondwana fields. Outside Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the most important mines are those at Warangal in Hyderabad, and in Central Provinces, but there are a number of smaller mines which have been worked at one time or another. The following statement shows the production of coal mines in British India and in Indian States during 1926, as compared with 1925:—

Province.	1925.	1926.
	Tons.	Tons.
Bombay	318,942	301,061
Bengal	24,797	15,586
Madras	4,913,852	5,137,688
United Provinces and Orissa	13,938,509	13,955,775
India	25	
Total	20,904,877	20,999,167

Province.	1925	1926
	Tons.	Tons.
Central India	219,106	216,708
Central Provinces	708,554	635,552
Hyderabad	567,877	537,79
Punjab	74,662	68,046
Rajputana	28,153	31,770
Total	20,904,877	20,999,167

Coal Prices.—The value of the coal produced in India is reported annually by mine-owners. It represents the actual or estimated wholesale price of coal at the pit's mouth. In 1926 the average value was Rs. 4-13 per ton. The lowest value, namely Rs. 2-8 per ton, was recorded in 1905, and the highest (Rs. 7-11) in 1922 when demand kept ahead of supply. The table below compares the average value at pit's mouth of Indian coal with the declared export value per ton in each of the last five years. The declared export value is generally over twice the value at the pit's mouth. The total estimated value at pit's mouth of the output in 1926 was Rs. 10.15 lakhs, as compared with (Rs. 12.64 lakhs) the estimate for 1925.

AVERAGE VALUE OF COAL			
		Declared value per ton	Value at the pit's mouth per ton
		RS. A.	RS. A.
1922	13 8	7 11
1923	17 2	7 7
1924	16 9	7 1
1925	15 0	6 1
1926	12 14	4 13

With the above average value may be compared the values at the pit's mouth of coal in foreign countries, as shown below (the figures represent the average of the latest five years for which quotations are available.)

	RS. A.
United Kingdom	14 3
Australia	11 7
Japan	12 1
United States of America	10 10
India	6 10
South Africa	4 13

It must be borne in mind that this value is affected by many factors, such as the quality of the coal raised, its accessibility, the machinery in use, nearness to the surface, etc., besides the differences in the cost of labour and transport. In India a large percentage of the coal which is now being worked is comparatively near the surface and labour comparatively cheap. Indian coal, therefore, has a lower value at the pit's mouth than the coal of any other country except South Africa.

The comparative average prices per ton of Bengal coal (Deshbarghur) at Calcutta, of Indian Welsh and Natal coal at Bombay and Karachi for 1925 to 1926 are shown in table on page 25. The prices of coal fall in all the ports of Calcutta, Bombay and

Coal Consumption, 1926.

Total population	320,761,000*
Production of coal tons	20,999,187
Imports of coal	193,956
Exports of coal	661,711
Excess or exports over imports	467,753
Total quantity retained for home consumption	20,581,414
Estimated consumption per head of population	0.06

* According to the census of 1921 with increase of 1.19 per mille per annum and excluding figures for Aden and the Andamans and the Nicobar Islands.

† Including bunker coal and coal shipped on Admiralty and the Royal Indian Marine accounts.

Persons employed in the Coal mining Industry.

In 1926, 185,749 persons were employed daily as against 189,282 in 1925, a decrease of 3,533 persons or 1.9 per cent.

The table below gives the output per head employed (1) above and below ground and (2) below ground, in certain specified countries (for details see table 21, page 41). This comparison is somewhat vitiated as the figures are for different years, but nevertheless they are not without some significance. They cannot, however, be taken to give a strictly accurate idea of the relative efficiency of the labour in the countries named. Not only do the conditions of the work below ground vary greatly, but the proportion of persons employed above and below ground is different in the different countries. In Great Britain, in 1925, for example, the workers below ground were 40 per cent of the total number employed, while in the same year in India, where mining operations are still nearer the surface, they were 64 per cent. The efficiency of the Indian miner

is much below that of miners in most other countries. Further labour saving appliances are used only to a small extent in comparison with other countries. During the last few years the number of labourers employed in use in Indian Mines has fallen towards the end of 1925. In view of the fall in output in the demand for coal, a number of machines were withdrawn. The provision of modern screening and loading plants is also receiving increased attention. At present about 4,000,000 tons of coal is mechanically screened and it is anticipated that by 1930, the figure will have increased to 4,750,000 tons. Practically all large collieries have either plants actually at work or in course of erection.

	Above and below ground Per head Tons.	Below ground only Per head Tons
United States	694 .. in	1925
Great Britain	221 277 ..	1925
Germany	234 ..	1925
France	153 212 ..	1926
Belgium	176 224 ..	1925
Japan	122 168 ..	1925
India	111 173 ..	1925
	113 166 ..	1924

The per capita output of coal in India in 1926 is compared below with the results of the preceding five years:—

	Above and below ground Tons.	Below ground only Tons
1922	94.6	161.5
1923	97.8	163
1924	103.6	168.8
1925	110.5	171.1
1926	113.1	165.9

THE INDIAN COAL COMMITTEE.

The Indian Coal Committee which was appointed by the Government of India in September, 1924, was, in the main, the outcome of a resolution adopted by the Legislative Assembly in March of that year recommending on economic grounds the imposition of a countervailing duty on South African coal imported into India. Before referring to the Tariff Board the question whether the Indian coal trade was in need of protection against coal from South Africa or against imports of foreign coal generally, the Government decided that the technical aspect of the question should be investigated by an expert committee with the following terms of reference:—"To enquire and report (1) generally, what measures can be taken by Government, by the coal trade, by the railways and by the ports, whether singly or in combination, to stimulate the export of suitable coal from Calcutta to Indian and foreign ports; (2) in particular, whether effective measures can be taken for the pooling and grading of Indian coal for export and to bunkering, and how the cost of such should be met.

The members of the Committee, which met at Calcutta on October 22nd, were Mr. F. Noyce C.S.I., C.B.E., I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of Madras, Development Department, (President); Mr. C. S. Whitworth, Chief Mining Engineer to the Railway Board; Mr. C. Stuart Williams, Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust; Mr. J. W. A. Bell, of Messrs. Muckinnon, MacLennan & Co.; Mr. F. C. Legge, C.B.E., Director of the Railway Wagon Pool; Sir Rajendranath Mohanlal, K.C.I.R., K.C.V.O., of Messrs. Martin & Co.; Mr. A. A. F. Bray, Chairman of the Indian Mining Association; and Mr. W. C. Papner, Vice-Chairman of the Indian Mining Federation with Mr. H. P. V. Townsend, I.C.S., as Secretary. Its investigations which included visits to Rangoon, Penang, Singapore, Colombo, Madras, Bombay and Karachi lasted some five months, its Report being signed on March 28th, 1925.

Export Trade.—Chapter I of the Report contains a review of the situation which led to the appointment of the Committee and a detailed examination of the position in those countries and ports in which Indian coal is or has been

a comparison between the present railway rates charged on export coal in India and in South Africa is favourable to Indian coal.

The Committee therefore hold that, whilst there is no statistical case for increasing the rebate of 25 per cent. at present granted on export coal in India, this should be increased to 37½ per cent., that is roughly by eight annas per ton, on the general grounds of the importance of the coal trade in the industrial economy of the country and the admittedly inadequate character of the railway facilities for moving it. The grant of a rebate on bunker coal is not recommended as it is not considered that this would have any appreciable effect in increasing the attractiveness of Calcutta as a bunkering port.

In Chapter VI, some general recommendations in regard to railway work are made. Improvements in the system under which the collieries indent for wagons are suggested. It is recommended that collieries should be permitted to put in their own sidings, these to be taken over subsequently by the railways on suitable terms if the traffic passing over them is found to yield a return of 6 per cent. on the capital outlay. The difficulties arising from the overloading of wagons, which have given rise to much criticism from the coal trade, it is proposed to remove by the provision of a type of wagon which when loaded flush with the top would not have too heavy a load whatever the specific gravity of the coal carried in it. It is suggested that the feasibility of providing such a type of wagon should be investigated by a small expert committee and that, meanwhile, all wagons should be marked with a mineral loading index figure which should be used for calculating the height to which coal and other minerals should be loaded according to their specific gravities. More outdoor supervision both by the colliery and the railway staffs is advocated whilst it is suggested that monthly meetings on the coalfields between the railway and colliery representatives should be revived. A recommendation to which the Committee attach especial importance is that open wagons should be supplied to all collieries which install mechanical appliances for loading coal in order to ensure the loading of coal in the best possible condition with the minimum of slack and dust. They also recommend that the control of wagon supplies which was instituted in 1917 when a Coal Controller was appointed who was replaced in April, 1919, by a Coal Transportation Officer working under the Railway Board should be restored to the two railways themselves who should have a joint officer for the purpose. Preference in the matter of wagon supplies for coal should be restricted to coal required by railways, inland river navigation companies and ocean going steamers under mail contracts with Government, to coal for works of public utility and to coal for export certified in accordance with the proposals made later in the Report.

Docks and Depots.—In Chapter VII, the Committee examine the working of the Calcutta Docks and coal depots. They conclude that, whilst the ----- of wagons at the docks could be improved the delays in shipping coal are mainly due to the ----- arrival of the ----- interrupted for a -----

the facilities for the movement of coal traffic in the docks were improved to the extent contemplated by the Port Commissioners, they would prove sufficient to deal adequately with an extension of the existing coal traffic which can be regarded as probable in the near future. The Port has at present two mechanical loading appliances known as Beckett's plant and the Committee consider that, in order to avoid breakage, whenever shippers ask that their coal should be loaded by this plant, every effort should be made to comply with their request and that save in exceptional circumstances, the first part of each cargo of coal should always be loaded by this plant which could deal with four million tons of coal annually even if only one of the two plants were reserved for coal. The Beckett's plant is, however, only a semi-mechanical plant and the Committee recommend that the question of the most suitable type of mechanical loading appliance for Calcutta should be investigated at an early date by a small expert committee which should report on the best type of mechanical loading appliance adapted to all types of wagon and should also investigate the possibility of using shoots for coal loaded by hand into steamers. A review of the charges levied by the Port Commissioners on coal leads to the conclusion that the financial condition of the Port is not such as to justify a reduction of the charges on coal and that no statistical case can be made out for such a reduction. On much the same general grounds as for the railways, the Committee, however, recommend a reduction and suggest that this should take the form of a reduction of four annas on the river dues on certified export coal. They do not recommend any alteration in the charges on coal at the bunker depots and their only recommendation of importance in this connexion is that the possibility of extending the pontoons and gangways at the Howrah depot into deeper water with a corresponding extension of the railway sidings should be considered.

Freights.—An examination of the steamer freights on coal exported from Calcutta leads to the conclusion in Chapter VIII that the present freights for coal cannot be considered economic in view of the increase cost of working. The Committee explain why Calcutta does not attract tramp steamers which means that freight on coal has always to be paid for at the economic level. They emphasize that freights from Calcutta are fixed on the basis of the demand for tonnage and of the available supply at ports all over the world and cannot therefore be controlled by Government action. They consider that there is no prospect of any reduction in the freight on coal from Calcutta in the near future.

Grading and Certification.—Chapter IX in which the Committee discuss the steps which should be taken to restore the confidence of purchasers overseas in Indian coal is the most important in the Report. They emphasize the necessity that any system of grading and certification should be such as to command the confidence of buyers but should not relieve the exporter of any responsibility as to quality. They point out that it would take too long and would be too ----- to establish a ----- organization by the grading of Indian coal and ----- that the -----

of the Chief Mining Engineer to the Railway Board who represents the largest purchasers of coal in India should be utilised for the purpose. It would work in conjunction with J Grading Board of which the Chief Mining Engineer would be Chairman and which would also include a representative of the Indian Mining Association and one of the Indian Mining Federation and also nominees of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce and the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, the two latter representing the interests of consumers on the Board.

A general outline of a scheme for classifying all Indian coal is given and it is suggested that a grading list should be published by the Board.

In this would be an analysis of the coal they produce would be given but no colliery would be included in the list without its consent. The Committee hold strongly that only those collieries included in the grading list should be eligible for the special concessions from the railways and the Port Commissioners recommended in previous chapters and that only certified coal from such collieries should receive these concessions. They consider that the decision of the Grading Board as to the classification of any colliery or seam should be final. They formulate a scheme for the inspection of certified coal and suggest a form of certificate. They recommend that the cost of any analysis required should be borne by the colliery concerned and that the cost of inspection should be met by the levy of a fee of one anna per ton of coal inspected. They finally urge under this head that as the services of the Chief Mining Engineer and his staff are not likely to be available for more than two years, a scheme should be introduced by the end of that period for the inspection of export coal by independent officers appointed by the Grading Board. The advantages and disadvantages of selling coal on analysis are examined and it is recommended that exporters of coal to Bombay should be prepared to submit their coal to analysis when selling to consumers who have adopted the system of purchase on analyses. They do not consider the certification of bunker coal practicable.

In Chapter X, the Committee briefly examine the possibility of pooling coal for export and pronounce it not feasible.

Chapter XI contains a few miscellaneous recommendations such as the necessity for propaganda by exporters of Indian coal; the

quotation of prices of Indian coal in sterling; the adoption of the system of payment on delivery and of payment of freight on the quantity shown in the bill of lading less an allowance of two per cent. in lieu of weightment when competing coals is sold on these terms; improvements in the coal statistics issued by the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence; and the advisability of obtaining the advice of the Chief Mining Engineer before any large contract for coal is placed either by the Imperial Government or by any Local Government.

Mr. Banerjee appended a minute of dissent to the Report in which he laid the present position of the Indian coal trade at the door of the embargo which he attributed entirely to Government action, demanded more railway sidings in the coalfields, considered that the present rebate on coal should be doubled, proposed special rates for coal sent to certain upcountry stations, recommended the grant of lower railway rates in the off season when wagons are not required for the movement of grain, urged the abolition of the present system of prepayment of freight on coal, and also the complete abolition of the Coal Transportation Officer, considered that there should be no nominees of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce or of the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce on the Grading Board dissented from the proposal to publish the grading list and finally argued that the Indian coal trade was in need of a much larger measure of direct assistance than had been recommended by his colleagues.

The recommendations of the Committee were accepted practically in their entirety by the Government of India and the coal trade and a Grading Board, in accordance with the scheme formulated by the Committee, was established by the Coal Grading Board Act, (XXXI of 1925) which was passed at the September session of the Legislature. The recommendations of the Committee in regard to the grant of an enhanced rebate and of lower river dues were accepted by the railways and the Calcutta Port Commissioners, respectively, and provision was made in the Act for the grant of rebates and of preference in the matter of wagon supply so far as this required legislation. Draft rules under the Act were published for criticism in October, 1925. The question of protecting Indian coal against imports of foreign coal was referred to the Tariff Board in that month. The Board had not completed its investigations at the end of the year.

IRON ORE.

Bengal and Bihar and Orissa are the only provinces in India in which iron ore is mined for anything by European methods. Iron smelting, however, was at one time a widespread industry in India and there is hardly a district away from the great alluvial tracts of the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra in which slag heaps are not found. The primitive iron smelter finds no difficulty in obtaining sufficient supplies of ore from deposit that no European romantics would regard as worth his notice. Early to introduce iron

for the manufacture of pig-iron and steel were recorded in 1830 in the South Arcot District. Since that date various other attempts have been made but none proved a success before that now in operation near Barakar in Bengal. The site of the Barakar Iron-Works was originally chosen on account of the proximity of both coal and ore supplies. The outcrop of iron stone shales between the coal-bearing Baraka and Raniganj stages east and west from the works, and for many years the clay has been from this zone.

on m l h e o n y u p p o c e u d n e about 1 00 feet above sea level. The uppermost 400 to 450 feet of this hill has now been opened up, and the workings indicate the existence of a deposit about a quarter of a mile long, perhaps 400 feet thick and proved on the dip for about 500 feet. The ore body appears to be interbedded with the Dharwar slates, from which it is separated by banded hematite-jaspers. The ore itself is high-grade micaceous hematite, often lateritised at the outcrop. Cross-cut into the interior of the deposit show that the hematite becomes very friable not far below the outcrop. In fact the characteristics of this ore, including the surface lateritisation, are almost exactly reproduced in the iron-ore deposits of Goa and Ratnagiri. The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi possesses slightly richer and purer ore-bodies in the Raipur district, supplies of ore are at present drawn from the deposits in Mayurbhanj. The ore-deposits have all been found to take the form of roughly lenticular leads or bodies of hematite, with small proportions of magnetite, in close association with granite on the one hand and granitic rocks on the other.

Quantity and value of Iron-ore produced in India during the years 1925 and 1926.

	1925,			1926,		
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13 3)		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13 4)	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>						
Mayurbhanj ..	957,275	29,71,325	215,027	1,041,929	31,25,787	233,267
Sambalpur ..	708	4,920	370	569	3,910	293
Singhbhum ..	477,386	12,36,840	92,990	552,079	12,81,922	96,890
<i>Burma—</i>						
Mandalay ..	1,013	(a) 4,052	303
Northern Shan States ..	50,804	(a) 2,02,416	15,219	48,089	(a) 1,92,350	14,375
<i>Central Provinces ..</i>	1,037	4,152	314	972	3,967	298
<i>Mysore ..</i>	56,218	1,54,000	11,579	(b) 15,427	73,278	5,468
<i>Other Provinces and States</i>	143	866	65	230	1,406	105
Total ..	1,541,578	44,79,101	336,775	1,659,295	46,87,600	349,676

(a) Estimated.

(b) Excludes 1,909 tons of hematite quartzite.

The production of iron ore in India has been steadily on the increase; in 1926 there was an increase of 10 per cent. on the previous year of 1925. The figure shows a total of 1,541,578 tons. The figure shows a total of 1,541,578 tons.

production by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Ltd., whilst of that recorded in the Singhbhum, 78,088 tons were produced by the Indian Iron and Steel Company Ltd. from their mines at Goa, Ratnagiri, and the Raipur

This was again due to a fall in price. In 1921 in 1 grade ore c.i.f. United Kingdom ports fetched an average price of 22-9d. per unit. In 1925 this price fell to 21-5d., and in 1926 to 18-7.

A fall in price was anticipated in view of the agreement, two or three years ago, between an American group of financiers and the Soviet Government for the development on modern lines of the manganese ores of the Caucasus; for political or economic reasons not yet fully understood no development has yet been carried out and the precise position is obscure. In addition to the four chief manganese-producing areas, India, Brazil, the Gold Coast and Cuba, a further source at Postnysburg in the northern part of the Cape Province is promising; the grade is high and the deposits extensive, the only drawback being the presence of aluminous compounds.

Exports.—The exports of manganese ore, which during 1924 fell to the extent of about 130,000 tons, decreased in 1925 by about 27,600 tons and again in 1926 by 125,300 tons. There is a steady consumption of manganese ore at the works of the three principal Indian iron and steel companies, not only for use in the steel furnaces of the Tata Iron and Steel Company, and the manufacture of ferro-manganese, but also for addition to the blast-furnace charge in the manufacture of pig-iron. The consumption of

manganese ore in the industry was 40,111 tons 5,268 tons more than it was in the previous year.

Exports of Manganese-ore from British Indian ports during 1926.

To—	1926.	
	Quantity.	Value
	Tons.	Rs.
United Kingdom ..	74,730	20,80 00
Germany ..	6,240	1,48 800
Netherlands ..	14,800	4,25 125
Belgium ..	1,83 974	51,25 600
France ..	1,51,000	42,60 342
Italy ..	9,600	4,60 398
United States of America ..	67,250	20,15 500
Other Countries ..	13,290	3,06 854
Total ..	5,22,916	1,47,6 104

GOLD.

The greater part of the total output of gold in India is derived from the Kolar gold field in Mysore. During the last decade the production of this mine reached its highest point in 1905 when 616,758 ounces were raised. In 1906 the quantity won was 565,208 ounces and this figure fell to 535,056 ounces in 1907. The figures for the latter years reveal a small improvement. The Nizam's mine at Hutti in Hyderabad comes next, but at a respectable distance, to the Kolar gold field. This mine was opened in 1903. The only other mines from which gold was raised were those in the Dharwar district of Bombay and the Anantapur district of Madras. The Dharwar mines gave an output of 2,993 ounces in 1911 but work there ceased in 1912. The Anantapur mines gave their first output of gold during the year 1910; the amount being 2,532 ounces, valued at Rs 1,51,800. Gold mining was carried on in the North Arcot district of Madras from 1893 till 1900, the highest yield (2,854 ounces) being obtained in the year 1893. The Kyaukpazat mine in Upper Burma was worked until 1903, when the pay chute was lost and the mine closed down. In 1902 dredging operations were started on the Irrawaddy river near Myitkyina, and 216 ounces of gold were obtained in 1904; the amount steadily increased from year to year and reached 8,445 ounces in 1909, but fell in subsequent years until, in 1922, it was no more than 24 oz. The small quantity of gold produced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the United

obtained by washing. Gold washing is carried on in a great many districts in India, but there is no complete record of the amount obtained in this way. The average earnings of the workers are very small, and the gold thus won is used locally for making jewellery.

The continuous decrease in the output of gold in India from the maximum production of 616,728 ozs. reached in 1915, continued during the year 1923, when the total output of gold was 383,697-85 ozs., valued at £1,702,642, rising in 1924 to 396,351-103 ozs., valued at £1,927,483. The recovery made by the gold mines in the Anantapur district of Madras in 1924 was a temporary one only for both the North Anantapur Gold Mines, Ltd., and the Jubbal Gold Mines, Ltd., have now suspended mining operations. The small output shown against Madras represents the amount recovered by cyanide treatment of mill-tailings which have now been exhausted. In spite of an increase of 935 ozs. from the Kolar mines of Mysore therefor, there was a total decrease in the Indian output amounting to 2-476 ozs. In the Ooregam mine of the Kolar field which has reached a depth of 6,379 feet rock-bursts continue to give trouble but recent development work has proved the rich nature of the lower levels of the mine down, to the deepest point yet explored. An increase in the ore reserves of the Champion Reef mine has also been established: this mine, which has now reached a depth of 6-472 feet also suffers from rock

Quantity and value of Gold produced in India during the years 1921 and 1922

	1921			1922	
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.3)		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.3)
	Ounces	Rs.	£	Oz.	Rs.
<i>Punjab and Orissa</i>					
Singbhum	123 0	6 600
<i>Madras</i>					
Katha ..	19.7	1,265	95	24.2	1 491
Upper Chindwin ..	13.4	1,236	97	122.4	11 12
<i>Assam</i>	48 7	1,90
<i>Malaya</i>					
Amantapur ..	(a) 288.0	16,517	1,242	(a) 930.0	53 19
Musore ..	(a) 398,512 s	2,22,36,293	1 671,901	a 382 899 3	2,16,81 632
Lungab ..	37.4	1,974	149	8.8	414
South Provinces ..	3 s	235	17	4.1	2 1
Total ..	393,875 1	2,22,57,562	1,673,501	384,158 5	2,17,74 3

(a) Fine gold.

PETROLEUM.

Petroleum is found in India in two distinct areas—one on the east, which includes Assam, Burma, and the islands off the Arakan coast. This belt extends to the productive oil fields of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. The other area is on the west, and includes the Punjab and Baluchistan, the same belt of oil-bearing rocks being continued beyond the borders of British India to Persia. Of these two the eastern area is by far the most important, and the most successful oil-fields are found in the Irrawaddy valley. Yenangvaung is the oldest and most developed of these fields. Native wells have been at work here for over 100 years, and in 1886, prior to the annexation of Upper Burma, the output is estimated to have averaged over 2 million gallons a year. Drilling was begun in 1887. The Yenangyat field yielded a very small supply of petroleum before 1891, in which year drilling was started by the Burma Oil Company. Singu now holds the second place among the oil-fields of India. Petroleum was struck at the end of 1901, and in 1903, 5 million gallons were obtained. In 1907 and 1908 the production of this field was 43 million gallons, and after a fall to 31½ million gallons in 1910 it rose to 56½ million gallons in 1912. Several of the islands off the Arakan coasts are known to contain oil deposits but their value is uncertain. About 20,000 gallons were obtained from the eastern Barongo Island near Akyab, and about 37,000 gallons from Ramri Island in the Kyaukpnyu district during 1911. Oil was struck at Minbu in 1910, the production for that year being 18,325 gallons which increased to nearly 4 million gallons in 1912. The existence of oil in Assam has been known for many years and an oil spring was struck near Makum in 1867. Nothing more, however, was done until 1883, and from that year up till 1902 progress was slow. Since that year the output has been between 2½ and 4 million gallons.

On the west, oil springs for many years to exist in the other districts in the Punjab geological conditions are not so favourable and some small oil springs have been attempted to develop them but have not been successful.

Output in 1926.—Petroleum that it is becoming more and more difficult to maintain the output of India at the high levels it reached when peak productions of well over 100 million gallons were reached. During consideration the total production of India was less than 280½ million gallons over 289½ million gallons a year. There is now little doubt that this small as it is, forms part of the inevitable decline has a possibility of interruptions, is a slow and steady during the year, unless a new field of oil is discovered. The chances of a new field being discovered year by year as exhaustive search continues to prove fruitless policy rather than one of development seems indicated, especially in view of the national importance of the petroleum industry. The value figure dropped to £1,673,501 from the production figure.

As before the Yenangvaung field in Burma is mainly responsible for the decrease in output. In 1926 the output was 384,158 gallons showing an increase of nearly 10 per cent. but this temporary arrest is more than balanced by the decrease in the output of the other fields. In 1926 the output was 21½ million gallons; in 1925 it was 21½ million gallons; in 1926 it was 21½ million gallons. In 1926 is partly attributable to the fact that the output of the other fields took place during the first quarter of the year and also it is thought, to the fact that several wells have been put out.

... village was over-
... are a little brighter,
... which had proved to be
... tations, decreased its
... million gallons; further
... have raised hopes of
... development. The Digboi
... again showed a marked
... to nearly 61 million gallons;
... strations by the Assam
... a cause expectations of a
... and value of Petroleum produced in India during 1925 and 1926.

... expansion of this field and an
... sion of the refinery is contemplated. So far
... negative results only have rewarded this com-
... pany's scattered tests at Dhakiajull, Dill and
... Burrigolai.
... In the Punjab there is less cause for satis-
... faction. The output from the Khanr field has
... again dropped this time to the extent of over
... 1,800,000 gallons. A boring put down by the
... Whitehall Petroleum Corporation near Jhatla
... and 8 miles south-west of Talagang reached the
... great depth of 6,007 feet, without, unfortun-
... ately, striking oil in remunerative quantity.

1925.			1926.		
Quantity.	Value. (£1—Rs. 13.5.)		Quantity.	Value (£1—Rs. 13.4.)	
Gals.	Rs.	£	Gals.	Rs.	£
4,261,878	11,17,012	83,986	3,210,838	6,77,068	50,527
14,444,734	24,68,203	187,736	20,887,607	35,68,314	260,292
7,160	2,483	167	6,331	2,191	164
11,561	15,111	1,136	15,103	15,046	1,140
3,248,666	9,13,359	68,696	4,531,420	10,15,297	75,760
4,282,510	8,57,23,445	2,035,073	45,745,504	3,50,04,564	2,679,445
1,120,000	3,71,253	27,011	974,620	2,18,274	16,289
1,385,977	1,08,948	7,816	1,255,840	94,188	7,029
1,662,444	4,39,487	33,040	1,778,041	3,39,866	25,263
100,027,885	5,97,85,227	4,695,130	145,731,612	5,45,00,540	4,067,204
647,200	20,11,800	151,233	6,230,320	15,37,380	116,237
24,006,542	10,29,51,666	7,740,727	230,669,226	9,78,93,827	7,505,005

Amber and Mica.—Amber is found
... in Burma, the output
... cwt. valued at Rs. 21,420.
... small quantities in various
... progress has been made in
... Travancore. The total
... as 25 tons. India has for
... the leading producer of mica,
... than half of the world's
... owing to the war, the
... 3,189 cwt. compared with
... 1913. Owing to necessary
... gard to the export of mica,
... considerably in the year 1915,
... and in the United Kingdom
... ruby mica led to a consi-
... production during the follow

There was a decrease in the declared produc-
... tion of mica from 45,990 cwt. valued at
... Rs. 21,99,516 (£165,377) in 1925 to 41,924 cwt.
... valued at Rs. 22,19,367 (£165,624) in 1926. But
... the output figures are incomplete, and a more
... accurate idea of the size of the industry is to be
... obtained from the export figures. In both the
... years 1925 and 1926 the quantity exported was
... more than double the reported production.

Tin, Copper, Silver and Lead.—The
... only persistent attempt to mine tin is in Burma.
... The output was for some time insignificant but
... rose in 1913 to 116 tons valued at £46,000
... which fell to £18,000 in 1914. In 1925 Burma
... yielded 2,309 tons. Copper is found in Southern
... India, in Rs. and at various places
... along the outer Himalayas, but the ore is

smelted for the metal alone, no attempt being made to utilize the by-products. In 1924 the production of 2,935 tons of copper-matte valued at Rs. 15,91,527 was reported by the Burma Corporation, Ltd., in the Northern Shan States. There was a considerable increase in the production of tin-ore in Burma from 2,308 tons valued at Rs. 35,43,481 (£247,967) in 1925 to 3,548 tons valued at Rs. 6,101,858 (£455,362) in 1926. The Mergul and Tavoy districts contributed to some extent to this increase but most of it was due to production of 1,705 tons of mixed stibnite-wolfram concentrates from the Mawchi Mines in the Southern Shan States. The composition of these concentrates is usually 43 per cent. wolfram to 57 per cent. cassiterite. In only lead mine of any importance being worked in the Indian Empire is that of Bawdwin, where a very large body of high-grade lead-zinc-silver ore has now been blocked out. For many years the smelting operations of the Company were directed to recovering lead and silver from the slags left by the old Chinese miners. Those slags, however, are now practically exhausted, and the mine has reached a stage of development at which a steady output of ore is assured. The total amount of metal extracted in 1926 from 47,275 tons of lead including 1,100 tons of antimonial lead, valued at Rs. 21,07,128 (£1,662,190) in 1925 to 54,330 tons of lead including 1,037 tons of antimonial lead, valued at Rs. 2,27,94,684 (£1,686,167) in 1926.

The production of silver from the Bawdwin mines of Upper Burma, which had increased to 2,287,711 oz. valued at Rs. 1,12,26,868 (£807,688) in 1924, and fallen to 4,831,548 oz. valued at Rs. 93,30,580 (£701,998) in 1925, recovered to 1,03,644 oz. valued at Rs. 88,49,722 (£640,427) in 1926.

Zinc.—A monograph on zinc ores issued by the Imperial Institute in 1917 says that during the past fifty years zinc ores have received but little attention in India, and no production was recorded until 1913. In 1914 the production was 8,558 tons, and although the output fell to 96 tons in 1915, there is a prospect of India becoming an important producer of zinc ore in the future. Important silver-lead-zinc deposits occur at Bawdwin, in Tavangpeng State one of the Northern Shan States in Upper Burma. The mines are connected with the Mandalay-Lashio Branch of the Burma railways by a narrow-gauge line 51 miles long, the line meeting at Manhpwe, which is about 544 miles from Rangoon. They were worked for many centuries by the Chinese for silver, and have long been known to contain zinc ore; until recently, however, no serious attempt appears to have been made to market the ore for its zinc values. In 1907 the present undertaking was started by the Burma Mines, Ltd., with the idea of recovering the lead from the old slag heaps left by the Chinese, estimated at 125,000 to 160,000 tons, and later to work the deposit. Smelting operations on these slags were first carried out at Mandalay, but later the works were transferred to Namtu, about 13 miles below the mines on the narrow-gauge railway. The deposits, which comprise an area of about 2,500 acres, have now been taken over by the

Burma Mines Ltd. and its production of zinc ore in 1926 amounted to 48,834 tons or three times the produced in

1925. The exports during 1926 amounted to 41,056 tons valued at Rs. 42,03,775 (£311,177) against 29,967 tons valued at Rs. 20,79,794 (£156,375) in the preceding year.

Gem Stones.—The only precious and semi-precious stones at present mined in India are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, spinel, tourmaline, garnet, rock-crystal, agate, cornelian, jadeite and amber. Amber has already been referred to; of the rest only the ruby, sapphire and jadeite attain any considerable value in production and the export of the latter has declined owing to the disturbances in China, which is the chief purchaser of Burmese jadeite. The output of diamonds is comparatively unimportant. The output of the ruby mines in 1924 was only 101,097 carats or less than half the average annual quantity produced during the two preceding quinquennial periods. In 1922 an exceptionally valuable ruby of nearly 23 carats was found of rare size and quality, a severe decline in the output from the Mogoke ruby mines of Upper Burma in 1924, followed in 1925 by a marked drop in value, bore witness to a serious decline in the industry. The Burma Ruby Mines, Limited, ultimately decided to go into liquidation and the mines were offered for sale in September, 1924. The skeleton organisation left in charge of the mines has, however, made good use of its opportunities with the result that the value of the output in 1926 (Rs. 4,66,772) exceeded that of the previous year by over a lakh of rupees. This encouraging result was effected by rigorous economy and an extension of a system of co-operation with local miners, and was assisted by some good finds of sapphires in the Kyaungwin mine (the only one still worked by European methods).

Wolfram.—Owing to the continued depression in the wolfram market, Tungsten ore is now nowhere extracted except in the Tavoy district, where it occurs chiefly as a constituent of mixed concentrates. For the reason stated under "Tin" the output of wolfram in 1926 was almost double the amount produced in 1925. The quantity exported from India amounted to 1,562 tons valued at Rs. 21,64,223 (£161,509) in 1926 against 2,516 tons valued at Rs. 18,89,450 (£127,027) in the preceding year. The increase of export over production is probably due to the accumulation of stocks in the years previous to 1925.

Radio-active Minerals.—The General Report of the Director of the Geological Survey of India for 1913 includes a brief report by R. O. Burton on an occurrence of pitchblende at mica mines near Singar, Gaya district, Bengal. The pitchblende occurs as rounded nodules in a pegmatite that is intrusive in mica schists. Other minerals occurring in the pegmatite are mica, triplite, ilmenite, tourmaline, and uranium oxide; whitish columbite, zircon, and torberite have also been recorded. Of these minerals triplite is stated to be the commonest.

The importance of the find of uranium oxide impregnating the triplite led to the discovery of weathered pitchblende, and as the pits were deepened the weathering became less and less and pure pitchblende was obtained. In the first year from July 1913 to February 1914, 18 tons of pitchblende was obtained.

on Abrahki Hill together with six tons of medium earth debris, five to six hundred tons of tripelite and two tons of tantallite. These ores were raised under prospecting license in respect of Abrahki Hill alone and in March 1914, mining lease for thirty years was obtained in respect of sixty square miles of the Singar estate. The first intention was to work only the five square miles round Abrahki and a syndicate was formed for this purpose, which on the outbreak of war, was refused a Trading License on account of the German element in it.

Labour in Mines.

The question of the labour supply presents difficulties which are not encountered in countries where mining is a special calling. The majority of the persons working at the Indian coal mines are agriculturists, and the supply of labour, as experience has recently shown, depends to a material extent on the condition of the agricultural industry. "The major portion of those employed," says a report by the Department of Statistics, "are the aboriginal Dravidians from the mountainous country of Chota Nagpur and the Central Provinces, but a large number of other castes are also employed, particularly in the outlying fields. The majority of the workmen follow the vocation of agriculture as well as mining and return to their homes during the period of sowing and reaping, the result being that at such times the output of many of the mines is greatly

reduced. At the Makum collieries of the Assam Railway and Trading Company, where the labour question continues to be a very difficult one, nearly a third of the total labour force are Mekrahs, Chinese, and Nepalese. The Chinese have, however, proved unsatisfactory, and it is unlikely that they will in future be recruited." With the increase in the depth of working the need for a skilled mining class will become accentuated, and if the price of coal remains at a sufficiently high level, further development in the introduction of coal-cutting plants may take place. During the period of high prices some nine years ago cutting plants were introduced in order to augment the output. These worked successfully, but the cost proved to be high and as labour conditions improved the machines were discarded.

During the year 1926 the daily average number of persons working in and about the mines regulated by the Indian Mines Act was 260,113, as compared with 238,857 in the previous year. This is an increase of 6,256 persons or 2.45 per cent. Of these persons 119,232 worked underground, 71,139 in open workings, and 70,742 on the surface.

The number of persons employed in coal mines was 170,628 which is 2,512 less than the number employed in 1925. Of these persons 41,770 were coal-cutters, 0.373 were male loaders and 35,607 were females—chiefly loaders.

Average number of persons employed daily in the Indian Coalfields during the years 1910 and 1920:—

	Number of persons employed daily.		Output per person employed in tons.	Number of deaths by accident.	Death rate per 1 000 persons employed.
	1925.	1926.			
Assam	4,199	4,323	66.8	15	3.3
Baluchistan	951	232	67.2
Bengal	42,781	43,498	118.1	50	1.9
Bihar and Orissa	114,934	112,945	123.8	96	0.9
Burma	19
Central India	2,759	2,197	86.8
Central Provinces	9,174	8,366	75.9	10	1.2
Hyderabad	12,701	12,134	52.6	13	1.1
Punjab	1,579	1,388	49.0
Rajputana	145	166	188.4
Total	180,262	185,749	..	184	..
AVERAGE	113.1	..	0.99

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by E. H. Pascoe, Director, Geological Survey of India. Note on the Mineral Production of Burma in 1926 Monographs on Mineral Resources by the Indian Institute.

Stock Exchanges.

There are about 446 Share and Stock Broker in Bombay. They carry on business in the Brokers' Hall, bought in 1899 from the funds of the Share and Stock Brokers' Association formed to facilitate the negotiations and the sale and purchase of Joint Stock securities promoted throughout the Presidency of Bombay. Their powers are defined by rules and regulations framed by the Board of Directors and approved by the general body of Brokers. The Board has the power to fix the rates in times of emergencies. The official address of the Secretary is Dalal Street, Fort, Bombay.

At first the admittance fee for a broker was Rs. 5 which was gradually raised to Rs. 7,000. The fee for the Broker's card has increased and it was recently sold by public auction for Rs. 21,800. In 1921 a number of cards were sold at Rs. 40,000 each and the proceeds were employed to purchase an adjoining building for the extension of the business. This building was pulled down and the extension was completed last year. The present value of the card is about Rs. 7,000. The rules of the Association were revised in October 1916 and from the New Year the purchaser of shares has to pay the stamp and transfer fee instead of the seller. There are two classes of Exchange Brokers, Europeans and Indians, the latter being certified for recognition by the native Stock Exchange. Business in Government Paper and all other Trustees' Authorised Securities is carried on under the rules of the Bombay Stock Exchange, but in the street outside the hall.

In November 1917 a second Stock Exchange was opened in Bombay, with its headquarters in Apollo Street, known as the Bombay Stock Exchange, Ltd. This separate Exchange no longer functions older body; it was revived in 1922. It has ceased to function again.

Committee of Enquiry.—In 1923 the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee to enquire into the constitution, government, customs, practices, rules, regulations and methods of business of the Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association of Bombay and to investigate any such complaints of the public and to make any such enquiries with reference to any of the aforesaid matters or any other matter appertaining to the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper and thereafter with a view to protect the investing public against the interested or irregular control of business to formulate such definite proposals for the future constitution, control, direction and regulation of the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper.

The Committee issued a report early in 1924 signed by all the members save one who appended a minority report. The majority report made several important recommendations for reform, notably one aimed at the prevention of corners and another for facilitating the handling of legitimate complaints against the brokers on the part of the public. The Association, however, adopted the minority report which leaves the constitution and practice of the Exchange very little modified.

In the of the year 1920 there was heavy working in mill scrips. The

was tremendously oversold, the usual crisis ensued, leading to the temporary closing of the Exchange and the suspension of all dealings and a public agitation for thorough reform arose. The brokers were at first unwilling to yield to this demand. But a threat of Government intervention and control altered their attitude. In the end, they submitted new draft rules under which wild speculation will be discouraged and the recurrence of such crisis as that indicated above will be unlikely.

For many years the Calcutta Share Market had its meeting place in various gullies in the business quarter and was under no control except that of established market custom. In 1903 the Calcutta Stock Exchange Association was formed, a building was leased in New China Bazar Street now called Royal Exchange Place, a representative committee was formed, and the existing trade customs were focussed into rules drawn up for the conduct of business. Admittance as a member of the Stock Exchange is by vote of the committee, and the entrance fee is at present Rs. 500. The market custom differs very materially from that of most other Stock Exchanges since there are no settlement days, delivery is due the second day after the contract is passed and sales of securities are effected for the most part under blank transfers. Another difference in procedure as compared with the London Stock Exchange is that there are no "Jobbers" in the Calcutta market. The Dealers who take their place, more or less, are not compelled to quote a buyer's and a seller's rate and are themselves Brokers as well as dealers, calling upon the Banks and other clients and competing with Brokers.

There are about 150 members, besides outside brokers, the former consisting of European, Jewish, Marwari, and Bengalee firms. The Marwaris predominate. The volume of bona fide investment business is comparatively small and insufficient for the number of Brokers. The principal business transacted on the Calcutta Stock Exchange is connected with the shares in Jute Mills. Coal Companies, Tea Companies registered in India, Miscellaneous industrial concerns (such as Paper, Flour, Sugar). Railway and Transit Companies and Debentures, the latter comprising those of industrial concerns and Trustees' Investment Securities, namely, Municipal and Port Trust Debentures. The association has an honorary secretary and is not at present affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

The Madras Stock Exchange situated at No. 9 Broadway (in Tata Industrial Bank Buildings) consists of about 100 Members of which 20 are working Members. It was opened on 6th April 1920 and deals principally in Mill shares. Business is regulated by rules drawn up by the Directors. There is a Board of arbitration. There is an admittance membership card of Rs. 1,000 and an annual subscription of Rs. 100. The original 100 members were by the first and each of the working members have d a of Rs. 3,000

Chambers of Commerce.

Modern commerce in India was built up by merchants from the west and was for a long time entirely in their hands. Chambers of Commerce and numerous kindred Associations were formed by them for its protection and assistance. But Indians have in recent years, taken a large and growing part in this commercial life. The extent of their participation varies greatly in different parts of India, according to the natural proclivities and genius of different races. Bombay, for instance, has led the way in the industrial and commercial regeneration of the new India, while Bengal, very active in other fields of activity, lags behind in this one. Arising from these circumstances we find Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras and other important centres, with a membership both European and Indian; but alongside these have sprung up in recent years certain Associations, such as the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, of which the membership is exclusively Indian. These different classes of bodies are in no sense hostile to one another and constantly work in association.

The London Chamber of Commerce in 1921, realizing the increasing attention demanded by the economic development of India, took steps to form an "East India Section" of their organization. The Indian Chambers work harmoniously with this body, but are in no sense affiliated to it, nor is there at present any inclination on their part to enter into such close relationship, because it is generally felt that the Indian Chambers can themselves achieve their objects better and more effectively than a London body could do for them, and on various occasions the London Chamber, or the East India Section of it have shown themselves out of touch with what seemed locally to be immediate requirements in particular matters.

A new movement was started in 1913 by the Hon. Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy Ibrahim a leading millowner and public citizen of Bombay, which aims at effecting great improvement in strengthening Indian commercial organization. Sir Fazulbhoy's original plan was for the formation of an Indian Commercial Congress. The proposal met with approval in all parts of India. The scheme was delayed by the outbreak of war but afterwards received an impetus from the same cause and the first Congress was held in the 1915 Christmas holiday season, in the Town Hall, Bombay. The list of members of the Reception Committee showed that all the important commercial associations of Bombay were prepared to co-operate actively.

The Congress was attended by several hundred delegates from all parts of India. Mr. (now the Hon. Sir) D. E. Wacha, President of the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, presided as Chairman of the Reception Committee, at the opening of the proceedings and the first business was the election of Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy as the first President. The Congress resolved upon the establishment of an Associated Chamber of Commerce and selected a Provincial Committee to

take the necessary steps to get the Association registered and to enrol members and carry on work. The Congress also approved of the draft constitution.

The following are the principal paragraphs of a Memorandum of Association and Statement of Objects of the new Associated Chamber as approved by the Congress.—

I. The name of the Chamber will be "THE ASSOCIATED INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE"

II. The Registered Office of the Chamber will be in Bombay.

III. The objects for which the Chamber is established are:—

- (1) To discuss and consider questions concerning and affecting trade, commerce, manufactures and the shipping interests, at meeting of delegates from Indian Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations or Bodies and to collect and disseminate information from time to time on matters affecting the common interests of such Chambers or Associations or Bodies and the commercial, manufacturing and shipping interests of the country.
- (2) To attain those advantages by united action which each Chamber or Association or body may not be able to accomplish in its separate capacity
- (3) To organize Chambers of Commerce, Commercial Associations or Bodies in different trade centres of the Country
- (4) To convene when necessary the Indian Commercial Congress at such places and at such times as may be determined by a Resolution of the Chamber

The Articles of Association provided "There shall be an annual meeting of the Associated Indian Chamber held at Bombay on a date to be fixed by the Executive Council in the month of February," or at some other time, and "semi-annual or special meetings . . . may be convened by the Executive Council or on the requisition of one-third of the total number of members addressed to the Secretary . . ."

The organization languished for lack of support for some years until a number of merchants specially interested in Currency and Exchange questions revived it in 1926 at Delhi and 1927 at Calcutta, the initiative in the new activities hailing like the first movement, from Bombay. The Commercial Congress held in Calcutta on 31st December 1926 and 1st and 2nd January 1927, decided upon the formation of a "Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce" and agreed to the registered office of this body being "at the place where the President for the year has his headquarters or where he directs it to be located." Among the objects for which the Federation is established are the following:—

- (a) To promote Indian business in matters of inland and foreign trade industry and manufactures and all other economic subjects.

- (b) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community and associations on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian business.
- (c) To enter into any arrangement with any Government or authority supreme, municipal, local or otherwise that may seem conducive to the Federation's objects or any of them, and to obtain from any such Government or authority all rights, concessions, and privileges which the Federation may think it desirable to obtain and to carry out, exercise and comply with any such arrangements, rights, privileges and concessions.
- (d) To sell or dispose of the undertaking of the Federation or any part thereof for such consideration as the Federation may think fit and in particular for shares, debentures or securities of any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation.
- (e) To take or otherwise acquire and hold shares in any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation.

- (f) To undertake and execute any trusts the undertaking of which may seem to the Federation desirable either gratuitously or otherwise.
- (g) To draw, make, accept, discount execute and issue bills of exchange, promissory notes, bills of lading warrants, debentures and other negotiable or transactable instruments or securities.

The Rules provide for two classes of members *viz.*, numbers consisting of Chambers of Commerce (Subscription Rs. 300) and others consisting of Commercial Associations (Subscription Rs. 150).

The following were elected a provisional Committee of the Federation.—

President—Sir Dinshaw M. Petit.

Members :—Messrs. G. D. Birla, Sir Purnendu Thakurdas, Vidyasagar Pandya, Jamal Mahomed, Lala Harkishen Lal, Adami Hajji Dawood, Jamshed N R Mehta, Vikramjit Singh, Shri Ram, W. C. Bannerjee, D. F. Macon Kasturbhai Lalbhai, D. P. Khaitan and Rai Bahadur A. C. Bannerjee, the last two being appointed Treasurers.

The following are details of the principal Chambers of Commerce and kindred bodies in India at the present time.—

BENGAL.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1834. Its headquarters are in Calcutta. Other societies connected with the trade and commerce of the city are the Royal Exchange, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Calcutta Trades Association, the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce and the Marwari Chamber of Commerce. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 800. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade "in particular in Calcutta." There are two classes of members. Permanent (Chamber and Associated) and Honorary.

Merchants, bankers, shipowners, representatives of commercial, railway and insurance companies, brokers, persons and firms engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and joint stock companies or other corporations, formed for any purpose or object connected with commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature, may be members of the Chamber. Shareholders and bearers of the Chamber.

President.—Mr. B. E. G. Eddis, (Messrs. Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co.)

Vice-President.—Mr. J. A. Tassie, (Messrs. James Finlay & Co., Ltd.)

Committee.—Mr. H. P. Bateman, (Messrs. Shaw Wallace & Co.); The Hon'ble Sir John Bell, (Messrs. Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.); Mr. R. W. Backley, (Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China); Mr. H. C. Edmondson, (Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co., Ltd.); Mr. D. P. McKenna, (Messrs. Duncan Bros. & Co. Ltd.); Mr. N. Pierce, (R. B. Ry.); Mr. R. A. Fowler, (Messrs. I. Lead & Co.)

The Secretary of the Chamber is Mr. D. K. Gunnison. Assistant Secretary Mr. A. C. Daniel.

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of returning representatives, and the representatives returned for the current year are :—

Council of State.—The Hon'ble Sir John Bell

Bengal Legislative Council.—Mr. A. McD Eddis, (Messrs. Gladstone, Wylie & Co. Ltd.); Mr. J. F. Barton, (Messrs. Hoare Miller & Co., Ltd.); Mr. Geo. Morgan (Messrs. Morgan, Walker & Co.); Mr. J. Y. Phillip, (Messrs. Macneill & Co.); Mr. S. A. Skinner, (Messrs. Jessop & Co. Ltd.) and Mr. W. H. Thompson, (Bengal Telephone Corp. Ltd.).

Calcutta Port Commission.—The Hon. Mr. J. W. A. Bell, (Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.); Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Messrs. Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.); Mr. B. E. G. Eddis, (Messrs. Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co.); Mr. J. A. Tassie (Messrs. Jas. Finlay & Co., Ltd.); Mr. R. B. Wilson C.L.E., M.L.C.; (Messrs. Birkmyre Brothers) and Mr. H. B. Whitby (Messrs. Kilburn & Co.).

Calcutta Municipal Corporation.—Mr. W. R. C. Brierley (Messrs. Shaw Wallace & Co.); Mr. J. Campbell Forrester, M.L.C. (Smith Forrester & Co.); Mr. Geo. Morgan, M.L.C. (Morgan, Walker & Co.); Mr. H. H. Thompson, M.L.C. (The Bengal Telephone Corp. Ltd.); Mr. D. C. Stewart-Smith Octavia Steel & Corp. Ltd.)

Bengal Boiler Commission.—Messrs. R. Neish (Tittaghur Jute Factory No. 2; H. H. Reynolds (Andrew Yule & Co.) and S. A. Skinner (Jessop & Co., Ltd.).

Board of Trustees of the Indian Museum.—Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.).

Bengal Smoke Nuisance Commission.—Messrs. A. V. Nicolle (Bryan & Co., Ltd.) and G. Robertson (Union Jute Coy.'s S. Mill).

Calcutta Improvement Trust.—Mr. Geo. Morgan, M.L.C. (Morgan, Walser & Co.).

The Chamber elects representatives to various other bodies of less importance, such as the committee of the Calcutta Sailors' Home, and to numerous subsidiary associations. The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce:—

Calcutta Wheat and Seed Trade Association, Indian Jute Mills Association, Indian Tea Association, Calcutta Tea Traders' Association, Calcutta Fire Insurance Association, Calcutta Import Trade Association, Calcutta Marine Insurance Agents' Association, The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India, Indian Mining Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Association, Indian Paper Makers' Association, Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta Jute Fabrics Shippers' Association, Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association, Jute Fabric Brokers' Association, Baled Jute Shippers' Association, Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association, Calcutta Liners' Conference, Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers' Association, Calcutta Bazar Importers' Association, Indian Indigo Association, Indian Lac Association for Research and Calcutta Accident Insurance Association.

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade, business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties, all or any of whom reside or carry on business personal or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta, or else where in India or Burmah, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may, from time to time, annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants.

The Chamber also maintains a Licensor Measures Department controlled by a special committee. It includes a Superintendent (Mr. P. Ellis), Deputy Superintendent (Mr. A. H. Lupton), Head Office Manager (Mr. C. G. Smith) and four Assistant Superintendents (Messrs. J. G. Smyth, A. H. Mathews, G. C. G. Smyth and E. H. W. Wootton and the staff at the time of the last official returns consisted of 112 officers. The usual system of work for the benefit of the trade or the port is followed. The Department has its own provident fund and compassionate fund and a 'Measures' Club. The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical returns. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current* and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion.

INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, CALCUTTA.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce was established in November 1925, to promote and protect the trade, commerce and industries of India, and in particular the trade, commerce and industries in or with which Indians are engaged or concerned; to aid and stimulate the development of trade, commerce and industries in India with a view to the welfare of the people; to watch over and protect the general commercial interests of India or any part thereof, and the interests of persons, in particular the Indians, engaged in trade, commerce or industries in India; to adjust controversies between members of this Chamber; to arbitrate in the settlement of disputes arising out of commercial transactions between parties willing or agreeing to abide by the judgment and decision of the Tribunal of the Chamber; to promote and advance commercial and technical education, and such study of different branches of Art and Science as may tend to develop trade, commerce and industries in India; to provide, regulate and maintain a suitable building or room or suitable buildings or rooms for a Commercial Exchange in Calcutta, and to do all such other things as may be considered to be for the development of trade, commerce and industries in India or any part thereof, and the interests of persons, in particular the Indians, engaged in trade, commerce or industries in India.

There are two classes of Members—Local and Mofussil. The Local Members pay an annual subscription of Rs. 100 and the Mofussil members Rs. 50. Merchants, Bankers, Ship owners, representatives of commercial, transport or insurance companies, brokers and persons engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature who are Indians, shall be eligible for election as members of the Chamber.

The following constitute the Managing Committee of the Chamber for the year 1927—President: Mr. G. D. Bala, Senior Vice-President: Mr. Ananji Haridas, Vice-President: Rai A. C. Banerjee Bahadur. Members: Mr. D. S. Bhattacharya, Mr. N. Rajabally, Mr. K. J. Purohit, Mr. E. P. Guddar, Mr. Rameshwar Lal Nopany, Mr. N. C. Sircar, Mr. D. D. Thacker, Mr. D. P. Khaitan, Mr. Habib Mohammed, Mr. N. L. Puri, Mr. F. Ganguli, Mr. Mukundlal Mr. A. D. Aditya, Mr. A. L. Ojha, Mr. C. S. Ranga Swami, Mr. M. P. Gandhi, M.A., F.R.S., F.S.S., Secretary.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce has a central office at 1, Market Street, Calcutta, and branches at various other places in India.

nature of disputes arising in different trades, separate panels of Arbitrators are appointed on the Tribunal of Arbitration for each of the following trades—(1) Jute, (2) Gunny, (3) Pigeons and Yarn, (4) Iron and Steel, (5) Coal and Minerals, (6) General.

Chamber's Representative on the Calcutta

Port Commissioners: Mr. D. S. Bhattacharya, I.C.S. (Control) Bar-at-Law.

Chamber's Representative on the Bengal Nagpur Railway Advisory Committee:—Mr. Anandji Bhattacharya.

Secretary:—Mr. M. P. Gandhi, M.A., F.R.S.

BOMBAY.

The object and duties of the Bombay Chamber, as set forth in their Memorandum and Articles of Association, are to encourage a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good; to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this Presidency; to collect and classify information on all matters of general commercial interest; to obtain the removal, as far as such a Society can, of all acknowledged grievances affecting merchants as a body, or mercantile interests in general; to receive and decide references on matters of usage and custom in dispute, recording such decisions for future guidance, and by this and such other means, as the Committee for the time being may think fit, assisting to form a code of practice for simplifying and facilitating business; to communicate with the public authorities, with similar Associations in other places and with individuals, on all subjects of general mercantile interests; and to arbitrate between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of the Chamber.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1836, under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of the Presidency, and the programme described above was embodied in their first set of rules. According to the latest returns, the number of Chamber members is 104 and the number of Associated members is 4. Of these numbers 19 represent banking institutions, 7 shipping agencies and companies, 8 firms of solicitors, 3 railway companies, 11 insurance companies, 16 engineers and contractors, 98 firms engaged in general mercantile business.

All persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits desirous of joining the Chamber and disposed to aid in carrying its objects into effect are eligible for election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's subscription is Rs 500 and the Associate member's subscription is Rs 200 per annum. Gentlemen distinguished for public services, or "eminent in commerce and manufactures," may be elected honorary members and as such are exempt from paying subscriptions. Any stranger engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits and visiting the Presidency may be introduced as a visitor by any Member of the Chamber inserting his name in a book to be kept for the purpose, but a residence of two months shall subject him to the rule for the admission of members.

Officers of the Year.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a committee of nine

members, of the President and four

committees must as a rule, meet at least once a week and the minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by all members of the Chamber subject to such regulations as the committee may make in regard to the matter. A general meeting of the Chamber must be held once a year and ten or more members may requisition, through the officers of the Chamber, a special meeting at any time for a special purpose.

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public bodies:—

The Council of State, one representative
Legislative Council of the Governor of Bombay, two representatives.

Bombay Municipal Corporation, one member, elected for three years.

Bombay Improvements Committee, one member, elected for two years.

Board of Trustees of the Port of Bombay, five members, elected for two years.

The following are the officers of the Chamber for the year 1927-28 and their representatives on the various public bodies:—

President.—Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt., M.L.C.

Vice President.—G. L. Winterbotham, Esq. M.L.C.

Committee.—P. Barker, Esq., M. A. Hughes, Esq., G. Z. Heller, Esq., A. R. Morrison, Esq., E. C. Reid, Esq., F. C. Russell, Esq., L. F. Tucker, Esq.

Secretary: Mr. E. J. F. Sullivan.

Representatives on—

Council of State: The Hon'ble Sir Arthur Froom, Kt.

Bombay Legislative Council: Sir Leslie Hudson and G. L. Winterbotham, Esq.

Bombay Port Trust: Sir Leslie Hudson Kt. P. Barker, Esq., E. Miller, Esq., G. L. Winterbotham, Esq., F. C. Annesley, Esq.

Bombay Improvement Trust: Sir Reginald Spence.

Bombay Municipal Corporation: H. J. Davis Esq.

Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Board: Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt., L. F. Tucker Esq.

Representative on the Railway Committee: C. I. P.—F. C. Annesley, Esq., D. B. & C. I.—F. C. Annesley, Esq.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: B. Brown, Esq.

Sir Lord Wilson Hospital Fund: C. M. Mohorley Esq. & M.

S. George's Hospital Advisory

Indian Central Cotton Committee: L. G. Goudall, Esq.

Empire Cotton-Gracing Corporation: V. A. Grantam, Esq.

Advisory Committee to the Director of Development: Major W. C. Richardson, D.S.O., M.C.

Auxiliary Force Advisory Committee: N. M. Norris, Esq.

Fr-Servicos Association: Sir Leslie Hudson.

Bombay Telephone Co.: G. L. Winterbotham, Esq.

Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire: Sir Malcolm Hogg Kt.

Patent, Rates Advisory Committee: G. C. R. Culveridge, Esq., D. Miller, Esq., C. A. Hulsall, Esq., G. Sughury, Esq., J. F. Macdonald, Esq.

Department of Industries: G. L. Winterbotham, Esq.

Lonbay Roua Board: E. Miller, Esq.

Special Work.

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the Law Courts.

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is its Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The department consists of fourteen Indian clerks who, by the authority of Government work in the Customs House and have every facility placed at their disposal by the Customs authorities. They compile all the statistical information in connection with the trade of the port, in both export and import divisions, which it is desirable to record. No other Chamber in India does similar work to the same extent.

The Bombay Chamber publishes a Daily Arrivals Return which shows the receipts into Bombay of cotton, wheat and seeds, and a Daily Trade Return, which deals with trade by sea and shows in great detail imports of various kinds of merchandise and of treasure while the same return contains particulars of the movements of merchant vessels.

The Chamber publishes twice a week detailed reports known as Import and Export manifests, which give particulars of the cargo carried by each steamer to and from Bombay.

Three statements are issued once a month. One shows the quantity of exports of cotton, seeds and wheat from the principal ports of the whole of India. The second gives in detail imports from Europe, more particularly in regard to grey cloths, bleached cloths, Turkey red and scarlet cloths, printed and dyed goods, fancy cloth of various descriptions, woollens, yarns, metals, kerosene oil, coal, and the dyes, sugar, wine and other sundry goods.

The third statement is headed, "Movements of Piece-Goods and Yarn by Rail," and shows the despatches of imported and local manufactured piece-goods and yarn from Bombay to other centres of trade served by the railways.

The "Weekly Return" issued by the Chamber shows clearances of a large number of important designations of merchandise. A return of "Current Quotations" is issued once a week, on the day of the departure of the English mail, and shows the rates of exchange for Bank and Mercantile Bills on England and Paris, and a large quantity of general banking and trade information.

The annual reports of the Chamber are substantial tomes in which the whole of the affairs of the Chamber and the trade of the port during the past year are reviewed.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department with a staff of 18, whose business is that of actual measurement of exports in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by these officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods in bales or packages. The measurers are in attendance on the quays whenever there are goods to be measured and during the busy season are on duty early and late. The certificates granted show the following details:—

- The date, hour and place of measurement
- the name of the shipper;
- the name of the vessel;
- the port of destination
- the number and description of packages
- the marks;
- the measurement, and in the case of goods shipped by boats;
- the registered number of the boat;
- the name of the tidal.

Certificates of weight and of origin are also issued by the Chamber.

Bombay Millowners' Association.

The Bombay Millowners' Association was established in 1873 and its objects are as follows:—

- To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity amongst Millowners and users of steam water and/or electric power on all subjects connected with their common good.
- To secure good relations between members of the Association.
- To promote and protect the trade, commerce and manufactures of India in general and of the cotton trade in particular.
- To consider questions connected with the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members.
- To collect and circulate statistics and to collect, classify and circulate information relating to the trade and manufactures of its members.

any individual partnership or company, having one or more mill or mills or one or more press or presses or one or more ginning their factory or factories actuated by steam, or electric and/or other power is eligible for membership, members being elected by ballot. Every member is entitled to one vote and every complete sum of Rs. 50 paid by him entitles him to an annual subscription.

The membership of the Association in 1927 numbered 96.

The following is the Committee for 1927:—

H. P. Mody, Esq. (Chairman), F. Stones, Esq., O. B. E. (Deputy Chairman), Sir D. M. Petit, Bart., The Hon'ble Sir D. E. Wacha, Kt., Sir Fazulbhai Gurnumbhai, Kt., C. B. E., Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., Sir Ness Wadia, Kt., B. E. C. I. E., A. Geddis, Esq., Sir Joseph Kay, Kt., M. L. C., Lalji Narainji, Esq., M. L. C., J. B. Petit, Esq., The Hon'ble Mr. Ratanji D. Morarji, The Hon'ble Sir Munnobandas Ramji, Kt., N. B. Saklatvala, Esq., C. I. E., S. D. Saklatvala, Esq., H. H. Sawyer, Esq., F. F. Stilleman, Esq., Yadhavji D. Thackersey, Esq., C. N. Wadia, Esq., C. I. E., T. Watts, Esq., J. Maloney, Esq., M. C. O., A. M. C. T., Secretary, J. P. Wadia, Esq., B. A., Asst. Secretary.

The following are the Association's Representatives on public bodies:—

Bombay Legislative Council: Mr. J. D. Mody, M. L. C.

Legislative Assembly: Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., M. L. C.

Bombay Port Trust: Mr. A. Geddis.

City of Bombay Improvement Trust: Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute: Mr. Jehangir B. Petit and Hon. Sir Munnobandas Ramji, Kt.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: Messrs. H. H. Lukin and W. A. Sutherland.

Advisory Board of Sirphenus College of Commerce and Economics: Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Central Cotton Committee: Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Development of Bombay Advisory Committee: Mr. Jehangir B. Petit.

G. I. F. Railway Advisory Committee: Mr. A. Geddis.

B. B. & C. I. Railway Advisory Committee: Hon. Sir Munnobandas Ramji, Kt.

Bombay Municipal Corporation: Mr. H. P. Mody.

The Office of the Association is located in Hab House, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay, and the telephone number is 25350.

Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd.

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., was registered on 30th June 1924, as a Company limited by guarantee. The registered office of the Association is located in Hab House, Hornby Road, Bombay.

The objects of the Association are —

- (a) The mutual insurance of members of the Company against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependents, for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of and in the course of their employment; (b) the insurance of members of the Company against loss or damage by, or incidental to fire, lightning, etc.; and (c) to reinsure or in any way provide for or against the liability of the Company upon any assurances granted or entered into by the Company, and generally to effect and obtain re-insurances, counter-insurances and counter-guarantees, etc., etc., etc.

The Association consisted of 50 members on 1st October, 1927.

All members of the Millowners' Association are eligible for admission to the Mutual Company, Non-members are also eligible for membership of the Mutual, provided their application is approved of by the Committee of the Millowners' Association.

The affairs of the Mutual Insurance Association are under the control of a Board of Directors.

The present Directors are:—

A. Geddis, Esq. (Chairman), Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., M. L. A., Sir Ness Wadia, Kt., C. I. E., Sir Joseph Kay, Kt., The Hon'ble Sir Munnobandas Ramji, Kt., The Hon'ble Mr. Ratanji D. Morarji, C. N. Wadia, Esq., C. I. E., S. D. Saklatvala, Esq., & G. I. Rose, Esq., and B. K. Mantri, Esq., B. A., Bar-at-Law, Secretary of the Association.

Indian Merchants' Chamber.

The Indian Merchants' Chamber was established in the year 1907. Its objects are:—

- (a) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian merchants.
- (b) To secure organised action on all subjects relating to the interests of the Indian business community directly and indirectly.
- (c) To promote the objects of the Indian business community in matters of inland and foreign trade, shipping and transport, industry and manufacture, banking and insurance.
- (d) To collect and disseminate statistical and other information securing the promotion of the objects of the Chamber and to make efforts for the spread of commercial and economic knowledge.
- (e) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or other action affecting the aforesaid interests by the Government or any Department thereof or by any local body or bodies and in general to take the initiative to secure the welfare of the business community.

- (f) To make representations to Local, Central or Imperial authorities, Executive or Legislative on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping, banking or insurance.
- (g) To undertake by arbitration the settlement of commercial disputes between merchants and businessmen and also to provide for arbitration in respect of disputes arising in the course of trade, industry or transport, and to secure the services of expert technical and other men to that end if necessary or desirable.
- (h) To advance and promote commercial and technical education and to found and support establishments and institutions for such purposes.
- (i) To undertake special enquiries and action for securing redress for legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry as also all such other actions as may be conducive to the extension of trade, commerce or manufactures, or incidental to the attainment of the above objects.
- (j) To secure the interests and well-being of the Indian business communities abroad.
- (k) And generally to do all that may be necessary in the interests of the realisation of the above objects of the Chamber directly or indirectly.

There are three classes of members:—

(1) Ordinary, (2) Patrons and (3) Honorary

(1) There are three classes of ordinary members:—

(a)—Residents of Bombay and its suburbs who will have to pay Rs. 75 as annual subscription; but joint stock Companies will have to pay Rs. 100 per year.

(b)—Mofussil members who will have to pay Rs. 25 as annual subscription.

(c)—Associations which will have to pay Rs. 125 as annual subscription.

Admission Fee.—All the ordinary members and patrons pay Rs. 100 as admission fee which is credited to a capital fund of the Chamber and not expended on revenue account except with the consent of the general body

(2) **Patrons.**—Indian firms or individual Indian merchants can join as Patrons. Firms will have to pay Rs. 5,000 and individuals Rs. 2,500 as donation, the proceeds of which will be credited to a capital fund which shall not be expended on revenue account but the interest whereof shall be taken to revenue account.

(3) **Honorary members.**—Gentlemen distinguished for public services or eminent in commerce and manufactures or otherwise interested in the aims and objects of the Chamber may be elected as _____ by a _____ of the Chamber on

the recommendation of the Committee and as such shall be exempted from paying subscriptions. They shall not be entitled to vote at any meeting of the Chamber nor shall they be eligible to serve on the Committee.

Any Indian gentleman, firm or association engaged in mercantile pursuits or interested in trade and commerce desirous of joining the Chamber shall be eligible for membership.

The following bodies are connected directly and indirectly with the Chamber:—

The Grain Merchants' Association (which is a member).

The Hindustani Native Merchants' Association (which is a member).

The Bombay Rice Merchants' Association
The Bombay Yarn, Copper and Brass Native Merchants' Association.

The Bombay Shroff Association.

The Bombay Diamond Merchants' Association.

The Bombay Pearl Merchants' and Jewellers Association.

The Bombay Bullion Exchange, Ltd.

The Bombay Paper and Stationery Merchants' Association.

The Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants' Association, Bombay.

The Sugar Merchants' Association.

Under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms the Chamber has the right of electing one representative on the Indian Legislative Assembly and one on the Bombay Legislative Council. The Chamber also has the right to elect five representatives on the Bombay Port Trust, one representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation, and one representative on the Improvement Committee.

The following are the Office-bearers of the Indian Merchants' Chamber for the year 1927 —

Walchand Hirachand, Esq. J.P., (President)

Sir Shapoorjee D. Mulla, (Vice-President)

Sir Purshottandas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E.
M.B.E., M.L.A.

Lalji Naranji, Esq., M.L.C.

Laxmidas Rowjee Tairsee, Esq.

Hon'ble Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, Kt., C.B.E.

Vithaldas Damodar Govindji, Esq.

B. P. Madon, Esq.

Jehangir Bomanji Petit, Esq.

Devidas Madhowji Thackersey, Esq.

Fazal Ibrahim Rahimulla, Esq., M.L.A.

Ishwardas Lakhmidas, Esq.

Huseinbhojy Abdullahbhojy Lajee, Esq., M.B.E.

Sir Currambhojy Ebrahim. Bart.

Manlalal Vrajdas Merchant, Esq.

Morari Mulraj Khatau, Esq.

Hon'ble Mr. Ratansi Dharanji Morari.

Sir Ibrahim Rahimulla, Kt.

Kaparam " Fakil Esq.

H. P. Mody Esq.

Mavji Govindji Sheth, Esq.

Gajashanker P. Trivedi Esq.

Abdulla Fazulbhoy, Esq.

N. M. Muzumdar, Esq.

Vithaldas Kanji, Esq.

(Co-opted Members)

Hon'ble Sir Manmohandas Ramji, Kt

K. L. Gobad Cowasji Dinshaw, Esq.

Manu Subedar, Esq.

The Bombay Sheriff Association, (H. D. Jasani, Esq.)

The Hindustani Native Merchants' Assocn. (Mr. Harkishandas Mehta)

The Bombay Bullion Exchange (Mr. S. D. Larkhi)

The Bombay Grain Merchants' Association (Mr. Chetubhai Hansraj).

(Ex-officio Members.)

Kisandas Manmohandas Ramji, Esq., J. P.

Manmohandas Kanji Mattani, Esq.

Manu-ul-Hal Atmarani Master, Esq., M.A.

The following are the Chamber's representatives on various public bodies:—

Indian Legislative Assembly: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, M.L.B., M.P.L., M.L.A.

Bombay Legislative Council: Mr. Lalji Narani, M.L.C.

Chamber's Representatives on the Board of Trustees of the Bombay Port Trust: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E., Hon'ble Sir Manmohandas Ramji, Mr. Mathuradas Camli Mattani, Mr. Luxmidas R. Lalsey, Mr. Lalji Narani, M.L.C.

Chamber's Representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation: Mr. Kisandas Manmohandas Ramji.

Representative on the Advisory Committee to the Bombay Development Department: Mr. Manu Subedar.

Representative on the Indian Central Cotton Committee: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt.

Representative on the Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science in Bombay: K. H. Vakil.

Secretary: Mr. J. K. Mehta, M.A.

Assistant Secretary: A. H. Maru, B.Sc. (Econ.) (Nat.)

The Chamber's Anglo-Gujarati Quarterly is published in July, October, January and April.

Bombay Native Piece-Goods Merchants' Association.

The objects of the Association are as follows:—

(a) To promote by creating friendly feelings and unity amongst the Merchants, the business of the piece-goods trade in general at Bombay and to protect the interest thereof; (b) to remove as far as it will be within the powers of the Association to do so, all the trade difficulties of the piece-goods business and to frame such line of conduct as will facilitate the trade; (c) to collect and assort statistics relating to piece-goods and to correspond with public bodies on matters affecting trade, and which may be deemed advisable for the protection and advancement of objects of the Association or any of them; and (d) to hear and decide disputes that may be referred to for arbitration.

The following are the office-bearers for the current year:—

Chairman—Hon'ble Sir Manmohandas Ramji Kt J.P.

Deputy Chairman.—Mr. Davidus Madha J. Thackersey, J.P.

Hon. Joint Secretaries.—Messrs. Goenila Jivraj Dayal and Rao Sahib Hurji N. Walji, J.P.

Hon. Treasurer.—Mr. Jethubhai Kallianji

Grain Merchants' Association.

The object of this body is "to promote the interests of the merchants and to put the grain and oil-seeds trade on a sound footing. It is an influential body of large membership. The office holders for the current year are as follows:—

Chairman.—Mr. Vaji Lakhamsi, B.A., LL.B.

Vice-Chairman.—Mr. Purshotam Hirji.

Hon. Secretary.—Mr. Nathoo Cooverji.

Secretary.—Mr. Uttamram Ambaram, B.A., LL.B.

The address of the Association is 282, Masjid Bunder Road, Mandevi Post, Bombay.

MAHARASHTRA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce was started in September 1927 with the object of establishing friendly relations among merchants and factory-owners of Maharashtra, safeguarding their interests against measures likely to affect them adversely, collecting financial, industrial and trade statistics, and disseminating information thereabout amongst members of the Chamber.

The office of the Chamber is confined to the city and factory areas adjoining the city of Bombay. Bombay Suburban and

Poona, Sholapur, Satara, Raichuri, Kolaba, Nasik, Ahmednagar, Thana and East and West Khandesh and Indian States adjoining these districts.

President: Sheth Walchand Hirachand, J.P.

Vice-Presidents: R. B. Hanumantram Bomanji and M. L. Dahanukar. Hon. Secretary: R. C. Chaturvedi.

The office of the Chamber is in the "Bombay" building, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100.

Madras Port Trust. Mr. G. W. Chambers.

M R J M F HEN
and Sir James Simpson.
Incorporation of Malabar. Mr. W. McMonies
Mr. A. J. Powell, and Mr. C. H. Straker
Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the
British Empire. Sir Gordon Fraser, Lt
Governor. Mr. H. Waddington.

The right of electing two representatives to the Madras Port Trust was accorded to the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1915. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Council and the Chamber has also been accorded the right of electing a representative to that body.

Assistant Secretary.—P. R. Nair, B.A
Com.

Office: C & M Gazette Buildings, The Mall,
Lahore.

The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in the United Provinces and has its registered office at Cawnpore. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership but subscriptions are payable as follows: A firm company or association

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees of from four to seven members each at trade centres where barabhis are

sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

The Chamber appoints arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes when invited, to do so, members of the Tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has in the present year 79 members, three honorary members and six affiliated members.

The following are the officers:—

Upper India Chamber of Commerce Committee.—*President*—Mr. A. L. Carnegie (The British India Corporation, Limited); *Vice President*—Mr. J. M. Lowther (Messrs. Begg &

Sutherland & Co., Ltd.), *Members*—Mr. W. R. Watt, M.A. (The British India Corporation Limited); Mr. R. Menzes, O.P.D. (The British India Corporation, Limited); Mr. G. M. Hunter (Thomas, Muir Milk Company, Limited); Mr. B. L. Gray, (Messrs. Begg, Sutherland & Co., Ltd.); Mr. E. H. N. Lowther (East Indian Railway); Mr. A. B. Smith (Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China); Mr. T. Gavin Jones, M.L.A. (Messrs. D. Waddie & Company Limited); Mr. J. B. Gray (The National Bank of India, Ltd.); *Representative on the United Provinces Legislative Council*—Mr. E. M. Souter, M.L.C. (Messrs. Ford & Macdonald, Ltd.); Mr. J. P. Srivastava, M.Sc., M.L.C. (Cawnpore).

Secretary—Mr. J. G. Ryan.

Head Clerk—Mr. B. N. Ghosal.

PUNJAB.

The Punjab Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters at Delhi and exists for the care of mercantile interests on the usual line—in the Punjab, the North West Frontier Province and Kashmir. The Chamber has Branches at Amritsar and Lahore. Membership is by ballot and is restricted to Banks, Merchants (wholesale), Railways and proprietors of large industrial interests. The entrance fee is Rs. 100 and the rate of subscription Rs. 180 per year. The Chamber returns one member to a seat on the Reformed Punjab Legislative Council jointly with the Punjab Trades Association, and shares representation in the Indian Legislative Assembly with other Chambers which are members of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, in the seat allotted to the Associated Chambers. The Chamber is a member of the British Imperial Council of Commerce, London, and is represented in England by Sir James Walker, K.C.I.E. The Chamber is also represented on the Municipal Corporation of Amritsar and Delhi as well as on the East Indian Railway Advisory Committee, Cawnpore, the Cotton Excise Duties Advisory Committee, Bombay; and the Auxiliary Forces Committees, Delhi & Lahore Military Areas.

The Managing Committee meets alternately at Delhi and Lahore and the following are office bearers:—

Chairman: Mr. P. Mukerjee.

Deputy Chairman: Mr. J. Richardson.

Members—Mr. E. J. Sheriff (Messrs. R. J. Wood & Co., Delhi); Mr. R. E. Grant-Govan (Messrs. Govan Brothers, Ltd., Delhi); Mr. W. Cole (Messrs. New Egerton Woollen Mills Co. Ltd., Dhariwal); Mr. Shri Ram (Delhi Cloth & General Mills Co., Ltd., Delhi); Mr. S. Sobha Singh (Khalsa Spinning & Weaving Mills, Delhi); Mr. K. C. Roy, O. I. D., M. L. A. (The Eastern News Agency, Ltd., Delhi); Mr. J. E. Chase (North Western Railway, Lahore); Mr. J. O. F. Davidson (Messrs. Bird & Co., Lahore); Mr. S. Mohan Singh Raw, Rawalpindi; Mr. Lachmi Narain (Messrs. L. D. Lachmi Narain, Amritsar); Mr. Moti Ram Mehra, (Messrs. Moti Ram Mehra & Co., Amritsar); Mr. A. C. Mullen (The Amritsar Distillery Co., Ltd., Amritsar); Mr. J. Stevens (The East India Carpet Co., Ltd., Amritsar); The Hon'ble R. B. Lal (The Mela Bani Cotton Mills, Lahore); Ramsaran Dass, C. I. B.

Secretaries.—Messrs. A. F. Ferguson & Co. Chartered Accountants, Delhi.

UNITED PROVINCES.

The number of members on register is 108 (72 Local and 36 Moinssi). All the important commercial and industrial interest of the Provinces of Agra and Oudh are represented.—

President.—Mr. W. C. De'Noronha, Proprietor of Messrs. M. X. De'Noronha & Son, Cawnpore.

Vice-Presidents.—Babu Sri Ram Khanna, (Managing Director of Messrs. Ramchand Gurshai Mal Cotton Mills Co., Ltd., Lucknow); Lala Ram Kumar Newatia of Messrs. Ram Kumar Rameshwar Das, Cawnpore.

Secretary Rati Bahadur Babu Vikram Singh Adocate M. L. C. Directo

British India Corporation, Ltd., Cawnpore.

Joint-Secretary.—Babu Gur Prasad Kapoor of Messrs. Bansi Rati Mata Din, Cawnpore.

Members of the Committee.—Babu Dwarka Prasad Singh; Babu Behari Lal; Lala Rameshwar Prasad Bagla; Mr. Hira Lal Khanna; Babu Kalika Prasad; Rati Sahai Babu Gopi Nath, Lala Salig Ram Lal, Basdeo Dalania; Lala Jawahar Lal Jazni; Mr. Krishna Lal Gupta; Lala Ram Narain Garg; Lala Mahadeo Prasad; Mr. Chama Lal M. hta; Mr. D. V. Ram Ratan Lala Mata Din.

BURMA.

The Burma Chamber of Commerce, with headquarters at Rangoon, exists to encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect trade, commerce and manufactures and, in particular, the general mercantile interests of the province, to communicate with public authorities, associations and individuals on all matters, directly or indirectly affecting these interests, and to provide for arbitration between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of arbitrators appointed by the Chamber. The following are affiliated bodies:—

Burma Fire Insurance Association.

Burma Marine Insurance Agents' Association

Rangoon Import Association.

Burma Motor Insurance Agents' Association.

The Chamber elects representatives to the following Public Bodies:—

Council of State.

Burma Legislative Council.

Rangoon Port Trust Board.

Rangoon Corporation.

Victoria Memorial Park Trustees.

Pasteur Institute Committee.

Burma University Council.

Rangoon Development Trust.

Police Advisory Board.

Rangoon European Stipend Board.

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board, Rangoon.

Advisory Committee Constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920.

Rangoon General Hospital Advisory Committee.

Local Railway Advisory Council.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee.

Bigandact Home for Incurables.

All British corporations, companies, firms or persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits, such as merchants, bankers, ship-owners and brokers or who are connected with agriculture, mining, manufactures, insurance, railways, commerce, art, science or literature shall be eligible to become Chamber Members. Every non-British concern or person, similarly engaged or interested as indicated above, other than a subject of a State with which the British Empire was at War on September 19th, 1918, shall be eligible for election as an Associate Mem-

ber. The annual subscription of each Chamber Member shall be Rs. 480 per annum and of each Associate Member Rs. 360 per annum. An entrance fee of Rs. 150 is payable by each new Member. Officials and others indirectly connected with the trade of the province or who may have rendered distinguished service to the interests represented by the Chamber may be elected by the Committee either on their own motion or on the suggestion of two Members as Honorary Members of the Chamber. Honorary Members are not required to subscribe to the funds of the Chamber.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations in addition to its ordinary work. It does not publish any statistical returns.

Secretary.—Mr. C. A. Cuttriss, M.B.E., Hon. Magistrate.

Asst. Secretary: D. P. Cristall, Esq.

Representative on the Council of State—Hon'ble Mr. W. A. Grav.

Representatives on the Burma Legislative Council.—W. T. Henry, Esq., M.L.C., and H. T. Prior, Esq., M.L.C.

Representatives on the Rangoon Port Trust Board.—A. E. Donaldson, Esq., J. R. Tuine Esq., W. T. Howison, Esq., and C. G. Wodehouse, Esq.

Representatives on the Rangoon Corporation.—A. E. Donaldson, Esq.

Victoria Memorial Park Trustees.—J. R. D. Glascoll, Esq., C.I.E., M.L.C.

Pasteur Institute Committee.—J. R. D. Glascoll, Esq., C.I.E., M.L.C.

Burma University Council.—A. E. Donaldson, Esq.

Rangoon General Hospital Advisory Committee.—D. A. Daiziel, Esq.

Police Advisory Board.—J. B. Glass, Esq.

Rangoon Development Trust.—W. T. Henry Esq., M.L.C.

Bigandant Home for Incurables.—A. L. Donaldson, Esq.

Rangoon European Stipend Board.—Mr. C. A. Cuttriss, M.B.E., Hon. Magistrate.

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board.—Mr. J. Baird.

Local Railway Advisory Council.—M. L. Burnet, Esq.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee.—W. J. Howison, Esq., J. R. Baird-Smith, Esq., and T. Reive, Esq.

Advisory Committee constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920.—A. A. Bruce, Esq.

COCANADA.

The Cocanada Chamber of Commerce was established on 29th October, 1868.

The following are the members of the Chamber and has its head quarters at Cocanada, the chief port on the Coromandel Coast, north of Madras:—

Messrs. The Coromandel Co., Ltd.; Ripley & Co. Volkart Bros., Innes & Co.; Wilson & Co. Shaw Wallace & Co.; Gordon Woodroffe & Co. (Madras), Ltd.; J. H. Vasseur & Co. Ltd.; Best & Co. Ltd.; Northern Circars Development Co.; the Agent Imperial Bank of India

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE.

Mr. J. Lusk (Chairman).

„ C. D. Shores.

„ S. A. Cheesman.

The rules of the Chamber provide “ that by the term ‘member’ be understood a mercantile firm or establishment, or the permanent agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada, or other place in the Districts of Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam, and Ganjam, and duly electing according to the Rules of the Chamber, and that all such be eligible, but only

members resident in Cocanada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee, when called upon by disputing members or non-members of the Chamber, give their decision upon all questions of mercantile usage and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs. 16 must accompany the reference with Rs. 5 from a member and Re. 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members, including the Chairman, are elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada, is Rs. 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 25. The subscription for each member whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs. 120 per annum, payable quarterly and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 60 per annum, payable in advance. Committee meetings are held on the 1st Tuesday in the month and general meetings on the 3rd Tuesday or when ordered.

A Fortnightly Circular of current rates of produce, freights, and exchange is drawn up by the Committee.

CEYLON.

The Ceylon Chamber of Commerce was established on the 25th March 1839 and was incorporated in 1895, with its headquarters at Colombo. All firms and persons engaged in the general trade of Ceylon are admissible as members and every person or firm desirous of joining the Chamber must after having furnished one month's notice of their intention to apply for membership be proposed by one member, seconded by another and balloted for by the whole Chamber. The affairs of the Chamber are conducted by a Board of Directors consisting of Chairman and Vice-Chairman and 10 members.

The following is the membership of the Board at the present time:—

Mr. J. J. Wall (Chairman), Mr. C. H. Figg (Vice-Chairman), Sir Edwin Hayward, Mr. S. P. Hayley, Mr. H. G. P. Maddocks, Mr. R. Skrine, Mr. F. E. Jolliffe, Mr. T. M. Caldwell, Mr. George Brown, Mr. C. A. Pearcy, Mr. T. H. Tatham, and Hon'ble Mr. C. S. Burns

Secretary.—Mr. C. F. Whitaker.

Representation in the Legislative Council.—Hon'ble Mr. C. S. Burns,

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND STATISTICS.

The Department of Statistics was reabsorbed into the Department of Commercial Intelligence with effect from the 1st December 1922. The joint department has its office at No. 1, Council House Street, Calcutta, the headquarters of the Director-General. It embraces two distinct lines of work (a) the collection and

overseas trade which may be of use to Indian firms, and (b) the compilation and publication of All-India statistics. The latter are published in a series of volumes of which the most important are the Sea-borne Trade Accounts, Monthly and Annual, Statistical Abstract, Agricultural (in two volumes) and the Review of Trade. The department

also publishes a weekly journal—"The Indian Trade Journal"—the principal features of which are (a) information as to tariff changes in foreign countries which affect Indian interests, (b) notices of tenders called for and contracts placed by Government departments and public bodies, (c) crop reports and forecasts, (d) Government orders, communiques and other notifications affecting trade, (e) analysis of Indian trade statistics, (f) market reports, prices and trade movements of the staple exports and imports, (g) trade enquiries for securing trade introductions, (h) summaries of the leading features of consular and other trade reports, and (i) abstracts of the proceedings of the various Chambers of Commerce in India.

The Department also administers the COMMERCIAL LIBRARY AND READING ROOM located at No. 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. This was at first a small departmental library used for the purpose of answering enquiries, but in 1919 the Government of India agreed to the formation of a combined technological library of reference in Calcutta in place of the separate

libraries attached to the Departments of Commercial Intelligence, Statistics, and Patents and Designs, and the resultant Commercial Library and Reading Room was placed under the administrative control of the Director-General. It has now been expanded into a first-class technical library containing over 11,000 volumes as well as Indian and foreign statistical publications, and over 400 technical and commercial journals and market reports. Ordinarily books are consulted in the Library, but they are also available on loan upon deposit of value, throughout India.

The Department works in close co-operation with Directors of Industries and other Government Departments in India, with the Indian Trade Commissioner in London, with His Majesty's Trade Commissioners in India and the Dominions, and with Consular Officers in various parts of the world. And the yearly increase in its correspondence shows that it is steadily being used more and more both by firms in India and by overseas firms interested in Indian exports.

THE BRITISH TRADE COMMISSIONER SERVICE IN INDIA.

The British Trade Commissioners in India are part of the world-wide Commercial Intelligence Organisation of the Imperial Government. The Department of Overseas Trade, London, which is the headquarters of this organisation, is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and was created in 1917 with the specific object of stimulating the overseas trade of the United Kingdom by securing commercial information from all parts of the world; by disseminating it to British manufacturers and exporters; by undertaking such special constructive activities as may be found possible; and by assisting traders in the removal of their difficulties. The Department has nothing to do with the regulation of trade. It passes no measures and makes no restrictive or regulative orders. Briefly, the policy on which it is based is the policy of assistance without interference.

The Department of Overseas Trade maintains a network of trained and experienced Commercial Intelligence Officers throughout the world, who forward a constant supply of commercial information to London and provide local assistance in the promotion of British economic interests. Those overseas officers who are stationed in the British Empire are members of the Trade Commissioner Service while Foreign countries are served by the Commercial Diplomatic Service forming part of the British Diplomatic Missions and by the Consular Service.

Mr. T. M. Ainscough, C.B.E., was appointed His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India in January 1918 and opened an office in Calcutta in May of that year. For five years, owing to the pressing need for the Service, he was in the Public covering this

vast territory. In 1923, however, two additional Trade Commissioners were appointed to India. Mr. W. D. M. Clarke was posted to the Calcutta office and Major R. W. Clarke opened an office in Bombay at Exchange Buildings Sprott Road, Ballard Estate. The territory is now divided between the Calcutta and Bombay posts and this development allows the Senior Officer to travel almost continuously to any part of India which may call for his attention and to devote his time to some of the broader politico-economic problems which are becoming so important in view of the changing political conditions in India.

Functions of Commissioner.—The primary duty of the British Trade Commissioner comprises the collection of information in regard to opportunities that may arise within his territory for securing and developing trade by British manufacturers and merchants, both in the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire. He is, therefore, enjoined carefully to watch and report from time to time to the Board of Trade and the Governments of the Dominions concerned on all matters affecting the trade, industry and commerce of his area. His general functions are to maintain cordial relations with the governing authorities of his area; to enter into personal relations with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Associations, and similar bodies, and with the principal representative importers and local manufacturers; to visit the principal commercial centres; to report upon foreign competition, on financial and trade conditions, and new legislation affecting trade to make an annual report on the various and special reports and plans on

pa a u i n w a i l y o
in erest to British manufacturers and exporters. He is also expected to supply a regular flow of commercial information of all kinds to his department, to maintain an active correspondence with firms in the United Kingdom or the Dominions who wish to extend their trade with his area, and to give all possible assistance to the representatives of British firms who may visit his territory.

Every effort is made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners to keep in touch with British representatives and agents in India. The offices are equipped with a complete range of directories and reference books of all kinds and information is available with regard to such matters as tariff conditions, port dues and charges throughout the world, etc. A library consisting of over 1,000 catalogues of the leading British manufacturing engineers is maintained in Calcutta and Bombay, and firms desiring information with regard to specific manufacturers of particular machinery or processes are invited either to call personally or to communicate their requirements in writing. It is hoped that local importers and buyers will cooperate by making a more extended use of the information available in the offices and by bringing to the attention of the British Trade Commissioners any cases where the interests of exporters from the United Kingdom or the Dominions may be adversely affected by foreign competition or otherwise.

For many years British traders have deplored the fact that there have not been available officials with commercial experience who could help them in voicing their difficulties and in meeting foreign competition. As a rule these complaints enforced the Consuls of other countries and invited the attention of Government to their many virtues. In response to this agitation the greatest care has been taken by the British Government to select, as their trade officers Overseas, men of sound commercial training and experience who have acquired some

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comprehensive and businesslike organization has been built up at the Department of Trade, London, to deal with the interests of the community, both at home and also Overseas, to co-operate freely and frankly with the Trade Commissioners and to recognize the work they are doing in the Imperial interest by assisting them with such information and particulars with regard to foreign competing goods, conditions of trade, etc., as they are able to afford

H. M.'S TRADE COMMISSIONERS IN INDIA

Calcutta—

Mr. T. M. Ainscough, C.B.E.,

His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon.

Mr. W. D. Montgomery Clarke,

His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at Calcutta.

Post Box No. 683, Fabria House, Fairlie Place.

Telegraphic Address—"Tradcom, Calcutta."

Telephone No. "Calcutta 1042."

Bombay—

Major R. W. Clarke,

His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at Bombay.

Post Box No. 815, Exchange Buildings Spratt Road, Ballard Estate.

Telegraphic Address—"Tradcom, Bombay"

Telephone No.—"Bombay 23095."

Ceylon—

Imperial Trade Correspondent,

The Principal Collector of Customs Colombo.

INDIAN COTTON DUTIES ACT.

The origin of this fiscal measure dates back to 1894 when the embarrassment caused to the finances of India by the fall in exchange drove the Government of India to the necessity of adopting measures to increase their sources of revenue. Among these measures was the re-imposition of the Customs Tariff which had been in force prior to 1882 subject, however, to this difference that cotton yarns and fabrics, which had formerly been subjected to an import duty, were in 1894, excluded from the list of dutiable articles. This policy of exclusion of import duties had been followed by the Erschell Commission while on the currency question. In point of fact, however, this measure which was introduced into the

effect in the Indian Tariff Act of March 1894 gave rise to very marked opposition. In support of their policy the Government appealed to the Resolutions passed in 1877 and reaffirmed in 1879 by the House of Commons, the first of which had condemned the levy of import duties on cotton fabrics imported into India as "being contrary to sound commercial policy," while the latter called upon the Government of India to effect "the complete abolition of these duties as being unjust alike to the Indian consumer and to the English producer." It was, however, an open secret that the decision to exclude from the list of dutiable articles cotton yarns and fabrics was not the decision of the Government of India but that of the Secretary of State. It was pertinently pointed out that the of trade in cotton and

yarns then represented nearly one-half of the total imports from abroad, and that the exemption of these important commodities when practically every single other commodity was being subjected to an import duty could not be justified on its merits as a sound fiscal measure, much less when it was an admitted fact that the Budget would still show a deficit.

Excise Duties Imposed.—The opposition to this measure, though it failed to secure its rejection in the Legislative Council, was strong enough to induce the Secretary of State to reconsider the matter. Yielding to the united representations of the Government of India and of Indian public opinion, His Majesty's Government eventually agreed to the reimposition of import duties on cotton yarns and fabrics provided that it could be shown that such a measure was necessitated by the position of Indian finances, and that it was combined with an Excise duty which would deprive the import tax of any protective character. Accordingly in December 1894, consequent on the further deterioration in the financial position, two bills were introduced in the Legislative Council. The first of these subjected cotton yarns and fabrics to the general import duty of 5 per cent. *ad valorem*. The second imposed an Excise duty on all cotton yarns of 20's and above produced by Mills in British India. In introducing this latter Bill the then Finance Minister, Sir James Westland, was careful to explain that the policy underlying its provisions had been imposed on the Government of India by the Secretary of State in pursuance of the Resolution of the House of Commons quoted above. The provisions of this particular Bill are of little interest. From the first it was recognised that they were impractical, Lancashire and Indian spinners disagreed as to the point at which the line should be drawn exempting Indian yarns from the Excise Duty. Practical difficulties were pointed out by Indian spinners as to the impossibility of spinning precisely to a particular count. From the Lancashire point of view it was contended that the Bill offered facilities for evasion while it was admitted that under the system adopted in the Bill, the taxation of Indian and Lancashire products was not being carried out on a similar basis.

Act of 1896—The Act was in fact doomed to be short-lived, and in December 1895 the Government of India were compelled to reconsider the whole position and to introduce an entirely new measure which became law in January 1896 as the Indian Cotton Duties Act II of 1896. This measure proceeded from two conclusions, namely, that no attempt should be made to obtain any duty from yarns whether imported or locally manufactured, and that an equal rate of duty should be applied to all woven goods whether imported or of Indian origin. With the object of conciliating the opposition, the rate of duty was fixed at 3 per cent. as opposed to the general rate of Customs duty of 5 per cent. The main provisions of the Act provided that the assessment for the purposes of collecting the Excise duty should be based on returns submitted by the mill-owners; and that provision should be made for a rebate in the case of woven goods exported out of India. No control beyond a requirement that the duty should be furnished was attempted

in respect of spinning mills. On the other hand certain concessions in the matter of import duty on Mill stores were made by executive order so as to place Indian Mills on a footing more or less equal to their Lancashire competitors.

Criticisms of the Measure.—It is not possible within the limits of the present article to do more than summarise the criticisms with which this measure was received in India. Much of the opposition was based on grounds of a transient character; as for instance that the Indian industry was then in a state of continued depression and that it had been hard hit, particularly in respect of its export trade, by the currency legislation, and by the uncertainty as to the fiscal policy of Government. In some quarters objection was offered to the exemption of yarn, which was shown, would place the Indian hand weaving industry at an advantage with the Indian power weaving industry. But the hostility to this measure, as also to the earlier measures already described, clearly proceeded from the feeling that the policy of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State had been dictated by Lancashire, and that the action of Lancashire was due not so much to the fact that there was any real competition between Indian and Manchester goods out to a desire to handicap the Indian industry whose progress was already causing uneasiness to Lancashire interests. It was argued that the imports from Lancashire were practically all of the higher counts, which, for climatic and other reasons, Indian mills could not produce; that in any case the advantage to the Indian millowner of the import duty was inconsiderable and was counterbalanced by certain drawbacks, arising from the inferiority of Indian labour, which could not be overcome; and that this advantage, such as it was, could scarcely be said to have a protective character, in view of the higher cost of initial equipment in the case of an Indian mill which has to import its machinery, and of working expenses consequent on the scarcity of skilled labour and on the necessity of importing stores required in the production of cloth. Finally, from the standpoint of the consumer, very severe criticism was directed against the reduction, in favour of imported cotton goods, of the general rate of duty from 5 per cent. to 3½ per cent. on the ground that the effect of the legislation would relieve the richer classes who were consumers of the finer Manchester fabrics and impose new taxation on the poorer classes whose requirements were met by the Indian mills.

Later Factors in the Situation.—Since the passing of this measure into law the policy of the Government of India in this respect has frequently been the subject of attack in the press and in the Legislatures in India, while it has also formed the subject of continued representations by the industrial interests affected and political organizations. In more recent years the agitation in favour of the abolition of the Excise duties was revived by the growth in England of a strong body of public opinion in opposition to the policy of Free Trade. Advantage was taken of this new phase in English thought to press on the Government of India the case of a policy of free trade now adopted by the Government of India in the

to a of this dominating use of the current in a study high important tariff for fostering Indian industries—and the removal of the Excise duties was claimed by the opponents of this measure as a necessary corollary of the application to the British Empire of the principles associated with the name of Mr. Chamberlain. A new factor in the situation which strengthened the position of those who were in opposition to the Excise duties was to be found in the severe competition which Indian mills have to face in China as well as in India from the Japanese industry. The Japanese market was lost to India in the early years of this century. More recently, however, Japan has entered as a competitor with India into the China market, while within the last few years it has pushed its advantage against the Indian millowner in the Indian market itself.

Policy of 1917.—The policy of Government towards the Cotton Duties underwent a further development in 1917. In the budget of that year provision was made for interest and sinking fund charges on £100 millions, the contribution of India towards the cost of the war. This demanded in addition to the natural increase in the revenues fresh taxation to the extent of £3 millions per annum. Amongst the expedients adopted to produce this revenue was the raising of the import duty on cotton goods from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent, which is the general tariff rate. At the same time the cotton excise duty was fixed to remain at the previous figure of 3½ per cent, thus giving the indigenous industry a slight protection to the extent of 4 per cent. The question of the abolition of the Excise entirely had to be dismissed from consideration in view of the demands upon the exchequer, as it was estimated to produce in 1917-18 £320,000. By means of the increase in the tariff on Cotton Duties the Finance Member estimated to produce an additional £1 million per annum. The proposal was received with immense satisfaction in India as a step towards the righting of what is almost everywhere regarded as a reverse economic wrong. It aroused very vehement protests in Lancashire where the cotton industry organised its political vote and brought great pressure to bear upon the Secretary of State to withdraw the measure. Mr. Austen Chamberlain, the then Secretary of State for India, stood firm and with the Government at his back refused to budge an inch from the position which he had taken up in supporting the Government of India in this matter. There were anxious moments in the House of Commons when the Labour Party joining with the Irish Nationalists and the Lancashire vote mobilised its forces against the Government especially as the attitude of Mr. Asquith and his following was obscure. In the end Mr. Asquith gave his support to the Government policy on the understanding that this, in common with all other fiscal issues, would be reconsidered at the end of the war. With this support, the Bill was carried through the House of Commons by a large majority.

The Recent Position.—The question has recently come under consideration in the Indian Legislature during the past few years and the new political constitution alters its

character inasmuch as it subjects taxation not merely to debate but to the actual votes of both Council of State and Legislative Assembly. The latter House paid most attention to the Excise and both the annual Budgets and the right of unofficial members to move Resolutions afforded opportunities for pressing the popular view upon Government. During the life of the first Assembly—1921-1928, inclusive—the position was still dominated by the financial difficulties of Government and the necessity for utilising every possible source of income for meeting successive deficits.

Excise Duty Suspended.—In November 1925 two months after further pressure from the Legislative Assembly, which Government at the time indicated that they would regard as decisive so far as public opinion on the question of the rival claims reduction of provincial contributions and abolition of the Excise Duty was concerned an Ordinance to suspend levy and the collection of the Cotton Excise Duty was issued. That Ordinance stated that the duty would not be levied and collected or assessed on any cotton goods produced in any mill in British India on or after December 1, 1925, and before March 1, 1926. At the same time a statement was issued by the Government explaining the reasons which led him in exercise of the powers conferred upon him by the Government of India Act, to promulgate that Ordinance. The statement was as follows:—"In August last when replying to a deputation which waited upon me on behalf of the millowners of Bombay and Ahmedabad to urge the relief of the mill-industry from the cotton excise duty I affirmed the Government of India stood by the letter and the spirit of the pledge given by my predecessor, Lord Hardinge, that the excise duty would be abolished as soon as financial considerations permitted. At the same time while fully recognising the special difficulties, with which the cotton mill industry in India was faced, it was necessary for me to explain that it was impossible to grant this request in the middle of the financial year before the year had fully declared itself and before the commitments and the prospects of next year were known."

"Again, on the 16th September 1925 when a motion for suspension of the collection of the cotton excise duty was debated in the Legislative Assembly it was made clear on behalf of Government that suspension must inevitably be followed immediately by abolition and that abolition ought to be considered only in connection with the finances of the year as a whole, that is at the time of the budget when the claims of the cotton mill industry could be balanced against rival claims. It was definitely stated that a vote for suspension would be taken by Government as an expression of the view that the abolition of the cotton excise duty should take precedence of other claims. The Assembly accepted by a large majority the motion for suspension."

"The time has not yet come when a detailed estimate of the revenue and expenditure of the current year or the prospects for 1926-27 can be made, but the final results of the year are now known and it is possible to make a

more reliable estimate of the financial position than in September. On such information as is now before them, the Government of India are satisfied that there would be no serious risk of a large deficit in the current year if the cotton excise duty were suspended for the rest of the year and that there is a reasonable prospect that the budget for next year can be balanced without assistance from the cotton excise duty in the absence of any big change for the worse in the next few months.

I and my Government have, therefore, come to the conclusion that the moment has arrived when financial considerations permit of the abolition of the duty. This can, however, be finally accomplished only by the passage of the necessary legislation by the Indian Legislature."

"In the meanwhile having regard to the emergency caused by the grave difficulties confronting the industry, to the pledge given and reaffirm-

ed and to the expressed views of the Legislative Assembly, I have decided that with effect from the 1st December 1925 the duty shall be suspended by Ordinance. It is the intention of my Government, unless the financial position as disclosed in the budget estimates for next year substantially fails to confirm present anticipations, to place before the legislature at the time of the budget proposals for the abolition of the duty."

The duty, having thus been suspended till the end of the financial year, 1925-26, was finally abolished in the Budget & Finance Bill for 1926-27 passed by the Legislature in March 1926.

The statistics of yarn and cloth production previously maintained under the Cotton Duties Act are still compulsory under the authority of Act XX of 1916 (The Cotton Industry Statute Act.)

THE INDIAN CENTRAL COTTON COMMITTEE.

The Indian Cotton Committee of 1917-18, a full summary of whose report appears on pages 291-294 of the Indian Year Book of 1922, reviewed the position of cotton-growing in India very thoroughly and made a series of recommendations for the improvement of cotton-growing and marketing which have proved to be of the greatest value. One of their recommendations was that a permanent Indian Central Cotton Committee should be established to promote the welfare of the cotton-growing industry generally, to advise the Government of India and Local Governments in regard to matters of cotton policy especially with reference to legislation for the prevention of malpractices and similar matters.

The Indian Central Cotton Committee was appointed by resolution of the Government of India in April 1921 and worked as an advisory body until 1923. Another recommendation of the original Committee was that a cotton cess should be levied to provide funds for the work of the Central Cotton Committee and for agricultural and technological research on cotton. The Cotton Cess Act was passed in 1923 and at the same time the Central Cotton Committee was incorporated and its membership enlarged in order to make it fully representative of all sections of the industry. Its constitution and present membership is as follows.—

President.—The Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India *ex-officio* (Dr. D. Clouston, C.I.E.).

Representatives of Agricultural Departments.—Mr. K. D. Anstead, C.I.E., Director of Agriculture, Madras; Dr. H. H. Mann, Director of Agriculture Bombay; Mr. G. Clarke, C.I.E., Director of Agriculture, United Provinces; Mr. D. Milne, C.I.E., Director of Agriculture, Punjab; Mr. F. J. Plymen, Director of Agriculture, Central Provinces; Mr. H. F. Robertson, Deputy Director of Agriculture, Burma.

The **of Commerce** **Inte H**
gence and S **ce-Officio** **Dr D B Meek,**
O.B.N.

Representatives of Chambers of Commerce and Associations.—Mr. W. Ellis Jones, (Vice President) East India Cotton Association Sir J. A. Kay, M.L.C., Bombay Chamber of Commerce; Mr. S. D. Saklatvala, Bombay Millowners' Association; Sir Parshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E., M.L.A., The Indian Merchants' Chamber, Mr. G. C. R. Coleridge Karachi Chamber of Commerce, Seth Kasturbhai Lalbhai, M.L.A., Ahmedabad Mill owners' Association; Mr. G. Z. Mehl, Tuticorin Chamber of Commerce, Mr. H. Wilkinson Upper India Chamber of Commerce; Mr. W. Roberts, Empire Cotton Growing Corporation.

Commercial representatives nominated by Local Governments.—Sir S. B. Mehta, Kt., C.I.E. Rao Bahadur K. J. Deshmukh, Central Provinces; Mr. H. F. P. Pearson, Madras Rai Bahadur Seth Prabhu Dayal, M.B.E., Punjab Mr. B. K. Lahiri, Bengal.

Co-operative Representatives.—Rao Sahab T. Krishna Menon.

Representatives of Cotton Growers.—Mr. R. By R. Appaswamy Naidu Garu, M. R. Ry. B P Sesha Reddi Garu, Madras, Rao Bahadur Bhimbhai Ranchodji Naik, Mr. Bakshi Darshansingh, Bombay; Kunwar Bikram Singh Rai Sahab M. Amba Prasad, M.L.C., United Provinces; Sardar Ujjai Singh, Capt. L. H. G. Conville, Punjab; Rao Bahadur M. O. Deshpande, M. M. P. Kolhe, M. L. C., Central Provinces and Bihar.

Representatives of Indian States.—Mr. B. A. Collins, C.I.E., I.C.S. Director General of Industries* and Commerce, Hyderabad State Mr. M. B. Nanavati, Director of Commerce and Industries, Baroda State; Mr. E. H. Pandya Administrative Officer, Department of Agriculture, Gwalior Gwalior State Mr. A. Howard, C.I.E. Institute of Plant Indom, and India

Additional persons nominated by the Governor-General in Council.—Mr. C. R. Palairot, Representative of the Indore State; Mr. W. Youngman, Economic Botanist to Government, Central Provinces; Rao Sahab Bhimbhai M. Desai, Deputy Director of Agriculture, Gujarat; Mr. G. R. Wilson, Cotton Specialist, Madras; Mr. G. H. Krambhegal, Director of Agriculture, Mysore State.

Secretary.—Mr. B. C. Burt, B.Sc., M.B.E., I.A.S.

Deputy Secretary.—Mr. W. J. Jenkins, M.A., B.Sc., I.A.S. (Mr. J. H. Ritchie, I.A.S., Offg.)

Director, Technological Laboratory.—Mr. A. James Turner, M.A., B.Sc.

From the commencement the Central Cotton Committee took steps to deal with the various malpractices reported by the original Committee which, by spoiling the reputation of the Indian cottons and rendering them less valuable for spinning purposes, were reducing the returns of the grower and causing great economic loss to the country at large.

The Cotton Transport Act passed in 1923 enables any Local Government, with the consent of its legislative, to notify definite areas of cotton for protection and to prevent the importation of cotton from outside the area except under license. Prior to the passing of the Act inferior cottons were imported in large quantities into the staple cotton tracts for purposes of adulteration, and the reputation of several valuable cottons had been ruined by this abuse. The Act has now been applied to the most important staple cotton areas of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and of the Baroda, Rajput and Holkar States and with excellent results.

More recently the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925) has been passed which provides for a certain measure of control of ginning and pressing factories and especially for the marking of all bales of cotton pressed with a press mark and serial number which enable them to trace to their origin. This Act, with the minimum of official interference, places the cotton trade in a position itself to deal with abuses, and should lead to a very marked improvement in the quality of Indian cottons.

The Central Cotton Committee has also devoted considerable attention to constructive action for the improvement of the marketing of cottons and to bringing to the notice of the trade, both in India and abroad, those improved

varieties which have now reached a commercial scale and has carried out some important enquiries into the financing of the cotton crop up-country and primary cotton marketing. As an instance of the progress in cotton-growing which has been made since 1917 it may be stated that since that date approximately half a million bales of cotton of about 1st staple have been added to the Indian crop by the work of the Agricultural Departments. In general it may be said that the Committee affords a common meeting ground for representatives of all sections of the cotton trade and of the cotton-growing industry; thus enabling a number of problems to be tackled from every point of view and definite progress made towards their solution.

Research.—By means of the cotton cess the Committee is provided with funds for the promotion of research. It maintains in Bombay a fully equipped Technological Laboratory which includes a complete experimental spinning plant and a scientific laboratory for research on the cotton fibre. This laboratory provides Agricultural Departments with complete and authoritative reports on the spinning value of new cottons, thus providing a much-needed facility. In addition it is now possible to undertake research work on a number of questions connected with the spinning qualities of cotton which have not been touched in the past. The Laboratory is unique in that it is probably the only institution of its kind which approaches the subject primarily from the standpoint of the grower.

The Committee contributes the greater part of the funds for the Indore Institute of Plant Industry which is a Central Agricultural Research Institute for cotton where many problems of fundamental importance are being studied.

In addition by means of grants-in-aid to Agricultural Departments it has provided for special investigations on problems of general applicability which would otherwise have been left untouched through lack of staff and funds. Such schemes are in operation in all major cotton-growing provinces and now number fourteen.

His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Reading) when he visited Bombay in December 1924 and formally opened the Committee's Spinning Laboratory laid great stress on the importance and value of the Committee's work.

THE EAST INDIA COTTON ASSOCIATION, LIMITED.

Bombay.—The Association is the out-come of the findings of the Indian Cotton Committee which was appointed by the Governor-General in Council under a resolution dated September 27th, 1917. Until the end of 1917 the Cotton Trade of Bombay was in the hands of seven distinct bodies, viz., The Bombay Cotton Trade Association, Ltd., The Bombay Cotton Exchange, Ltd., The Bombay Millowners' Association, The Bombay Cotton Brokers' Association, Ltd., The Marwari Chamber of Commerce, The Bombay Cotton Merchants' and Mucadama's Association, Ltd. and The Jamnani

whole and their interests often came into conflict with each other. The necessity of a system of periodical settlements, such as existed in Liverpool, was badly felt, especially when speculation was rife in futures which was so excessive in 1918 that the Trade had to invoke the aid of Government to prevent a financial crisis.

The Cotton Contracts Committee was created under the Defence of India Act in June 1918 as a temporary measure under the Chairmanship of Mr. G. Wiles, I.C.S. This body was replaced by the Cotton Contracts Board in 1920 which continued to exist until May 1922, when the Act under which the Board

worked was repealed and its functions were carried on by the newly constituted East India Cotton Association, who were granted a charter by Act No. XIV of 1922. Since then the Association, subject to its By-laws being passed by Government, have controlled the Cotton Trade of Bombay.

The present constitution of the Board is as follows:—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.R., M.B.E., M.L.A., President, Importers' Panel; Haridas Madhavdas, Esq., Vice-President, Exporters' Panel; The Hon'ble Mr. Rafansey D. Morarji, F. F. Stillman, Esq., Late Narani, Esq., M.L.C., Millowners' Panel; H. T. Hobbs, Esq., G. Boyagis, Esq., Exporters' Panel; K. H. McCormack, Esq., Satchchandra Jhunjhunwala, Esq., Importers' Panel; Beniprasad Dalmia, Esq., W. C. McKee, Esq., Commission Agents' and Merchants' Panel; Jamnadas Bhandas, Esq., Bhadrans Nannal, Esq., Tethavallias' Panel; Major W. Ellis Jones, Anandlal Podar, Esq., Jagivan Ujamsi, Esq., Brokers' Panel.

Officers.

D. Mehta, Esq., B.A., Secretary, F. F. Wadson, Esq., J.P., Manager, Clearing House, C. M. Parikh, Esq., B. Com., Assistant Secretary.

Some of the objects for which the Association is established are:—To provide and maintain suitable buildings or rooms for a Cotton Exchange in the City of Bombay and elsewhere in India and to regulate admission to and prohibition of the use thereof and the nature and times of such user whether in the case of the general body or particular classes or any individual or firm or company using the Exchange; to provide forms of contracts compulsory or permissive and regulate the making, carrying out and enforcement or cancellation of contracts; to adjust by arbitration or otherwise controversies between persons engaged in the Cotton Trade, to establish just and equitable principles in the said Trade; to maintain uniformity of control of the said trade; to fix or adopt standards of classification of cotton to acquire, preserve and

disseminate useful information connected with the Cotton interest throughout all markets to decrease or insure the local risk attendant upon business; and generally to control, promote and regulate the Cotton Trade in the Presidency of Bombay and elsewhere in India improve its stability and augment the facilities with which it may be conducted. To establish and maintain a Clearing House for the purpose of dealing with cotton transactions, and to regulate admission to and prohibition of the user thereof and the nature and times of such user whether in the case of the general body or particular classes or any individual or firm or company using the Clearing House. To regulate the of Cotton from India a Cotton into India in so nted. To bring, prosecute, or defend, or aid in bringing prosecuting, or defending any suits, actions, proceedings, applications, or arbitrations on behalf of Members or Associate Members or Special Associate Members or otherwise as the Directors of the Association may think proper or conducive to the objects of the Association and to prescribe the principle of framing of contracts with a view to eliminate the temptation and possibility of speculative manipulation.

The Association has erected a fine Exchange Building at Sewri Cotton Depot, containing 112 Buyers' Rooms and 91 Sellers' Rooms and a large Trading Hall on the lines of Liverpool and New York Exchanges.

The inaugural ceremony of the opening of the Exchange Building was performed by His Excellency Sir Leslie Wilson, Governor of Bombay on the 1st December 1925 in the presence of a large gathering which included most of the prominent business men of the City and many leading officers.

There is a membership of 430 members

The Bombay Cotton Annual containing matters relating to every branch of the Trade is published annually in November and statistics are issued twice weekly.

The Textile Industry.

India has been the home of the cotton trade from the earliest times. Its cotton, known as white wool, was well known to the ancients and its cloth was familiar to the West in the days of the overland route. The name Calico comes from the fine woven goods of Calicut, and the products of the Deccan handlooms are still remarkable as the finest muslins human skill can produce.

Indian Cotton.

The exports of Indian wool with the began to assume of the sea route

They received an immense stimulus during the American Civil War, when the close blockade of the Confederate ports produced a cotton famine in Lancashire, and threw the English spinners back on India for their supply of raw material. When the war broke out the shipments of Indian cotton were 328,000 bales, but during the last year of the war they averaged 972,000 bales. Most of this cotton was sold at an enormously inflated price, and induced a flow of wealth into Bombay, the great centre of the trade, for which there was no outlet. The ce was an u pres-

dentent outburst of speculation known as the "Share Mania," and when the surrender of Lee opened the Southern Ports widespread ruin followed. It is estimated that the surplus wealth brought into the country by the American Civil War aggregated \$92 millions. Since then the cultivation of Indian cotton, although interrupted by famine, has steadily increased. For the last season for which returns are available 1925-26 the total area in all the territories reported on was computed at 27,960,000 acres which is 1,499,000 acres or 4 per

cent. above the revised figures of last year. The total estimated outturn was 6,688,000 bales of 400 lbs. which is 1 per cent. below the yield of last year.

Bombay, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad are the chief producing centres. The following table gives the rough distribution of the outturn. The figures are the estimated figures for the past season, and are not exact, but they indicate the distribution of the crop:—

Provinces and States.	1925-26. (Provisional estimates)	
	Area.	Yield.
	(1,000 acres.)	(1,000 bales.) †
Bombay (a)	6,765	1,287
Central Provinces and Berar	4,932	900
Madras (b)	2,260	374
Punjab (b)	2,700	534
United Provinces (b)	807	257
Burma	434	23
Bihar and Orissa	79	14
Bengal (b)	165	16
Ajmer-Merwara	43	61
Assam	46	15
North-West Frontier Province	29	5
Delhi	4	1
Hyderabad	3,237	808
Central India	1,294	222
Baroda	761	124
Gwalior	649	107
Kaputana	511	81
Mysore	97	23
Total	25,008	4,952

The distribution of the export trade is indicated in the appended table.

Exports of Cotton.—A portion of the Indian crops of the season 1924-25 and a portion of the crop of the season 1925-26 came into the statistical consideration in the exports during the year 1925-26. The exports amounted to nearly 12 million cwt. valued at Rs. 91 crores, against 13½ million cwt. valued at Rs. 98 crores in 1923-24. This represents 47 per cent. of the total value of raw materials exported from India and 24 per cent. of the total exports. The exports showed a decrease of 12 per cent. in quantity and 7 per cent. in value. The average declared value per cwt. rose from Rs. 73 to 77 or by 5 per cent. whereas the total decrease was Rs. 7 crores. The principal purchasers of Indian cotton are Japan and China which together took 68 per cent. of the total export during 1924-25. Besides these, Germany, Belgium, the United Kingdom, Italy, and France who are large consumers of Indian raw cotton, had 5, 6, 5, 14 and 4 per cent. respectively.

	Exports of Raw Cotton.		
	1923-24. Cwts.	1924-25. Cwts.	1925-26. Cwts.
United Kingdom	1,037,100	577,760	803,820
Germany	872,540	802,960	777,650
Holland	148,460	135,030	169,180
Belgium	915,180	719,000	865,200
France	323,080	478,580	681,800
Spain	312,520	343,500	260,280
Italy	1,967,980	1,731,560	1,628,780
Austria	149,960	27,740	6,900
Ceylon	22,780	15,260	1,55,960
Indo-China	35,060	96,440	71,060
China	963,880	1,01,440	1,921,780
Japan	8,151,540	6,869,100	7,444,540
United States of America	153,780	117,400	115,640
Other Countries	24,260	49,240	68,440
Total cwt.	13,438,720	12,777,040	14,004,000
Total (=Bales †)	3,359,680	3,194,260	3,501,000

† Includes States

* Against 4,085,070 shown in February 1926-25

† Bales of 400 lbs each.

Bombay is the great centre of the cotton trade. The principal varieties are Dholeraa, Broach, Oomras (from the Berars), Dharwar and Coomptas. Broach is the best cotton grown in Western India. Hinganghat cotton, from the Central Provinces, has a good reputation. Bengals is the name given to the cotton of the Gangetic valley, and generally to the cottons of Northern India. The Madras cottons are known as Westerns, Coconadas, Coimbatores and Tinnevellys. The best of these is Tinnevelly. Cambodia cotton has been grown with success in Southern India, but it shows a tendency to revert. The high prices of cotton realised of recent years have given a great impetus to cultivation. Government have also been active in improving the class of cotton produced, by seed selection, hybridization and the importation of exotic cottons. Although these measures have met with a considerable measure of success, they have not proceeded far enough to leaven the

whole outturn, which still consists of a short-staple early in suitable to soils where the rainy

Reference has been made to of the Indian handloom cloths days of which we have reco grew so large that it excited and it was killed by a series commencing in 1701, prohibit sale of Indian calicoes in En vention of the spinning jenny loom and their development in India from an exporting in country, and made her depend Kingdom for the bulk of her p first attempt to establish a cot was in 1838, but the foundation were really laid by the opening in Bombay in 1856. Therea sional set backs from famine, p causes, its progress was rapid.

The following statement shows the quantity (in pounds) of yarn of all counts: for the twelve months April to March, in each of the past three years:—

	1924-25.	1925-26.
BRITISH INDIA.		
Bombay Presidency	474,292,059	423,450,890
Madras	54,221,060	† 57,886,673
Bengal	25,672,310	24,122,721
United Provinces	56,323,499	60,293,876
Ajmer-Merwara	8,260,241	4,545,208
Punjab	1,760,787	2,944,350
Delhi	5,448,438	3,087,573*
Central Provinces and Berar	38,116,287	40,428,204
Burma	1,067,012	1,668,070
TOTAL ..	661,161,693	623,370,871
FOREIGN TERRITORY.		
Indian States of Indore, Mysore, Baroda, Nandgaon, Bhavnagar, Hyderabad, Wadhwan, Gwalior (Ujjain) and Pondicherry (a)	58,228,301	63,056,608
GRAND TOTAL ..	719,389,994	686,427,479

(a) Including the production of one mill only.

(b) Represents production during the 4 months April to July 1926 only, closed from August 1926.

† Includes 740,256 lbs. for which details are not available.

* Includes 64,285 lbs.

Note: The cotton mills in Burma started work in May 1923.

The spinning of yarn is in a large degree centred in Bombay, the mills of that province producing nearly 74 per cent. of the quantity produced in India. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and Madras produced about 7 per cent. respectively while Bengal 4.7 and 5.2 is as yet

BOMBAY ISLAND.

Here is a detailed statement of the quantity (in pounds) and the counts; or numbers; of yarn spun in Bombay Island :—

					1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.
Nos 1—10	61,163,565	56,381,442	72,707,525
„ 11—20	156,149,723	116,958,465	153,361,083
„ 21—30	98,954,678	70,114,206	101,049,850
„ 31—40	7,961,384	5,885,390	9,201,670
Above 40	3,212,045	2,503,358	4,306,898
Wastes, &c.	101,861	519,627	1,142,795
TOTAL ..					327,542,756	261,962,518	344,859,030

YARN AT AHMEDABAD.

The corresponding figures for Ahmedabad are as follows :—

					1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.
Nos. 1—10	2,392,836	3,015,632	2,559,688
„ 11—20	37,263,853	41,782,933	40,601,658
„ 21—30	45,803,002	47,050,486	50,239,987
„ 31—40	4,949,686	5,765,488	8,261,613
Above 40	1,595,849	2,126,152	4,824,932
Wastes, &c.	416
TOTAL ..					92,006,641	102,740,691	105,007,876

YARN SPUN THROUGHOUT INDIA.

The grand totals of the quantities in various counts of yarn spun in the whole of India including Native States, are given in the following table :—

					1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.
Nos 1—10	92,795,653	95,723,696	114,644,530
„ 11—20	377,014,598	349,024,541	401,036,310
„ 21—30	223,812,063	213,786,357	248,310,873
„ 31—40	19,387,708	19,737,483	27,656,859
Above 40	5,822,227	5,834,324	11,531,458
Wastes, &c.	577,745	1,514,538	3,936,092
TOTAL					719,339,994	685,427,479	807,611,8

The Textile Industry

In the early days of the textile industry the mills of the millowners were largely confined to the production of yarn, both for the home market, and for the handlooms of India. The increasing competition of Japan in the home market, the growth of an indigenous textile industry in China and the uncertainties caused by the fluctuations in the price of silver compelled the millowners to turn to the Home market. The general policy of recent years has been to spin

higher counts of yarn, to use Indian cotton for this purpose to the extent of Indian supply, to erect mills to produce more dyed and bleached goods. This practice has reached a high stage in Bombay than in other parts of India. Bombay Presidency produces 10 per cent. of the cloth woven in India, the Provinces produce 3·2 per cent., and the M. P. 4 per cent. and M. P. Grey and Bleached goods represent 10 per cent. of the whole production.

ANALYSIS OF WOVEN GOODS.

The following brief extract is taken from the statement of the quantity (in weight in yards) and description of woven goods produced in all India, during the years 1924-25 and 1925-26.

	1924-25.	1925-26.
Unbleached piece-goods—		
Pounds	525,265,253	339,265,174
Yards	1,382,368,440	1,414,308,800
Dyed piece-goods—		
Pounds	125,580,102	116,895,306
Yards	588,073,412	540,156,840
Unbleached goods other than piece-goods—		
Pounds	2,953,886	3,720,511
Dozens	611,430	955,804
Dyed goods—		
Pounds	672,850	872,201
Dozens	276,726	316,546
Unbleached goods—		
Pounds	3,949,303	3,772,100
Goods mixed with silk or wool—		
Pounds	272,006	707,712
Unbleached goods—		
Pounds	453,693,400	465,039,069
Yards	1,970,299,238	1,954,466,866
Dozens	888,166	1,272,360

BOMBAY WOVEN GOODS.

The output of woven goods during the three years in the Bombay Presidency is as follows—

The weight (in pounds) represents the weight of all woven goods; the measure in yards is the equivalent of the weight of the grey and coloured piece-goods.)

	1924-25.	1925-26.
.. .. .	347,672,537	342,030,412
.. .. .	1,561,900,631	1,510,335,860
.. .. .	579,881	885,931

The grand totals for all India are as follows:—

	1924-25.	1925-26.
.. .. .	453,693,400	465,039,069
.. .. .	1,970,299,238	1,954,466,866
.. .. .	888,166	1,272,360

Progress of the Mill Industry.

ement shows the progress of the Mill Industry in the whole of India.

No.	Number of Mills.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Looms.	Average No. of Hands Employed Daily	Approximate Quantity of Cotton Consumed	
					Cwts.	Bales of 492 lbs.
	31	12,44,206	10,385	Not stated.	Do.	Not stated.
	34	12,89,706	10,533			
	56	14,52,794	13,018	42,914	9,36,547	2,67,585
	53	14,61,590	13,502	44,410	10,76,708	3,07,631
	57	15,13,096	13,707	46,430	13,36,481	3,73,989
	65	16,20,814	14,172	48,467	13,91,467	3,97,562
	67	17,00,388	15,378	53,476	15,97,946	4,56,556
	74	20,01,867	18,262	60,387	18,59,777	5,31,365
	87	21,45,646	18,587	67,186	20,88,621	5,96,749
	95	22,01,561	17,455	74,283	22,51,214	6,43,204
	103	24,21,290	18,538	76,942	25,41,966	7,26,276
	114	24,88,851	19,496	82,379	27,54,437	7,86,982
	124	27,62,518	21,561	91,508	31,10,280	8,88,634
	137	32,74,196	23,412	1,02,721	35,29,617	10,08,464
	134	33,51,694	24,531	1,11,018	41,26,171	11,78,906
	139	34,02,232	25,444	1,16,161	40,80,783	11,65,988
	141	35,75,917	28,164	1,21,500	40,98,628	11,71,008
	142	36,49,736	31,154	1,30,461	42,78,778	12,22,508
	149	39,09,929	35,338	1,38,669	46,95,999	13,41,714
	155	39,32,946	37,270	1,45,482	49,32,613	14,09,318
	178	40,65,618	37,584	1,44,335	45,58,276	13,00,938
	185	42,59,720	38,013	1,48,964	51,84,648	14,81,828
	188	47,28,223	39,069	1,62,108	58,63,165	16,75,180
	193	49,45,783	40,124	1,61,189	50,86,732	14,53,352
	193	50,06,026	41,180	1,72,983	47,31,090	13,51,740
	192	50,06,965	42,584	1,81,031	61,77,633	17,66,038
	192	50,43,297	44,092	1,81,399	60,87,690	17,39,340
	191	51,12,121	45,337	1,84,779	61,06,841	17,44,766
	197	51,63,456	50,120	1,95,277	65,77,354	18,79,244
	217	52,79,395	52,668	2,08,616	70,82,306	20,23,516
	224	53,33,275	58,436	2,05,696	69,80,585	19,80,170
	241	57,56,020	67,920	2,21,195	69,70,260	19,91,560
	259	60,53,231	76,802	2,36,924	73,81,500	21,08,000
	263	61,95,671	82,725	2,38,624	67,72,535	19,35,016
	263	63,57,460	85,352	2,30,649	66,70,541	19,65,866
	265	64,63,929	88,951	2,43,637	71,75,357	20,59,102
	272	65,96,862	94,126	2,53,786	73,36,056	20,96,016
	271	67,78,895	1,04,179	2,60,276	75,00,841	21,43,126
	272	68,48,744	1,03,009	2,65,346	73,59,212	21,02,632
	286	68,39,877	1,10,268	2,74,561	76,92,018	21,97,718
	283	67,28,697	1,14,621	2,76,771	76,92,574	21,98,164
	262	66,53,871	1,16,484	2,82,227	72,99,573	20,85,678
	278	66,89,680	1,18,221	2,93,277	71,54,805	20,44,220
	253	67,63,876	1,19,012	3,11,078	68,33,113	19,52,318
	257	68,70,204	1,23,783	3,32,176	74,20,805	21,20,280
	263	73,61,219	1,34,620	3,43,723	77,12,390	22,03,540
	333	79,27,338	1,44,794	3,47,380	75,30,943	21,51,698
	336	83,13,273	1,51,485	3,56,887	67,12,118	19,17,748
	337	85,10,633	1,54,202	3,67,877	77,92,085	22,26,310
	334	87,14,168	1,59,464	3,77,508	73,96,841	21,73,384

Statement of the amount in rupees of Excise duty realised from Cotton Mills in British India under the Cotton Duties Act II of 1896 equivalent duty levied in the Native States; in each year from 1902-1903

				Bombay.	Madras.	Bengal.	United Provinces and Ajmer-Merwara
1902-03	15,84,121	67,813	6,606	74,023
1903-04	17,61,527	62,350	10,908	89,189
1904-05	20,43,832	65,379	11,929	96,710
1905-06	22,78,425	1,10,943	11,165	1,32,364
1906-07	24,36,265	1,32,693	23,709	1,35,884
1907-08	23,82,296	1,35,131	31,556	1,66,044
1908-09	29,51,859	1,42,295	53,851	1,88,345
1909-10	33,68,658	1,45,333	65,822	1,92,532
1910-11	36,78,555	1,48,136	56,859	1,82,083
1911-12	42,17,878	1,65,048	48,631	1,84,858
1912-13	48,27,698	2,06,862	61,709	2,11,847
1913-14	45,68,188	2,13,166	78,931	2,55,467
1914-15	42,31,546	1,83,880	58,046	2,07,454
1915-16	42,25,608	2,11,456	41,704	2,01,012
1916-17	35,38,236	2,87,043	70,529	2,47,991
1917-18	64,13,806	7,09,467	1,18,336	2,91,652
1918-19	1,16,18,390	7,48,545	2,10,582	5,07,555
1919-20	1,28,66,707	7,67,021	3,32,972	6,12,726
1920-21	2,03,83,415	7,50,690	3,17,920	6,97,187
1921-22	1,93,50,732	6,54,913	2,65,202	6,85,350
1922-23	1,59,18,698	5,46,783	2,27,530	7,29,199
1923-24	1,29,37,468	8,99,127	2,22,633	6,79,023
1924-25	1,87,03,383	9,04,416	2,68,012	7,81,829
1925-26	1,24,05,753	6,31,036	2,68,975	5,80,775

				Total British India.		Native States.	
				Gross duty.	Net duty.	Gross duty.	Gross
1902-03	18,66,213	18,26,469	65,541	1
1903-04	20,77,449	20,36,104	59,061	2
1904-05	23,81,925	23,33,636	67,320	2
1905-06	27,06,734	26,71,061	83,455	2
1906-07	29,00,957	28,64,202	81,976	2
1907-08	33,99,717	33,55,948	97,499	3
1908-09	35,43,773	34,98,480	1,14,498	3
1909-10	40,06,193	39,61,020	1,37,699	4
1910-11	42,26,575	41,75,878	1,75,878	4
1911-12	48,79,478	48,34,492	1,82,479	5
1912-13	56,17,969	55,76,567	2,21,178	5
1913-14	54,39,043	53,95,014	2,38,333	5
1914-15	49,40,931	49,32,185	2,39,160	5
1915-16	49,25,571	48,40,107	1,90,275	5
1916-17	44,61,448	43,80,425	2,47,301	4
1917-18	76,20,779	75,45,252	3,84,780	8
1918-19	1,33,17,083	1,36,79,282	5,07,891	1,45
1919-20	1,55,14,490	1,52,54,671	8,90,778	1,84
1920-21	2,30,92,870	2,28,71,827	9,65,902	2,40
1921-22	2,19,16,806	2,12,23,108	10,67,539	2,26
1922-23	1,87,34,207	1,74,22,997	11,53,142	1,92
1923-24	1,56,51,953	1,38,50,839	11,57,300	1,66
1924-25	3,17,66,893	2,12,25,643	16,20,395	3,38
1925-26	1,47,26,148	1,38,50,102	15,69,584	1,8

* The Cotton Duties Act was abolished in April 1925

Progress of the Industry.

The record of the jute industry may well be said to be one of uninterrupted progress. The following statement shows quinquennial averages from the earliest year for which information is available with actuals for each year from 1917-18 up to 1924-25. Figures in brackets represent the variations for each period, taking the average for the period 1879-80 to 1883-84 as 100.—

		Number of mills at work.	Authorised Capital (in lakhs of Rs.)	Number (in thousands)	
				Persons employed.	Loans raised.
Average—					
1879-80 to 1883-84	..	21 (100)	270.7 (100)	38.8 (100)	3.1 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	..	24 (114)	341.6 (126)	52.7 (136)	7.1 (232)
1889-90 to 1893-94	..	26 (124)	402.6 (149)	64.3 (166)	8.1 (261)
1894-95 to 1898-99	..	31 (148)	522.1 (193)	80.7 (208)	11.1 (358)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	..	36 (171)	680 (251)	114.2 (294)	16.1 (519)
1904-05 to 1908-09	..	48 (219)	960 (355)	165 (425)	24.1 (777)
1909-10 to 1913-14	..	60 (286)	1,209 (448)	208.4 (537)	38.1 (1232)
1914-15 to 1918-19	..	73 (348)	1,403.6 (519)	250.8 (646)	39.1 (1261)
1917-18	..	76 (362)	1,428.5 (528)	266 (686)	40.1 (1294)
1918-19	..	76 (362)	1,477.2 (546)	275.5 (710)	40.1 (1294)
1919-20	..	76 (362)	1,563.5 (579)	280.4 (723)	41.1 (1323)
1920-21	..	77 (367)	1,923.5 (712)	283.4 (736)	41.1 (1323)
1921-22	..	81 (386)	2,122.4 (784)	283.4 (743)	43.1 (1387)
1922-23	..	86 (409)	2,325 (861)	321.2 (828)	44.1 (1423)
1923-24	..	89 (424)	2,684 (992)	330.4 (851)	44.1 (1423)
1924-25	..	90 (429)	2,913 (1077)	341.7 (881)	50.1 (1584)

The production of the mills has increased to a still greater extent. The figures show the exports of jute manufactures and the declared values for the same period. The value of the exports of jute manufactures by sea in 1924-25 was over thirty-three times as much as the value of the export in the period 1879-80 to 1883-84 :—

				Jute manufactures.	
				Gunny bags in millions of number.	Gunny cloths in millions of yards
1879-80 to 1883-84	51.9 (100)	4.4 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	77 (140)	15.4 (350)
1889-90 to 1893-94	111.5 (203)	41 (932)
1894-95 to 1898-99	171.2 (312)	132 (4,136)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	206.5 (376)	427.2 (9,700)
1904-05 to 1908-09	257.8 (469)	698 (15,864)
1909-10 to 1913-14	330.1 (618)	970 (2,045)
1914-15 to 1918-19	667.6 (1,216)	1,156 (26,273)
1919-20	342.7 (624)	1,275.1 (28,980)
1920-21	533.9 (987)	1,352.7 (30,800)
1921-22	346.7 (615)	1,120.5 (25,000)
1922-23	344.2 (627)	1,254.3 (31,350)
1923-24	413.7 (752)	1,348.7 (30,652)
1924-25	425.1 (774)	1,456.2 (33,090)
1925-26	420.0 (770)	46.3 (1,050)
1926-27	440.0 (809)	54.0 (1,227)

The Jute Industry

the outbreak of war the exports by sea were marked by increases from year to year though the increase was very much less than in the case of manufactures. In the war years exports declined very much. The cessation of the war stimulated export trade and in 1919-20, the exports increased, as compared with the pre-war quinquennium (1914-15 to 1918-19), the exports declined and in 1922-23 they again recovered and amounted to 578,000 tons.

Jute, raw, ton.	
1870-80 to 1883-84..	375,000 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89..	445,000 (119)
1889-90 to 1893-94..	500,000 (133)
1894-95 to 1898-99..	615,000 (164)
1899-1900 to 1903-04..	635,000 (169)
1904-05 to 1908-09..	755,000 (201)
1909-10 to 1913-14..	765,000 (204)
1914-15 to 1918-19..	464,000 (124)
1919-20	592,000 (158)
1920-21	472,000 (129)
1921-22	408,000 (109)
1922-23	578,000 (154)
1923-24	610,000 (163)
1924-25	608,000 (162)
1925-26	677,000 (180)
1926-27	708,000 (189)

a quantity of jute manufactures by sea from Calcutta during the year was 668,000 tons as against 649,000 in the preceding year and 803,500 tons in the war year 1913-14. The value of exports amounted to Rs. 40.28 lakhs. or Rs. 10.36 lakhs over the preceding year. The 1208 lakhs over the pre-war year. The value of gunny bags were valued at Rs. 24.24 lakhs and of gunny cloth Rs. 24.24 lakhs. The value of gunny cloth was Rs. 13.86 and Rs. 15.92 lakhs in the preceding year and Rs. 15.98 lakhs in the pre-war year.

The price of raw jute reached a very high peak in 1907, the rate being Rs. 65 per bale; it then dropped to Rs. 42 per bale, and remained low until 1908-09 and 1909-10, when it declined to Rs. 36.4 and Rs. 31. In 1920-21 it dropped to Rs. 38-8-0 but rose again to Rs. 65, but rose again to Rs. 80.

6 crop.—The final figures of outturn for the three provinces work out as follows:

PROVINCE.	BALES.	
	1927.	1926 *
Including Cooch Behar & Tripura States)	9,054,700	10,760,000
Bhissa	717,000	81,000
.. ..	458,000	39,000
Total	10,229,700	12,180,000

PROVINCE.	AREA IN ACRES.	
	1927.	1926 *
Including Cooch Behar & Tripura States)	2,962,100	3,260,000
Bhissa (including Nepal)	241,000	23,000
.. ..	168,000	180,000

Total 3,371,100 3,463,000

* Revised

including Nepal

It again declined to Rs. 60. In 1921 the price rose to Rs. 73 at the end of September fell back again to Rs. 50 at the end of November and recovered at Rs. 64 at the close of the year.

	Price of ordinary per bale of 40	
	Rs.	p
1870-80 to 1883-84	23	8 0
1884-85 to 1888-89	23	8 2
1889-90 to 1893-94	32	6 5
1894-95 to 1898-99	30	12 0
1899-1900 to 1903-04	32	1 7
1904-05 to 1908-09	44	13 6
1909-10 to 1913-14	51	0 10
1914-15 to 1918-19	50	6 0
1917-18	38	8 0
1918-19	60	0 0
1919-20	77	8 0
1920-21	69	8 0
1921-22	68	0 0
1922-23	73	0 0
1923-24	55	0 0
1924-25	89	0 0
1925-26	124	2 10
1926-27	83	5 3

The average prices of gunny cloth have been as follows.—

	Price of Hessian 10½oz. 40" per 100	
	Rs.	p
1870-80 to 1883-84	10	7 11
1884-85 to 1888-89	8	0 7
1889-90 to 1893-94	10	8 6
1894-95 to 1898-99	9	11 8
1899-1900 to 1903-04	10	2 10
1904-05 to 1908-09	11	14 1
1909-10 to 1913-14	12	12 2
1914-15 to 1918-19	23	5 7
1917-18.. ..	33	8 0
1918-19.. ..	33	0 0
1919-20.. ..	28	0 0
1920-21.. ..	20	8 0
1921-22.. ..	14	8 0
1922-23.. ..	21	12 0
1923-24.. ..	19	13 0
1924-25.. ..	22	9 0
1925-26.. ..	24	9 0
1926-27.. ..	10	0 0

The Indian Jute Mills Association now one of the most important, if not the most important, of the bodies affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, was started under the following circumstances:—In 1886 the existing mills, finding that in spite of the constant opening up of new markets, working results were not favourable, came to an agreement, with the late S. B. J. Clarke, Secretary to the Chamber of Commerce, as trustee, to work short time. The only mills which stood out of this arrangement were the Hooghly and Serajunge. The first agreement, for six months dating from 15th February 1886, was subsequently renewed at intervals without a break for five years up to February 15, 1891. The state of the market at the time of the renewals dictated the extent of the short time, which varied throughout the five years between 4 days a week, 9 days a fortnight and 6 days a week. Besides short time, 10 per cent of the sacking looms were shut down for a short period in 1890. An important feature of this agreement was a mutual undertaking by the parties not to increase their spinning power during the currency of the agreement, only a few exceptions being made in the case of a few incomplete new mills.

The present officials of the Association are:—**Chairman.**—Mr. G. P. Rose.

Members of Committee.—Mr. C. G. Corper, M.L.C., Mr. R. B. Laird, M.L.C., Mr. N. P. Thomas and Mr. T. Douglas.

Working days.—With the introduction of the electric light into the mills in 1896, the working day was increased to 15 hours, Saturdays included, which involved an additional amount of cleaning and repairing work on Sundays. In order to minimise this Sunday work and give them a free Sunday, an agitation was got up in 1897 by the Mill European assistants to have the engines stopped at 2 or 3 p.m. on Saturdays. The local Government took the matter up, but their action went no further than applying moral suasion, backed by a somewhat half-hearted threat. The Mill Association held meetings to consider the question and the members were practically agreed as to the utility of early closing on Saturdays, but, *more suo*, could not trust themselves to carry it out without legislation. Unfortunately the Government of India refused to sanction the passing of a Resolution by the provincial Government under the Factory Act and the matter was dropped. Only a year or two ago the Jute Mills Association in despair brought out an American business expert, Mr. J. H. Parks, to advise them on the possibility of forming a jute trust with a view to exercising some control over the production and price of jute. Mr. Parks came, and wrote a report which the Association promptly pigeon-holed because the slump was over and the demand was so prodigious that there was no need to worry about the price of jute.

An Association, styled the Calcutta Jute Dealers Association, has been formed in Calcutta to promote and to guard the common interests of its members as dealers in jute for local consumption. The members are *bakers and brokers of jute for sale to the jute mill in and* *d* *The present Committee* Mr. Geo Morgan, M.L.C. *Chair-*

man. Members:—Messrs. D. King, C. S. Taylor, H. W. Christie, J. L. Ruthven, H. M. Sherman.

Effects of the War.—The official review of the Trade of India in 1916-17 says:—The value of the exports of raw jute increased in 1916-17 by nearly Rs. 65 lakhs to Rs. 1,629 lakhs. The quantity exported, however, was less than in the preceding year. The estimated yield of the crop was 12 per cent, above that of the previous year, *viz.*, 1,490,000 tons or 8,340,000 bales. Owing to the lack of tonnage and other abnormal circumstances brought about by the war, the quantity exported was 10 per cent, below that of the previous year. Of the consumers the United Kingdom and Italy took less, while the United States, France (mainly *via* Dunkirk), Russia (*via* Vladivostok) and Brazil took greater quantities. There were, of course, no exports to enemy countries which took more than 27 per cent, in the five years ending 1913-14, the pre-war year. The increase in the value accompanied by a decrease in the volume of exports was due to the very high range of prices during the months of September, October, November and December. Towards the close of the year under review prices steadily declined, and have since gone still lower.

Jute Manufactures.—The value of the exports now approximates to Rs. 42 crores. In spite of the war with its attendant difficulties of freight and finance, the exports of gunny cloth showed an increase of Rs. 241 lakhs of which Rs. 183 lakhs were due to higher prices and Rs. 78 lakhs to an increase in the volume of exports. There were also an increase of Rs. 118 lakhs in the value of gunny bags exported. The number of bags shipped increased while the weight decreased, and bags for war purposes being lighter than the ordinary bags for transporting grain. Exports to Australia in 1916-17 were a record. The United Kingdom with Australia took more than half of the number of bags exported while the United States took more than half of the quantity of cloth exported.

There were 74 mills at work throughout the year with 41,292 looms and 883,339 spindles. The number of persons employed was 286,881. There were no difficulties as regards the supply of labour.

The number of gunny bags shipped from Calcutta during 1922-23 declined from 386 million bags to 342 million bags, but the value increased from Rs. 13,87 lakhs to Rs. 15,82 lakhs. Shipments of gunny cloth rose from 1,120 million yards to 1,351 million yards, valued at Rs. 15,92 lakhs and Rs. 21,24 lakhs respectively.

Hemp and Jute Substitutes.

Experiments have been made during the last few years by the Agricultural Department of the Government of India with the Deccan hemp plant (*Hibiscus cannabinus*), which yields a fibre very similar to jute. As a result, a new variety of the plant, known as Type 3, has been obtained, which it is now proposed to introduce into several parts of India, and, as a beginning, the variety is to be grown on a number of estates in Bihar. A sample of the fibre prepared from this variety by the *of ret-* *ing was 10 ft to 12 ft long, of an exceptionally* *light colour well* *and of good strength*

18 per cent with Limbigatam and Bengal first mark jute at 100. Hemp has been grown in Bombay, the Central Provinces, where it is used for ropes and for the manufacture of a valuable feature of the jute industry for cultivation in such a not suitable for jute.

The United Kingdom's requirements were mainly supplied by

the effect of the war will be considerable changes in the market. There will probably be, it is thought, in the prepara-

tion of the hemp crops of Russia and Hungary and it is not unlikely that the world will look to countries such as India for the supply of fibres which may be used as substitutes for the European varieties of hemp. There can be no doubt that one of the early effects of the war was to firm up hemp prices. As far as Indian hemp is concerned, values were persistently depreciated during the first six months of 1914 owing to large stocks held; but the closure of the Russian hemp market on the outbreak of war resulted in a marked improvement in values, and there was a keen demand and a considerable rise in price. Exports from Calcutta during 1922-23 made a great recovery from the previous year. The quantity advanced by 37 per cent, from 197,412 cwts. to 269,487 cwts. and the value from Rs. 26.93 lakhs to Rs. 36.68 lakhs.

THE WOOL INDUSTRY.

Wool from India consists not only of the wool of the Indian sheep but of imports from Persia, and by sea. Imports by land from Persia, but a certain amount also comes by land, while wool from Afghanistan, Central Nepal, Quetta, Shikhar, and Multan are the main sources of wool received by land from India, whence it is almost entirely sent to Karachi for subsequent

Exports.—A considerable quantity of wool is imported annually from Persia, from Afghanistan and from India. In 1923-24 the value of woolen yarns and manufactures was Rs. 385 lakhs (raw wool) and Rs. 385 lakhs (woolen yarn and manufactures).

India.—The production of wool in India is estimated at 60 million lbs. per annum. It is derived from the available number of sheep in the country and the average yield per fleece, the average weight of wool per annum is 2 lbs.

are classified in the grade of wool. It is correct to say of the breeds of sheep found on the hills that they yield a kind of hair.

They are reared chiefly on the hills, and the fleece has been used as of subsidiary interest in actual fact, the Indian breeds more nearly to the goat rather than of the sheep. In his manual on sheep, particularly with reference to the type, that they "resemble a tucked up belly, having a form, the feet light, the head and the tail short."

Wool.—The number of sheep in British India in 1902 was 2,559, and the quantity of wool produced 2,148,000 lbs. At

the end of 1917 the number of mills had risen to five, with an authorised capital of Rs. 2,55,50,000 employing 30,608 spindles and 1,155 looms. The weight of goods produced there was 9,744,204 lbs. and the number of persons employed 7,824. With regard to Indian States, there was one mill in Mysore in 1903 with a capital of Rs. 6,00,000, employing 1,430 spindles and 45 looms. The quantity of goods produced was 1,136,000 lbs. and the number of persons employed 297. In 1907 there was still only the one mill working in an Indian State—the authorised capital had been increased to Rs. 15,00,000, the quantity of goods produced to 1,724,037 lbs. and the number of persons employed to 563. Three of the mills manufacture all classes of woollen and worsted goods, the remainder manufacturing blankets only. The existence of these mills in India proved of great service to Government in the meeting of war requirements, and they were all employed to their fullest capacity in supplying army demands for greatcoat cloth, serges, puttees, flannels, blankets and hosiery. Their total capacity, however, was not sufficient to meet the full requirements of the army, and consequently their supplies had to be supplemented by large imports from home. The bulk of the wool used by the Indian mills is Indian wool, although it is supplemented to some extent by the importation of merinos and cross-breeds from Australia for the manufacture of the finer classes of goods. Their market for manufactured goods is almost entirely in India itself.

Blanket weaving and carpet manufacture are carried on in various parts of the country, notably in the Punjab and the United Provinces. Woollen pile carpets are made in many of the hills. Amritsar had a considerable trade at one time in weaving shawls from pashm, the fine under fleece of the Tibetan goat, but its place has been taken to some degree by the manufacture of shawls from imported worsted yarns, but more generally by the manufacture of carpets of a fine quality which find a ready sale in the world market. This work is done entirely on hand looms and the carpets fetch a high price.

Bibliography.—Notes on wool in India. By A. H. Silver and J. K. Mahla, Govt. Press (C) 1919.

Silk.

In the early days of the East India Company the Indian Silk trade prospered greatly, and the sub-tropical races of the Silkworm were introduced. But the trade gradually declined for the following reasons:—

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the chief competitor in the silk trade was the Levant Company. Successful efforts, however, were made to acclimatise in Europe one of the two races of a temperate worm, procured from China and Japan. When sericulture came part of the agriculture of France and Italy a quality of silk was produced entirely different from that of India and Turkey, and its appearance created a new demand and organized new markets.

All subsequent experience seems to have established the belief that the plains of India, at all events of Bengal, are never likely to produce silk that could compete with this new industry. On the lower hills of Northern India, on the other hand, a fair amount of success has been attained with this (to India) new worm, for example, in Dehra Dun and Kashmir. In Manipur, it would appear probable that *ombuy mori*, possibly obtained from China, has been reared for centuries. The caprice of fashion has, from time to time, powerfully coloured the Indian silk trade. The special properties of the *korah* silk were formerly much appreciated but the demand for them has now declined. This circumstance, together with effective systems of rearing and of hand-eling and weaving, accounts largely for the recent depression in the mulberry silk trade of India.

Mulberry-feeding worms.—Sir George Vane states that in no other country does the necessity exist so pressingly as in India to treat the subject of silk and the silk industries under two sections, *viz.*, Bombycidae, the domesticated mulberry-feeding silk worms; and Saturniidae, the wild or non-mulberry-feeding worms. In India the mulberry worm (*Bombyx Mori*) has been systematically reared for many centuries, there being six chief forms of it. In the temperate tracts of India various forms of *Morus* (the mulberry of the European silk-producing countries), are grown specially as food for the silkworm. This is the case in many parts of the plains of Northern India, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and along the Himalaya at altitudes up to 11,000 feet. The other species even more largely grown for the Indian silkworm is *M. indica* of which there are many distinctive varieties or races. This is the most common mulberry of Bengal and Assam as also of the Nilgiri hills.

India has three well-known purely indigenous silkworms; the *tasar*, the *muga* and the *eri*. The first is widely distributed on the lower hills, more especially those of the great central table-land, and feeds on several jungle trees. The second is confined to Assam and Eastern Bengal, and feeds on a laurel. The third exists in a few localities in the hills, and is reared on a species of *Albizia*. The *eri* is an attractive and the cocoon can be reared readily. The *eri* silk, on the other hand, is so

difficult to reel that it is nearly always carded and spun—an art which was practised in the Khasi Hills of Assam long before it was thought of in Europe.

Experiments and results.—Numerous experiments have been made with a view to improving sericulture in India. French and other experts are agreed that one of the causes of the decline of the silk industry in India has been the prevalence of diseases and parasites among the worms, the most prevalent disease being pebrine. M. Lafont, who has conducted experiments in cross breeding, believes that improvement in the crops will be obtained as soon as the fight against pebrine and other diseases of the worms is taken up vigorously by the producers of seed and the rearers of worms, while improvement in the quality of the cocoons will be obtained by rearing various races, pure and cross bred.

In Kashmir and Mysore satisfactory results have been obtained. In the former State sericulture has been fostered on approved European principles with Italian reeling machinery, seed being imported annually on a large scale. In 1897 in Mysore Mr. Tata, after selecting a plantation and site for rearing houses sent to Japan for a Superintendent and trained operatives. The Mysore authorities have made a grant of Rs. 3,000 a year to the Tata firm in return for instruction given to the people of Mysore in Japanese methods of growing the mulberry and rearing the insects. The products of the Mysore State are exported to foreign countries from Madras. The work of the Salvation Army is also noteworthy in various parts of India. They have furnished experts encouraged the planting of mulberry trees, and subsidised several silk schools. The draft prospectus has been issued of a silk farm and institute to be started at Simla under the auspices of the Salvation Army. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab has permitted the school to be called after his name, and the Punjab Government made a grant of Rs. 2,000 towards the expenses. Sir Dorabji Tata has also made a donation of Rs. 1,000. The Bengal Silk Committee under the guidance of some French experts have conducted cross-breeding experiments with a view to establish a multi-voltine hybrid of European quality. There is a Government sericultural farm at Berhampore, where, it is said, a pure white multi-voltine of silk worm is reared. The results of the Bengal Committee's labours may be summed up as follows: the only really effective method of dealing with the problem is to work up gradually to a point at which the whole of the seed cocoon necessary for the province will be supplied to rearers under Government supervision, and to establish gradually a sufficient number of large nurseries throughout the silk districts of the province.

In 1915 there was issued by the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, a *Bulletin* (No. 48 of 1915) entitled "First Report on the Experiments carried out at Pusa to improve the Mulberry Silk Industry." In a short Prefatory note Mr. Bainbridge Fletcher Imperial

(register) explains that the object of the Bulletin is to place on record some of the more important experiments which were commenced at Pusa, in the year 1910 and have since been carried on in the endeavour to fix a superior multivoltine race of the Mulberry Silkworm which would not deteriorate and which would yield silk better both in quality and outturn than that supplied by the multivoltine races which are reared at present.

Central Nurseries.—The report of the Agricultural Department, Bengal, for the year ending June 30, 1913, gives an account of a scheme which has been devised with the object of reclaiming the silk industry. The aim of the scheme is gradually to establish throughout the silk districts a sufficient number of central nurseries with rearing houses and thus enable the whole of the seed cocoons required in the province to be supplied under Government supervision. It is believed that this is the only really effective method of dealing with the problem. A number of the existing smaller nurseries were closed during 1913 and others are being converted into enlarged and improved central nurseries with rearing houses complete. The ultimate success of the scheme depends largely on the willingness of the rearers to pay an adequate price for pure seed.

A pamphlet was published in 1915, by Mr. M. N. De, Sricultural Assistant at Pusa, which contains practical hints on improved methods which are recommended to be used for reeling mulberry silk in Bengal and other silk producing districts. It has been found that, by the provision of two small pulleys to the ordinary Bengal type of reeling machine, superior thread can be obtained, the cost of the extra apparatus is merely nominal (five or six annas per machine) whilst the suitability of the machine for cottage workers is maintained. By attention to such simple points as the stifling and storage of cocoons and the temperature and quality of the water used in the reeling pans, great improvements can be effected in most silk centres in Bengal and other districts.

Exports of Silk.—As a result of the war the trade has shown in some degree signs of revival from its decadent condition, both as regards its volume and value. The value of exports during 1915-16 improved by Rs 12 lakhs to Rs. 27½ lakhs, of which raw silk accounted for Rs. 24 lakhs. In 1916-17 the total exports rose to Rs. 54½ lakhs. In 1926-27 exports of raw silk amounted to Rs. 32 lakhs and of silk manufactures nearly Rs. 8 lakhs.

Indigo.

Indigo dyes are obtained from the Indigofera, a genus of Leguminosae which comprises some 300 species, distributed throughout the tropical and warm temperate regions of the globe, India having about 40. Western India may be described as the headquarters of the species, so far as India is concerned, 25 being peculiar to that Presidency. On the eastern side of India, in Bihar, Bengal, Assam and Burma, there is a marked decrease in the number of species but a visible increase in the prevalence of those that are met with.

There is evidence that when Europeans first began to export the dye from India, it was procured from the Western Presidency and shipped from Surat. It was carried by the Portuguese to Lisbon and sold by them to the dyers of Holland, and it was the desire to obtain a more ample supply of dye stuff that led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company and so to the overthrow of the Portuguese supremacy in the East. Opposition to indigo in 17th century Europe was keen owing to its interference with the wool industry, but it was competition to obtain indigo from other sources than India that led to the first decline of the Indian indigo industry. In the middle of the eighteenth century, when the cultivation of indigo in the West Indies had been given up—partly on account of the high duties imposed upon it and partly because sugar and coffee were found to be more profitable—the industry was revived in India, and, as one of the many purposes of the industry the province of Bengal was for this revival. It had no been how or than troubles next arose in Bengal led through

misunderstandings between the planters, their cultivators and the Government, which may be said to have culminated in Lord Macaulay's famous *Memorandum* of 1837. This led to another migration of the industry from Lower and Eastern Bengal to Tirhut and the United Provinces. Here the troubles of the industry did not end, for the researches of the chemical laboratories of Germany threatened the very existence of any natural vegetable dye. They first killed the madder dye of Europe, then the safflower, the lac and the *al* dyes of India, and are now advancing rapidly with synthetic indigo, intent on the complete annihilation of the natural dye. Opinions differ on many aspects of the present vicissitude; meantime the exports from India have seriously declined, and salvation admittedly lies in the path of cheaper production both in cultivation and manufacture. These issues are being vigorously faced and some progress has been accomplished, but the future of the industry can scarcely help being described as of great uncertainty. The issue is not the advantage of new regulations of land tenure, but one exclusively of natural *versus* synthetic indigo. (See Watt's "Commercial Products of India.") In this connection it may be noted that increases in the price of coal in England, due to labour difficulties, have greatly strengthened the position of natural indigo. In February 1915 a conference was held at Delhi when the possibility of assisting the natural indigo industry was considered from three points of view—agricultural, research and commercial. The agricultural side of the question is fully dealt with by M and Mr. of Pusa in Nos. 5 and 6 of

the Agricultural Research Institute. Other aspects of the question were fully examined last year in the Agricultural Journal of India by Mr. W. A. Davis, Indigo Research Chemist of the Government of India. An Indigo Cess Bill was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1918. It provides for a cess on indigo exported from India for the scientific investigation of the methods of cultivation and manufacture of indigo, the proceeds of the cess being received and expended by Government.

Decline of the Industry. Since synthetic indigo was put upon the market, in 1897, the natural indigo industry of India has declined very rapidly; apart from slight recoveries in 1906-07 and 1911-12, the decline continued without a break until the revival due to the impossibility of obtaining artificial dyes in sufficient quantities during the war.

In 1926-27 the total yield of indigo was estimated at 20,100 cwts. on an area of 100,400 acres. The exports (1600 cwts) were valued at Rs. 4½ lakhs.

OILS AND OIL CAKES.

The exports of oilseeds showed a large decrease of 33 per cent in quantity from 1,250,000 tons in 1925-26 to 838,000 tons in 1926-27, while in value there was a drop of 36 per cent. from Rs. 29.64 lakhs to Rs. 19.09 lakhs. Oilseeds receded to the fifth place in order of importance in India's export trade and were far behind tea (Rs. 29.04 lakhs) which occupied the fourth place in the year under review, the first three being jute, cotton (raw and manufactured) and food grains. The Indian export trade is suffering from the growing competition of other producing countries. In 1926-27 difficulties were accentuated by the fact that the British oilseed-crushing and vegetable oil industry had a trying year, owing to the general industrial dislocation brought about by the coal strike, and was able to take only a much smaller share of the Indian exports. It has also to be remembered that the Indian home market is absorbing a much larger share of production than before. All the principal varieties of Indian oilseeds recorded decreases. The following table shows the quantities of the principal seeds exported during the past two years and the pre-war quinquennium.

Pre-war	average. 1925-26.	1926-27.
	Thousands of tons.	
Linseed ..	279	308
Rape seed ..	273	112
Groundnuts ..	212	455
Castor ..	114	110
Cotton ..	240	197
Sesamum ..	119	40
Copra ..	81	2
Others ..	88	28
Total ..	1,458	838

A pamphlet on the subject recently published by the Commercial Intelligence Department points out that it is both economically and industrially unsound for India to export her oil seeds instead of manufacturing the oils and oil cakes in India. It allows other countries to reap the manufacturers' profits and at the same time deprives Indian agriculture of the great potential wealth, as cattle-food and manure, contained in the oil cakes. An immense quantity of oil is, as a matter of fact, already manufactured in this country by more or less crude processes. Village oil mills worked by bullocks and presses worked by hand exist in all parts of the country and supply most of the local oil. There has also been a great

increase in recent years in the number of oil mills worked by steam or other mechanical power. These crush all the commoner oil seeds and development has been especially marked in the case of mustard oil, castor oil and groundnut oil. In spite of all this there has been a perceptible diminution in the export of oil from India, particularly of coconut oil and linseed oil, and an increase in the export of oil seeds which is particularly marked in the case of copra and groundnuts. The situation created by the War has naturally led to too much discussion of the possibility of developing on a large scale the existing oil-milling industry in India.

There are three difficulties with which any proposal to develop in India an oil-milling industry on a great scale is faced. In the first place, there exist high protective tariffs in European countries which encourage the export from India of the raw material rather than the manufactured product. Secondly, there is a better market for the oil cake in Europe than in India and the freight on oil seeds is less than the freight on cake. Thirdly, it is much easier and less expensive to transport oil seeds by sea than it is to transport oil. While this has been the position in the European markets, Indian-made oils, other than coconut oil, have made enough headway in Eastern markets to suggest the possibility of a development of those markets.

The problem of finding a market for oil cakes is equally important. The value of oil cakes is much better appreciated in Europe than in India. The Indian cultivator is prejudiced against the use of machine-made cake as a cattle food or as manure because he considers that it contains less oil and therefore less nourishment than the village-made cake. He is therefore unwilling to buy it except at a reduced price. His prejudices on this point have no justification in fact since experts are agreed that mill cake is a better food for cattle than village-made cake. Even when the mill cake contains less oil than the village cake there is still more oil in the cake than cattle can digest. The excess of oil in the village cake where it exists, is a drawback and not an advantage to the use of the cake as food. A considerable amount of demonstration work has been done by the Agricultural Departments of Government in order to remove the cultivator's prejudices and there is said now to be an increasing demand for most classes of mill cake.

Tea.

Tea cultivation in India is chiefly in Assam, Bengal and Southern India, the cultivation elsewhere being comparatively unimportant. The total production of tea in India was estimated at 3·3 million lbs. in 1926, as compared with 35·4 million lbs. in 1925 and 375 million lbs. in 1924. Assam contributed 82 per cent., Northern India (excluding Assam) 25 per cent. and Southern India 13 per cent. the same as in the preceding year. The statement below shows the development of the industry during the past years.

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
ACREAGE.					
Assam	412,100	411,900	413,300	416,500	420,600
Rest of Northern India ..	203,200	203,500	204,400	211,200	213,000
Southern India	92,900	93,500	97,000	100,600	109,100
Total ..	708,200	711,200	714,700	727,700	739,700
PRODUCTION.	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)
Assam	199,965	207,601	237,153	225,135	241,982
Rest of Northern India ..	75,126	92,076	91,351	80,017	91,604
Southern India	30,548	45,670	46,732	49,305	51,132
Total ..	311,639	375,356	375,256	362,507	392,618

Exports during the same years were as follows:—

Exports of tea by sea to foreign countries.

	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27
	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)
From Northern India (Calcutta and Chittagong) ..	253,796	296,778	209,747	230,024	304,957
From Southern India (Madras ports)	30,386	38,560	37,717	43,133	42,035
From Bombay, Sind and Burma	4,114	3,417	2,642	2,576	1,572
Total	288,296	338,755	240,107	275,733	348,564

Exports during 1926-27 increased by 7 per cent. both in quantity and value as compared with the exports in 1925-26, and amounted to 349 million lbs. valued at Rs. 29 crores, as compared with 325½ million lbs. valued at Rs. 27 crores in the preceding year. The United Kingdom took 290 million lbs. of black tea, valued at Rs. 24½ crores as against 279 million lbs. valued at Rs. 23½ crores in the previous year. She also took 1,220,000 lbs. green tea, as compared with 1,305,000 lbs. in 1925-26. More than 84 per cent. of the exports went to the United Kingdom whereas in 1925-26 her share had been nearly 80 per cent. The re-exports of Indian tea from the United Kingdom however decreased in 1926-27 to 45 million lbs. from 52 million lbs. in 1925-26, of which 17½ million lbs. were shipped to the Irish Free State, 15½ million lbs. to the Continent of Europe, 5 million lbs. to the United States and 4 million lbs. to Canada. Australia's demands increased from 6 to 8 million lbs. and the exports to Mesopotamia from 3 to 3½ million lbs. to Ceylon, from 4,171,000 lbs. to 4,427,000 lbs. Persia took nearly 6 million lbs. as compared with 3 million lbs. in the preceding year, while sales to Russia declined to only 1,000 lbs. as compared with more than 1 million lbs. in the previous year.

EXPORTS AND PRICES.

* shows the quantity of Tea exported by sea and by land to foreign Countries from India, Ceylon, China and Java in the 27 with variations in index numbers, taking the figure of 1890-97 as 100;—

	India \$	Ceylon.*	CHINA.†		Java.†
			Black and green.	Brick, table and dust.	
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
..	152,589,488 [105]	122,393,518 [111]	137,967,200 [91]	68,917,067 [87]
..	177,163,999 [118]	129,681,908 [118]	153,669,067 [95]	71,205,967 [91]
..	192,800,638 [128]	140,261,008 [136]	144,270,988 [90]	52,190,667 [68]
..	182,504,536 [121]	141,275,908 [131]	119,390,000 [74]	42,710,538 [54]
..	183,710,931 [123]	140,829,707 [137]	128,226,038 [79]	78,512,400 [106]
..	209,552,150 [139]	149,227,236 [135]	140,607,897 [88]	83,818,000 [107]
..	214,800,325 [142]	157,929,338 [148]	182,360,933 [88]	61,498,733 [78]
..	216,770,803 [144]	171,226,708 [156]	112,152,533 [69]	70,724,267 [91]	25,050,156 [100]
..	230,090,323 [157]	171,658,110 [156]	108,864,584 [67]	79,606,133 [101]	27,455,016 [107]
..	226,187,895 [151]	161,126,208 [164]	130,022,206 [86]	84,040,000 [108]	29,256,402 [114]
..	235,980,126 [156]	181,438,718 [165]	129,265,783 [80]	80,885,733 [103]	36,579,911 [143]
..	250,321,064 [187]	189,586,921 [172]	120,174,866 [74]	79,617,600 [101]	36,670,003 [148]
..	256,433,613 [170]	186,925,117 [170]	123,047,731 [77]	84,168,913 [107]	40,680,155 [158]
..	283,515,774 [175]	184,720,534 [168]	137,788,933 [85]	57,251,467 [73]	59,962,607 [190]
..	281,815,329 [187]	196,032,380 [169]	137,826,890 [78]	69,738,200 [89]	61,691,452 [211]
..	291,715,041 [184]	197,410,430 [179]	109,259,733 [63]	82,214,400 [105]	64,988,807 [233]
..	302,556,097 [201]	191,889,916 [174]	117,317,837 [73]	81,127,838 [103]	71,322,504 [278]
..	340,433,163 [226]	214,900,383 [195]	143,062,900 [89]	93,176,667 [119]	101,003,835 [306]
..	392,594,026 [194]	208,060,270 [188]	126,260,800 [78]	79,259,738 [101]	98,000,121 [382]
..	300,631,923 [240]	195,231,592 [177]	89,115,333 [55]	60,936,866 [78]	86,236,200 [318]
..	326,645,780 [217]	180,817,744 [164]	48,422,933 [27]	10,445,866 [13]	61,853,000 [241]
..	382,033,694 [254]	208,560,943 [189]	71,801,200 [44]	20,182,400 [26]	110,792,430 [432]
..	287,524,697 [191]	144,270,231 [168]	38,908,800 [24]	1,899,867 [2]	93,680,400 [363]
..	317,366,850 [211]	161,610,966 [147]	53,892,533 [33]	3,158,533 [4]	67,775,200 [264]
..	294,700,469 [196]	171,807,581 [156]	73,880,993 [45]	3,472,800 [4]	80,800,300 [315]
..	344,774,111 [229]	131,930,731 [165]	95,012,133 [61]	8,812,467 [11]	96,202,900 [342]
..	348,476,011 [232]	204,931,217 [186]	91,345,339 [56]	10,779,833 [16]	105,113,200 [410]
..	357,314,873 [231]	209,791,384 [191]	85,012,600 [50]	23,043,133 [29]	94,774,200 [369]
..	392,480,932 [241]	217,483,606 [197]	82,896,600 [51]	29,012,400 [37]	118,712,500 [493]

* YEARS previous to 1890-96 and also from 1917-18 to 1925-26 relate to the calendar year

The following statement illustrates the variations in prices of Indian tea sold at auction sale in Calcutta and in average declared values of exports by sea in 1889-90 and the eight years ending 1926-27 the average price of 1901-02 to 1910-11 being taken as 100 in each case :—

Year.	Average price of Indian tea.		Average declared value of Exports by Sea.	
	Price.	Variation.	Price.	Variation
	As. p.		As. p.	
1889-90	7 7	126	8 2	117
1910-20	8 0	133	8 8	124
1911-21	5 1	85	6 10	88
1912-22	10 1	168	9 3	132
1913-23	13 3	221	12 0	175
1914-24	15 0	250	14 12	211
1924-25	17 11	263	15 9	225
1925-26	16 5	254	13 4	190
1926-27	12 2	204	13 4	190

Consumption of tea in India.

As already explained, the reported figures of production are not strictly accurate, and consequently any estimate of the consumption *per capita* in India, as a whole, is vitiated at the outset. A further difficulty in estimating consumption has arisen on account of the discontinuance from the 1st April 1925 of the old system of registering land frontier traffic, and the introduction in its place of a system of registering the traffic only at selected railway stations adjacent to the frontier routes. In estimating the consumption of tea in 1925-26 the assumption was made that the trade by land across the frontier was the same as in the preceding year.

The quantity available for consumption in 1926-27 has been worked out by neglecting the

land trade figures altogether as the net export or import figure of frontier trade is not likely to affect the estimate appreciably especially when the consumption figure is expressed in millions of lbs. Deducting net exports by sea in 1925-27 and the stocks left at the end of the year from the production in 1926 *plus* stocks left at the end of the preceding year the quantity available for consumption in 1926-27 works out to 48 million lbs. The figures for the preceding nine years are stated below.

	Million lbs.		Million lbs.
1925-26	46	1920-21	44
1924-25	42	1919-20	3
1923-24	47	1918-19	30
1922-23	29	1917-18	42
1921-22	31		

* Owing to the discontinuance of the old system of registration of land frontier trade with effect from 1925-26, the land trade figures of the preceding year have been repeated while working out the figure of net exports.

Quantity of Indian Tea exported by sea* (distinguished according to countries of final destination) and by land, in the years 1921-22 to 1926-27.

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
United Kingdom ..	268,716,739	249,491,397	236,287,665	299,722,216	280,572,693	262,501,494
Rest of Europe ..	666,770	1,367,387	1,883,514	2,723,976	3,601,872	2,385,170
Africa	5,431,617	4,430,037	3,678,638	4,860,103	6,086,953	7,872,936
Canada	11,900,758	10,450,161	12,177,780	8,399,269	7,951,242	11,525,455
U. S. A.	7,981,511	4,342,551	5,563,215	6,209,245	4,902,025	7,619,565
Rest of America ..	693,079	1,415,794	1,393,919	1,126,336	1,746,068	1,425,708
Ceylon (a)	4,115,485	2,579,260	2,845,870	3,985,182	4,173,216	4,427,361
China	15,323	9,474	14,628	194,655	2,639,772	490,002
Persia	1,282,752	2,925,787	2,357,351	3,095,994	3,187,714	3,923,803
Turkey, Asiatic ..	2,583,079	6,054,666	3,380,961	2,580,328	3,373,887	4,292,002
Rest of Asia	2,300,837	2,076,565	3,435,579	2,382,173	2,498,319	3,271,715
Australasia	8,281,313	4,434,706	4,772,039	5,105,514	6,381,970	8,753,871
By Land	3,644,592	6,074,544	(b) 5,470,240	7,571,872	10,769,696	12,379,136
GRAND TOTAL ..	317,566,850	304,700,461	314,774,111	348,476,011	337,314,172	362,880,932

* Including shipments from the State of Travancore.

(a) Tea consigned from British India to Ceylon is almost entirely transhipped at Colombo to other countries and does not, therefore, appear in the Ceylon Customs Returns as imports into Ceylon.

(b) Exclusive of the exports from the North-West Frontier Province for the months, July 1923 to February 1924, for which returns were not received. † Includes Mesopotamia

‡ These figures are not strictly comparable with the previous figures as they represent all the trade registered at selected railway stations adjacent to the land frontier through a large portion of the land frontier trade. The old system of registration of frontier trade by means of clerks posted on the land trade routes the frontier has been discontinued from 1st April 1925. The figure for 1926-27 excludes exports from

Coffee.

The history of the introduction of coffee into India is very obscure. Most writers agree that it was brought to Mysore some two centuries ago by a Mahomedan pilgrim named Biba Budan, who, on his return from Mecca, brought seven seeds with him. This tradition is so universally believed in by the inhabitants of the greater part of South India, that there seems every chance of its being founded on fact. About the beginning of the 19th century there is no doubt coffee had found its way to India, and in 1823 a charter was granted to Fort Gloster, near Calcutta, authorising it to become a cotton mill, a coffee plantation and a rum distillery. Some of the coffee trees planted in fulfilment of that charter are supposed to be still alive, and about the same time coffee was successfully grown in the Botanic Gardens, Calcutta; but the industry of coffee planting nowhere found an abiding place on the plains or India but migrated to the hills of South India, in Mysore more especially, and thus into the very region where tradition affirms it had been introduced two centuries previously.

The first systematic plantation was apparently Mr. Cannon's near Chikmagalur. This was established in 1830. It is supposed, however, that Major Bevan may have actually grown coffee on the Wynad at a slightly earlier date and that Mr. Cockburn's Shevaroy plantation bears the same date as Mr. Cannon's. In 1840 Mr. Glasen formed a plantation at Manantoddy, and in 1846 plantations were organised on the Nilgiri hills.

The Position of the Industry.—The statistics for 1926-27 show that the number of plantations in the year was 3,752 covering an area of 258,890 acres as against 3,143 plantations with an area of 253,455 acres in 1925-26. New land planted with coffee in these plantations during the year amounted to 6,231 acres, while the area of old cultivation abandoned was 3,637 acres. There was thus net increase of 2,624 acres over the total area (148,881 acres) under coffee in 1925-26. The total area under cultivation in 1926-27 was therefore 151,505 acres which was two per cent. over the area of the preceding year. Of this Mysore accounted for 52 per cent., Coorg and Madras 82 per cent. each, and Cochin and Travancore together 2 per cent.

The total reported production of cured coffee during the year was 34,286,806 lbs. as compared with 22,108,717 lbs. in the preceding year.

Labour.—The daily average number of persons employed in plantations during 1926-27 was returned at 33,881 of whom 57,619 were permanently employed (namely, garden labour 41,582 and outside labour 16,037; and 26,262 temporarily employed outside labour), as com-

pared with 82,063 persons (36,252 garden and 16,081 outside labour) permanently employed and 29,785 (temporary outside labour) in 1925-26.

Exports.—The total exports of coffee decreased steadily from 242,000 cwts in 1924-25 to 205,000 cwts. in 1925-26 and to 150,000 cwts in 1926-27. The principal destinations of Indian coffee were as usual the United Kingdom and France and shipments to these countries fell from 73,488 and 44,828 cwts. to 49,448 and 21,957 cwts. respectively. Of the other European countries Norway and Belgium took less but Germany and the Netherlands increased their taking from 14,200 and 13,900 cwts to 10,000 and 13,000 cwts. respectively. Shipments to Mesopotamia, Arabia, Bahrain Islands and Australia also showed decreases.

Exports of Coffee.

				Cwts.
1902-03	269,180
1903-04	291,254
1904-05	329,647
1905-06	360,182
1906-07	228,084
1907-08	244,234
1908-09	302,022
1909-10	232,645
1910-11	272,249
1911-12	241,085
1912-13	267,000
1913-14	260,000
1914-15	280,000
1915-16	177,000
1916-17	198,000
1917-18	190,000
1918-19	219,000
1919-20	272,800
1920-21	233,400
1921-22	235,000
1922-23	169,000
1923-24	218,000
1924-25	242,000
1925-26	205,000
1926-27	150,000

The pre-war average value of the coffee exports was Rs. 79,17,000. In 1926-27 the exports were valued at Rs. 1.33 lakhs.

INDIAN TOBACCO.

The tobacco plant was introduced into India by the Portuguese about the year 1605. As in other parts of the world, it passed through a period of persecution, but its ultimate distribution over India is one of the numerous examples of the avidity with which advantageous new crops or appliances are adopted by the Indian agriculturist. Five or six species of *Nicotiana* are cultivated, but only two are found in India, namely, *N. Tabacum* and *N. rustica*. The former is a native of South or Central America, and is the common tobacco of India. About the year 1829 experiments were conducted by the East India Company towards improving the quality of leaf and perfecting the native methods of curing and manufacturing tobacco. These were often repeated, and gradually the industry became identified with three great centres: namely, (1) Eastern and Northern Bengal (more especially the District of Rangpur); (2) Madras, Trichinopoly, Dindigul, Coconada and Calicut in Southern India; and (3) Rangoon and Moulmein in Burma. Bengal is the chief tobacco growing Province, but little or no tobacco is manufactured there. The chief factories are near Dindigul in the Madras Presidency, though, owing to the imposition of heavy import duties on the foreign leaf used as a cigar wrapper, some cigar factories have been moved to the French territory of Pondicherry.

The question of improving the quality of Indian tobaccos has received the attention of the Botanical section of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, and three Memoirs have been published recording the results of investigations in that direction. The immediate problem at Pusa is the production of a good cigarette tobacco. Many attempts have been made in the past to introduce into India the best varieties of cigarette tobacco from America, but the results have been disappointing. It is now hoped to build up by hybridization new kinds of tobacco, suited to Indian conditions of growth, which possess in addition the qualities necessary to obtain a better price.

Area under Cultivation.—The cultivation of tobacco is very widespread in Burma. The two main varieties are called "Burmese tobacco" and "Havana tobacco." Of the Burmese tobacco there are two main varieties "Seywet-gyi," the large-leaved variety and "Seywet-gyun," a smaller-leaved variety with pointed leaves. The former yields a heavier crop, but the latter gives better quality. There is always a great demand on the market for both the Havana and the Burma tobacco. The smooth leaves of the Havana plant are used for the wrappers and the coarser Burmese leaf for the filling.

The most important tobacco tracts in British India are:—(i) the Coimbatore and Dindigul

tract of Madras, where the *Usi-Kappal* and *Wara Kappal* varieties are largely grown, the former supplying the Trichinopoly cigar; (ii) the Godavari Delta of Madras; (iii) the Rangpur tract of Bengal; (iv) the Districts of Bihar and Orissa; (v) Guzerat in Bombay and (vi) the delta tract of Burma.

The season for harvesting varies in different localities ranging from December to June, but the bulk of the crop is harvested during the months of February, March and April. The leaves when quite dry, are assorted and placed in heaps in stacks to ferment. They are then tied into bundles of 25 or 30, a useless leaf being employed for tying each bundle. The leaves are laid perfectly flat, the bundles being fan-shaped. In this condition they are baled, the broom-like ends projecting outwards. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves different qualities of tobacco are obtained. A black variety is used in India for cake tobacco, and this is the most common product, but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Small Holding Crop.—The area under tobacco in British India is always well above the million-acre line, and there are some 100,000 acres in the Indian States. The outturn varies, according to the attention given to the crop, from 200lb. to as much as 3,000lb. of cured leaf per acre. The long-established Indian theory has been that the crop is suited only to small holdings, as it requires considerable attention and liberal manuring. But these latter conditions, as the history of the Assam tea industry shows, are not necessarily a bar to large plantations and organized production. The possibilities in this direction have been little explored largely because cultivation in small holdings was current when British influence was established in India, whereas the cultivation of tea owes its introduction entirely to British enterprise. The great bulk of the tobacco grown in the country disappears in local consumption, but the export trade is developing.

Export Trade.—The Exports of unmanufactured tobacco in 1925-26 amounted to 87 million lbs. valued at Rs. 105 lakhs.

Since the duty in England is charged by weight and not by value, India, as an exporter of the relatively cheaper grades, has to pay more duty in proportion than some foreign countries. But the higher degree of preference she will now enjoy will provide a substantial set off, and at the same time stimulate the efforts being made to raise the quality of production. Another factor in the same direction is the effect of the heavier import duties on tobacco shipped to India, and the consequent tendency of middle-class and other consumers to find satisfaction in the homegrown article.

The Cocaine Traffic.

The form of cocaine chiefly used in India is Cocaine Hydrochloride. This salt forms light shining crystals, with a bitterish taste, and is soluble in half its weight of water. The alkaloid cocaine—of which this is a salt—is obtained from the dried leaves of the *Erythroxylon* Cocaine which grows in Bolivia, Peru, Java, Brazil and other parts of South America. The leaves are most active when freshly dried and are much used by the Natives as a stimulant. Tea made from them has a taste similar to green tea and is said to be very effectual in keeping people awake. In India the Coca plant seems never to have been cultivated on a commercial scale. It has been grown experimentally in the tea districts of Ceylon, Bengal and Southern India and has been found to produce a good quality and quantity of cocaine. As the plant has not been seriously cultivated and as there is no possibility for the present of the drug being manufactured in India, no restrictions have as yet been placed on its cultivation.

Spread of the habit.—The cocaine traffic in India which seems to be reaching alarming proportion in spite of legislation and strict preventive measures is of comparatively recent growth; though it is impossible to estimate how widespread it was in 1909 when the Bombay High Court for the first time decided that cocaine was a drug included within the definition of an intoxicating drug in the Bombay Abkari Act. Since that date the illegal sale of cocaine in India has largely increased and the various provincial Excise Reports bear witness to the spread of the "Cocaine habit." The consumers of the drug, which is notoriously harmful, are to be found in all classes of society and in Burma even school children are reported to be its victims; but in India as in Paris the drug is mostly used by prostitutes or by men as an aphrodisiac. The habit has spread chiefly to those classes which are prohibited by religion or caste rules from partaking of liquor and the well-known Indian intoxicating drugs.

Smuggling.—So far as the cases already detected show, the persons who smuggle the drug by sea from Europe and places outside India, into India, are chiefly sailors, stewards, firemen and sometimes engineers and officers of foreign ships. The ports through which cocaine enters India are Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras, Marmagao and Pondicherry. The main inland distributing centres are Delhi, Lucknow, Meerut, Lahore, Multan, Surat and Ahmedabad. Delhi especially is notorious for the cocaine trade. Great ingenuity is employed in smuggling cocaine through the Custom houses. It is packed in parcels of newspapers, books, toys and piece-goods and in trunks which have secret compartments. The retail trade in the towns is very cunningly organized and controlled. In addition to the actual retailers, there is a whole army of watchmen and patrols whose duty is to shadow the Excise and Police Officials and give the alarm when a raid is contemplated. During the War

several cases of importation of Japanese cocaine were detected, the importers being Japanese and Chinese sailors. The original marks on the packets and phials are usually destroyed so that the name of the manufacturing firm may not be found out. In 1922-23 the largest seizure of cocaine made by the Excise Department in the Bombay Presidency was one of 10,500 grains while in 1923-24 a seizure of 24,000 grains was effected. In October 1924 the Excise Department made a seizure of 46,500 grains in a single case.

The Review of the Customs Administration in India 1925-26 contains the following paragraph

"Most of the cocaine seized on import into India appears to have come from the East. The biggest seizures during the year were—

325 oz. at Rangoon.

525 oz. at Calcutta.

275 oz. at Bombay.

250, 198, and 149 oz. at Calcutta.

The total amount of cocaine seized by Custom Houses during the year was 3,450 oz.

The amount seized is either given to Hospitals in India or destroyed. It is no longer possible to buy cocaine from any betelnut seller as it was ten years ago, but scores of cases in the Police Courts show that the retail trade thrives, though to a diminished extent, in Bombay. High profits ensure the continuance of the trade.

The law in regard to Cocaine.—This varies in different provinces. A summary of the law in Bombay is as follows: No cocaine can be imported except by a licensed dealer and importation by means of the post is entirely prohibited. The sale, possession, transport and export of cocaine are prohibited except under a license or permit from the Collector of the District. A duly qualified and licensed Medical practitioner is allowed to transport or remove 20 grains in the exercise of his profession; and as far as 6 grains may be possessed by any person if covered by a *bona fide* prescription from a duly qualified Medical practitioner. The maximum punishment for illegal sale, possession, transport, etc., under Act V of 1878 as amended by Act XII of 1912 is as follows. Imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year or fine which may extend to Rs. 2,000 or both and on any subsequent conviction imprisonment for a term which may extend to 2 years or fine which may extend to Rs. 4,000 or both. The law in Bombay has been further amended so as to enable security to be taken from persons who have been convicted of cocaine offences. The new Act also contains a section for the punishment of house owners who let their houses to habitual cocaine sellers.

The Opium Trade.

Two descriptions of opium must be distinguished. *Benares* opium which is manufactured from poppy grown in the United Provinces, and *Malwa* opium which is almost entirely produced in certain Native States in Central India and Rajputana.

Benares Opium.—Cultivation of poppy is confined to a limited area in the United Provinces and is permissible only under a license. The cultivator to whom advances of about one-third of the total amount eventually due to them are made by Govt. free of interest is required to sell the whole or his produce to the Govt. at a rate fixed by them, now Rs. 10 per seer of 703 consistence. The area licensed for cultivation has in recent years been much reduced. In 1912-13 it was 285,220 bighas yielding 26,813 mounds of opium, and in 1925-26 it stood at 113,691 bighas with an output of 14,005 mounds. The crude opium received from the cultivator is sent to the Govt. Factory at Ghazipur where it is made up into three different forms:—(1) For export to the United Kingdom as "Provision" opium. This opium is made up in cakes at 710 consistence, 40 cakes weighing 140 lbs. being packed in a chest; (2) For consumption in India known as "Ivies" opium. This is also made up in cakes at 700 consistence, each weighing one set 60 cakes being packed in one chest; and (3) Medical opium, for use in India and for export to the United Kingdom only.

Malwa Opium.—The poppy from which Malwa opium is manufactured is grown chiefly in the Native States of Indore, Gwalior, Baroda, Bikaner, Jaipur, Sitapur, Mewar, Patkumhar, Malawan, Kotah and Tonk. The British Government has no concern with the cultivation of the poppy, or the manufacture of the opium but it has since November, 1927, in collaboration with the States, been engaged in investigations directed to the ultimate abandonment by the States of poppy cultivation. The Government is used to regulate, before exports to China were stopped, the import of Malwa opium into, and the transport through, its territories. As the chief market for Malwa opium was China, and as the States in which the drug is produced had no access to the sea, except through British territory, the British Government were able to impose a duty on the importation of the drug on its way to Bombay for exportation by sea.

The poppy is sown in November, the plants flower in February, and by the end of March the whole of the opium has been collected by the cultivators.

Sales of Malwa opium for export to China have ceased since January 1913 and the trade has become extinct since 17th December of that year when the last shipment was made. Practically the whole of the Malwa opium from y went to China.

Revenue.—The gross revenue derived by the Government of India from opium in recent years is as follows:—

	Rs.
1915-16	2,87,05,712
1916-17	4,74,60,000
1917-18	4,61,88,388
1918-19	4,93,36,670
1919-20	4,55,62,100
1921-22	3,53,41,334
1922-23	3,07,23,709
1923-24	3,78,92,008
1924-25	4,24,87,674
1925-26	3,79,76,174
1926-27	4,14,91,751
1927-28 (July - Estimate)	4,21,48,876
	3,83,68,100

The only countries to which exports are now permitted are the United Kingdom (as regard medical opium) and the British Far Eastern Colonies, Siam, French Indo-China and the Dutch East Indies.

Internal Consumption.—The internal policy of the Government of India has been and is one of non-interference with the moderate use of raw opium, whether the object of the consumer be some real or supposed physical benefit, or merely the indulgence of the almost universal desire of human beings (particularly those whose occupations involve exposure or severe bodily exertion) for a stimulant or a narcotic. Excessive indulgence has always been suppressed. The total consumption in British India has gone down considerably. It was 5,023,995 seers in 1912-13 and 2,915,500 seers in 1925-26, the latest period for which figures are available.

Agreement with China.—The fluctuations in the revenue derived from opium are directly attributable to the trade conditions arising out of the limitation of opium exports. In 1907 being satisfied of the genuineness of the efforts of the Chinese Government to suppress the habit of consuming opium in China, the Government of India agreed to co-operate by gradually restricting the amount of opium exported from India to China. In 1908 an arrangement was concluded by which the total quantity of opium exported from India was to be reduced annually by 5,100 chests from an assumed standard of 67,000 chests. Under a further agreement, signed in May 1911, the cessation of the trade was to be accelerated on evidence being shown of the suppression of the native production of opium in China, and in accordance with this agreement a further limitation was placed on exports to Chinese ports. The reduction of exports led to an increase in the price of the drug in China and a corresponding rise in the price obtained in India at the auction sales. For some considerable time, however, in 1912 the trade in China was paralysed by the imposition by Provincial Governors in defiance of instructions from the Central Government of restrictions on the importation and sale of Indian opium. Stocks mutated

rapidly at Shanghai and Hongkong and the position in December 1912 had become so acute that a strong and influential demand was made on the Government of India to relieve the situation by the suspension of sales. Sales were accordingly postponed both of Benares and Malwa opium and in order to afford the Malwa trade the most complete relief, the Government of India undertook to purchase for its own use 11,233 chests of Malwa opium which remained to be exported in 1913. The present position in this regard is that the export trade to China has ceased since 1913. But these details are now of historical importance only.

Exports.—Since April 1926, the public auctions at Calcutta have been discontinued and no opium is exported to the Far East except by Govt. to the Govt. of the importing country under a direct sales agreement. The exports are covered by a certificate from the importing Govt. that the opium is required by them for legitimate purposes and will not be re-exported. In 1926, the Govt. of India also decided to extinguish exports to the Far East progressively in 10 years, ending December 31st, 1925, except for strictly medicinal or scientific purposes. Number of chests exported has fallen from 34,827 in 1912 to 8,115 in 1923.

GLASS AND GLASSWARE.

The total value of the glass and glassware imported into India in 1925-26 amounted to Rs. 259 lakhs compared with Rs. 260 lakhs in the previous year. The imports of glassware in India are showing an upward tendency, they being in 1913-14 over Rs. 248 lakhs in value, i.e., over the quinquennial average of Rs. 161 lakhs. Austria Hungary and Germany before the outbreak of the war exported bangles, beads, bottles, funnels, chimneys and globes, etc., to the value of Rs. 116 lakhs in 1913-14. The value of average imports from the enemy countries during the five pre-war years was Rs. 98 lakhs or about 57% of the trade. With their disappearance from the Indian market, imports from Japan increased to 71% from 8%, the pre-war average. United Kingdom increased her shipments of sheet and plate glass, which before 1914 came largely from Belgium. Japan, however, could not meet the Indian demand, and hence renewed and pioneer efforts were made in India to satisfy the needs of the Indian consumer. After the war imports from what was the Dual Monarchy quickly revived.

Manufacture of Glass in India.—Glass was manufactured in India in centuries before Christ and Pliny makes mention of "Indian Glass" as being of superior quality. As a result of recent archaeological explorations, a number of small crude glass vessels have been discovered indicative of the very primitive stage of the industry. But no further traces of ancient Indian Glass Industry as such survive; yet, it is certain that by the sixteenth century it was an established industry producing mainly bangles and small bottles. The quality of the material was inferior and the articles turned out were rough. Beyond this stage, the industry had not progressed until the nineties of the last century. Manufacture of glass in India on modern European lines dates from the nineties of the last century, when some pioneer efforts were made in this line. Since then a number of concerns have been started, a number of them have failed, while some are still clinging to life owing to war conditions. They mainly devote themselves to the manufacture of bangles and lampware side by side with bottle-making on a small scale. This, therefore, is the criterion which determines the two well-defined classes of the industry in its present stage (1) Cottage Industry and (2) the modern Factory

(1) The indigenous Cottage Industry which is represented in all parts of the country, but has its chief centres in Ferozabad District of U P, and Belgaum District, in the South, is mainly concerned with the manufacture of cheap bangle, made from "glass cakes or blocks" made in larger factories. The industry is at present in a flourishing state and supplies nearly one-third of the Indian demand for bangles. The quality has been improved by the discovery of new glazing processes and for the present the turnover in this line has gone up to 20 lakhs of rupees a year. But these bangles have now to face a very hard competition from Japan whose "silky" bangles are ousting the old type Indian ones.

(2) The modern Factory type of organization of this industry is just in its infancy at present. The existing factories either stop at producing glass cakes for bangle as in Ferozabad or simple kind of lampwares and bottles. With the existing state of knowledge and machinery in India they can neither produce sheet and plate glass, nor do they pretend to manufacture laboratory or table glass. Artistic glassware is out of the question and the private capitalists who have to run their concerns mostly with commercial ends do not think it worth their while to spend money and labour on it. War caused a great decrease in volume—though not so much in value which was much increased—of the imports of the lampware, etc., and in order to meet the Indian demand for them, new factories were started and old revived, which produced only cheap and simple kind of lampware and bottles on small scale. The total production of these Indian Glass Works has not been exactly estimated, but it is generally supposed that they were able to meet in these war years nearly half the Indian demand for this kind of glassware. There are at present 14 factories engaged in the production of lampware, of which two or three only produce bottles and carboys also. The chief centres for the former kind are Bombay, Jubbulpore, Allahabad, and Bijnor and Ambala; while bottles are only manufactured at Naini and Lahore, and recently at Calcutta.

During the latter years of the war period, a number of Glass Works were opened in the Bombay Presidency and adjoining districts, local manufacture having been stimulated by the of imports of German, and Belgian glass.

Causes of failure.—Records of the earlier ventures have shown that the failures in some cases were due in part at least to preventible causes, prominent among which were (1) Lack of enlightened management. (2) Lack of proper commercial basis, as in some cases the proprietors had a number of other more larger concerns to look to. (3) Bad selection of site. An ideal site for a Glass Factory would be determined by the (a) nearness of quartz and fire-clay, (b) nearness of fuel, and (c) by the nearness of market. At least two must be present. In some concerns, two were absent. (4) Specialisation was lacking, some factories in their initial stages trying to manufacture three or four different kinds of glass, are simultaneously like lampware, bottles, and bangles, etc. (5) Paucity of sufficient fluid capital for initial expenses for machinery or other improvements or even in some cases for running the concern in the beginning.

But beyond these there are certain real and special causes that contributed to the failure of some of these and hinder the progress of the rest. Chief among them are (1) The Industry is in its infant stage and hence such failures are but incidental. (2) No expert guidance in this line, there is a lack of men and good literature. (3) Paucity of skilled labour of higher type. The present Indian workmen in this line and blowers are few in number and illiterate. They, therefore, master the situation and are unamenable to management. (4) Heavy cost of good fuel, the works usually being situated where good sand and quartz can be obtained, and consequently, in most cases, at a great distance

from the coal-fields. (5) To a certain extent, competition from Japan and other European countries.

Alkali used is almost entirely of English manufacture being Carbonate of Soda 98.99% in a powdered form. This Alkali has almost completely taken place of the various Alkaline Earths formerly employed by the Glass Bangle manufacturers as the latter cannot be used in the manufacture of glass which is to compete with the imported article. These points must be carefully noted for future guidance.

The Industry developed considerably under war conditions; but in peace times, in this transition stage, immediate efforts must be made in the direction of what the Indian Industries Commission say in their Report (Appendix E), viz.: "The Glass Industry, even in its simplest form is highly technical and can be efficiently carried on only by scientifically trained managers and expert workmen. The present stage has been reached by importing men, only partially equipped with the necessary qualifications, from Europe and Japan, and by sending Indian students abroad to pick up what knowledge they can. The glass industry is a closed trade and its secrets are carefully guarded, so that the latter method has not proved conspicuously successful."

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WILD BIRDS' PLUMAGE.

The Bill for prohibiting the importation into England of wild birds' plumage, which was introduced into Parliament in 1913, was the occasion of a fierce controversy on the nature of the plumage trade. Organised opposition to the Bill, although successful in preventing it from becoming law, failed to convince the public that the plumage trade was not one of great cruelty. The controversy continued with unabated vigour until May 1921, when an agreement was arrived at between the two parties. The most important clause in the agreement stipulates that within four months of the Bill becoming law an Advisory Committee shall be appointed by the Board of Trade. This Committee will consist of an independent chairman, two expert ornithologists, three representatives of the feather trade, and four other independent members. The function of this Committee will be to advise the Board of Trade as to additions to and removals from the existing schedule (ostrich and elder duck) of birds whose plumage may be imported. The passing of the Plumage Bill will thus place England at least of the United States and of her own daughter Dominions in the suppression of a barbarous industry, as all legitimate methods of breeding birds for their plumage will be safeguarded as definite exceptions under the Plumage Bill.

Plumage birds.—The birds most killed on account of their plumage in India are paddy birds, egrets, kingfishers, bustards, junglefowl, partridges, peacocks, hoopoes and herons and (popularly known as

Blue Jays) are perhaps the birds which have been most extensively killed in the past, and of these, egrets have attracted the greatest attention. There are three species met with in India: the Large, Smaller and Little Egrets. All three are pure white slim birds which develop during the breeding season a dorsal train of feathers, which elongates and becomes "decomposed" as it is expressed, that is to say, the barbs are separate and distinct from each other, thus forming the ornamental plume or egrette for which these birds are much sought after and ruthlessly destroyed. Thirty years ago the exports were valued at over six lakhs in one year, but since 1895 the export trade has steadily diminished. But, though legitimate exports have been stopped, the trade is so lucrative as to lead to many attempts at smuggling. Within a recent period of 12 months the Bombay Preventive Department, for example, seized egret plumes worth Rs. 2,19,047 in India and \$44,000 in London. The rupee value represents the sum which the exporters paid to those who took the feathers from the birds, so the loss to the trade was considerable. In addition, penalties varying from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 each and amounting altogether to Rs. 59,175 were inflicted on the ten merchants concerned in attempting to export the feathers. A case was reported from Rangoon in 1915 of a man being found in possession 22 lbs. of egret feathers valued at Rs. 68,000. Although frequently denied, there seem very little reason to doubt, that within the last decade egrets have been successfully bred in capti-

vity by the fisherfolk in the province of Sind. But whether such birds can be bred without cruelty, and if so whether the export of their plumage could be legalised without encouraging barbaries in other areas of the peninsula, is a question which can only be decided as a result of a searching and exhaustive inquiry.

Legislation.—Indian legislation on the subject will be studied with interest by those who have followed the course of legislation on this subject in other countries. Until 1887 no legislation was considered necessary in India. An Act of that year enabled local governments and municipal and cantonment authorities to make rules prohibiting under penalties the sale or possession of wild birds recently killed or taken during their breeding seasons, and the importation into any Municipal or cantonment area of the plumage of any wild birds during those seasons; and local governments were empowered to apply these provisions to animals other than birds.

Afterwards, in 1902, action was taken under the Sea Customs Act to prohibit the exportation of the skins and feathers of birds, except feathers of ostriches and skins and feathers exported *bona fide* as specimens illustrative of natural history. Act VIII of 1912 goes much further than

the previous law. It schedules a list of wild birds and animals to which the Act is to apply in the first instance, enables local governments to extend this list, empowers local governments to establish "close times," presumably during the breeding seasons, in the whole of their territories or in specified areas, for wild birds and animals to which the Act applies, and imposes penalties for the capture, sale, and purchase of birds and animals in contravention of the "close time" regulations, and for the sale, purchase and possession of plumage taken from birds during the close time. There is power to grant exemptions in the interests of scientific research, and there are savings for the capture or killing by any person of a wild animal in defence of himself or of any other person, and for the capture or killing of any wild bird or animal in *bona fide* defence of property.

Our defect in the law may be noticed. When an exporter is discovered, the Customs Department can on a magistrate's warrant have his house searched and seize the feathers found there to produce as evidence that he is engaged in the trade. But they have to return the feathers and can only take possession of them if they are discovered presently in course of export.

HIDES, SKINS, AND LEATHER.

India's local manufactures of skins and leather have steadily increased in recent years. Previous to the outbreak of war, the trade in raw hides in this country was good; there was a large demand for hides, and prices ruled high. While in the continental markets stocks were high owing to overtrading in the previous year, the United States had a shortage which was estimated at approximately two million pieces. On the declaration of war, the trade which had up till then been brisk was seriously dislocated. Exports to enemy countries, especially to the great emporium of Indian hides, Hamburg, were stopped, and exporters had to find new markets for the raw material. The raw hide business of India, it is well known, has hitherto been largely, if not quite entirely, in the hands of German firms or firms of German origin. Germany has had the largest share of India's raw hides. In the four months before the outbreak of war she took 39 per cent. of the total exports. In 1912-13 she took 82 per cent and in 1913-14, 35 per cent. Raw hides were exported to Trieste in considerable quantities whence they were taken to Germany or Austria. In the four months before the outbreak of war 15 per cent. of India's exports passed through Trieste in 1913-14 the percentage was 21.

The exports in hides and skins in 1926-27 amounted in value to Rs. 14.55 Lakhs. Shipments of raw hides and skins amounted to 50,627 tons which was only 200 tons less than the exports of the previous year. Fifty-five per cent of the exports under this head consisted

raw hides which amounted to 27,900 tons valued at Rs. 2.57 lakhs as compared with 28,400 tons valued at Rs. 3.21 lakhs shipped in the preceding year.

Conditions of the Trade.—The trade in hides and skins and the craft in leather manufacture are in the hands either of Mahomedans or of low caste Hindus, and are on that account participated in by a comparatively small community. The trade is subject to considerable fluctuations concomitant with the vicissitudes of the seasons. In famine years for instance the exports of untreated hides rise to an abnormal figure. The trade is also peculiarly affected by the difficulty of obtaining capital and by the religious objection which assigns it to a position of degradation and neglect: it has thus become a monopoly within a restricted community and suffers from the loss of competition and popular interest and favour.

No large industry has changed more rapidly and completely than that of leather. By the chrome process, for example, superior leather may be produced from the strongest buffalo hides in seven days, from cowhide in twenty-four hours, and from sheep and goat skins in six to eight hours; and these operations formerly took thirty days or as much as eighteen months. Of these changes the native tanners of India were slow to take advantage but in spite of general backwardness the leather produced by some of the tanneries, especially those under

equal to the best
But since the outbreak of war pro

gress has been more rapid and considerable quantities of special forms of chrome leather, for which Indian hides are particularly suitable have found ready market in London.

Protecting the industry.—The report of the Industrial Commission pointed out that the principal difficulty at present in the hides and leather industry was the lack of organisation and expert skill. Government action to protect the industry was first taken in September 1919 when a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council further to amend the Indian Tariff Act, 1894. The effect of this Bill was officially described as follows: "It is to impose an export duty of 15 per cent. on hides and skins with a rebate of 10 per cent. on hides and skins exported to other parts of the Empire, and there tanned. Its object is to ensure that our hides and skins shall be converted into fully tanned leather or articles of leather so far as possible in India and falling thus in other parts of the Empire, instead of being exported in a raw state for manufacture in foreign countries." Sir George Barnes who was in charge of the Bill and described the tanning industry as one of the most promising Indian industries explained that "the present position is that we have in India at the present time some hundreds of tanneries for the tanning of hides, a large number of which have come into existence in order to satisfy military requirements during the war. We have in fact the foundations of a flourishing tanning industry, but there is reason to fear that it may tend to dwindle and disappear with the diminution of military requirements,

if some other support is not given. We want to keep this industry alive, and we believe that in this case protection in the shape of a 15 per cent. export duty is justifiable and ought to be effective. It is clearly just also that the same measure of protection should be extended to the tanners of skins whose business, as I have already stated, was injured by the necessities of the war. Though Indian tanneries have enormously increased in number during the past three years, they can only deal with a comparatively small proportion of the raw hides and skins which India produces, and it is to the advantage of India and the security of the Empire generally that this large surplus should, so far as possible, be tanned within the Empire, and with this end in view the Bill proposes a 10 per cent. rebate in respect of hides and skins exported to any place within the Empire. I should add that it is proposed to limit by notification the benefit of this rebate to hides and skins actually tanned within the Empire: and Indian hides and skins re-exported from an Empire port for the purpose of being tanned abroad will not be entitled to any rebate."

Indigenous methods.—India possesses a large selection of excellent tanning materials such as Acacia pods and bark, Indian sumach, the Tanner's cassia, Mangroves, and Myrabolans. By these and such like materials and by various methods and contrivances, hides and skins are extensively cured and tanned and the leather worked up in response to an immense, though purely local, demand.

GRAIN ELEVATORS.

The question of adopting elevators for the handling of Indian grain has engaged attention for some time and has assumed increased importance in the light of the railway congestion experienced in recent years and more particularly in the grain season. In the last three years great strides have been made by other countries in the adoption or perfecting of the elevator system, and a large mass of contemporary data on the subject has been brought together by the Commercial Intelligence Department. Since the subject is one that cannot receive adequate consideration in India till the facts are before the public, these have been embodied in a pamphlet entitled *Indian Wheat and Grain Elevators*, by the late Mr. F. Noel-Paton, Director General of Commercial Intelligence to the Government of India. The work gives full particulars regarding India's production of wheat, and shows that less than one-eighth of the crop is exported. It describes the conditions under which the grain is held and remarks that it is pointed

out that the cultivator has no adequate means of preserving his wheat and that he is constrained to sell at harvest time: also that the prices then obtained by him are considerably lower than those usually current in later months. The constant nature of the European demand is explained and an attempt is made to gauge the probability that the enormously increased quantities of wheat to be expected when new irrigation tracts come into bearing would be accepted by Europe at one time and at a good price, or could be economically transported under a system in which a few months of congestion alternated with a longer period of stagnation. Figures are given which suggest that in practice the effect of equipping railways to do this is to intensify the evil and so to engage in a vicious circle. The author explains the structural nature of elevators and their functions as constituted in other countries. Particulars are given as to the laws that govern their operations in such trials.

TRADE MARKS.

The Indian Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) was passed in 1889, but its operation in the earlier years was restricted, especially in Calcutta, in consequence of the lack of adequate Customs machinery for the examination of goods. In 1894, with the introduction of the present tariff, the Customs staff was strengthened for the examination of goods for assessment to duty, and this increase enabled examination to be made at the same time for the purposes of the Merchandise Marks Act. The Act was intended originally to prevent the fraudulent sale of goods bearing false trade marks or false trade descriptions (as of origin, quality, weight, or quantity). While the Act was before the Legislature a provision was added to require that piece-goods should be stamped with their length in yards. In this respect these goods are an exception, for the Act does not require that other descriptions of goods should be stamped or marked, though it requires that when goods are marked the marks must be a correct description. The number of detentions under the Act during the twenty years

ending 1924-25 has been:—

Average of the five years ending						
ending	1907-08 1,188
"	"	"	"	"	"	1912-13 1,960
"	"	"	"	"	"	1917-18 2,810
"	"	"	"	"	"	1922-23 1,840
"	"	"	"	"	"	1924-25 3,381

Detention is but rarely followed by confiscation, and there have been only 64 such cases during the past ten years. Usually detained goods are released with a fine, and this procedure was followed in 16,919 cases out of the 27,184 detentions ordered in the same period. In 10,193 cases the detained goods were released without the infliction of a fine. In this period of ten years 9 per cent. of the detentions were on account of the application of false trade marks or false trade descriptions, in 69 per cent. of the cases detention was ordered because the country of origin was either not stated or was falsely stated, and in 22 per cent. because the provisions of the Act for the stamping of piece-goods had been infringed.

INDIAN INVENTIONS AND DESIGNS.

A handbook to the Patent Office in India, which is published by the Government Press, Calcutta, gives the various Acts, rules, and instructions bearing on the subject together with hints for the preparation of specifications and drawings, hints for searchers and other valuable information that has not hitherto been readily accessible to the general public in so convenient a form. In the preface the Controller of Patents and Designs explains the scope of the Patent laws in India and indicates wherein they differ from English law and procedure.

The foundation of patent legislation throughout the world lies in the English "Statute of Monopolies" which was enacted in 1623, the 21st year of King James the First. In part this Act has been repealed, but the extant portion of the more important section 6 is as follows:—"Provided also that any declaration before mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of fourteen years or under, hereafter to be made of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm to the true and first inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making of such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law nor mischievous to the State by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient; the said fourteen years to be accomplished from the date of the first letters patent or grants of such privilege hereafter to be made, but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if this Act had never been made, and of none other."

The existing Indian Patent Law is contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911 supplemented by the Indian Patents and Designs (Temporary Rules Act, 1915 and

by the Rules made under those Acts. The Patent Office does not deal with trade mark or with copyright generally in books, pictures, music and other matters which fall under the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914. There is, in fact, no provision of law in British India for the registration of Trade Marks which are protected under the Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) which forms Chapter XVIII of the Indian Penal Code.

On the whole, Indian law and procedure closely follow that in the United Kingdom for the protection of inventions and the registration of designs, as they always have done in matters of major interest. One main difference exists, however, as owing to the absence of provision of law for the registration of trade marks, India cannot become a party to the International Convention under which certain rights of priority are obtainable in other countries.

The first Indian Act for granting exclusive privileges to inventors was passed in 1856, after an agitation that had been carried on fitfully for some twenty years. Difficulties arising from an uncertainty as to the effect of the Royal Prerogative prevented earlier action and, owing to some informalities the Act itself was repealed in the following year. In 1859 it was re-enacted with modifications, and in 1872 the Patterns and Designs Protection Act was passed. The protection of Inventions Act of 1883, dealing with exhibitions, followed, and then the Inventions and Designs Act of 1888. All these are now replaced by the present Act of 1911.

The existing Acts extend to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Santhal Parganas. This of course includes Burma, but it does not embrace the Native States. Of the latter three, viz., (1) Hyderabad (Mysore), (2) M. 3) Gwalior have ordinances of their own for which

be obtained from the Government of the States; in question as they are not administered by the Indian Patent Office in Calcutta. The object of the Act of 1911 was to provide a simpler, more direct, and more effective procedure in regard both to the grant of patent rights and to their subsequent existence and operation. The changes made in the law need not here be referred to in detail. They gave further protection both to the inventor, by providing that his application should be kept secret until acceptance, and to the public, by increasing the facilities for opposition at an effective period. At the same time a Controller of Patents and Designs was established, with power to dispose of many matters previously referred to the Governor-General in Council, and provision was made for the grant of a sealed "patent" instead of for the mere recognition of an "exclusive privilege." The provisions of the Act follow with the necessary modifications those of the British Inventions and Designs Act of 1907.

Important amendments have been made in the Indian Patents and Designs Act since 1911, the most important being the priority given to Indian inventors over others to apply for British patents within 12 months from the date of the Indian application. Similarly, an applicant for a British patent has priority over other applicants in India for 12 months from the date of his British application.

Printed Specification of applications for patents, which have been accepted (8 annas per copy), may be seen free of charge, together with other publications of the Patent Office at the following places:—

AHMEDABAD	.. R. O. Technical Institute.
ALLAHABAD	.. Public Library.
BANGALORE	.. Indian Institute of Science.
BARODA	.. Department of Commerce and Industry
BOMBAY	.. Record Office.
"	.. Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Byculla.
"	.. The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association, No. 1A, Sussex Road, Parel.
CALCUTTA	.. Patent Office, No. 1, Council House Street.
"	.. Bengal Engineering College, Sidpur.
CANPORE	.. Office of the Director of Industries, United Provinces.
CHINSURAH	.. Office of the Commissioner, Burdwan Division.

CHITTAGONG	.. Office of the Commissioner, Chittagong Division.
DACCA	.. Office of the District Board, Dacca.
DELHI	.. Office of the Deputy Commissioner
HIDERABAD	.. Industries and Commerce Department of His Highness the Nizam's Government.
KABACHI	.. Office of the City Deputy Collector
LAHORE	.. Punjab Public Library.
LONDON	.. The Patent Office, 25, Southampton Buildings, W. C.
MADRAS	.. Record Office, Egmore.
"	.. College of Engineering.
MYSORE	.. Office of the Secretary to Government, General and Revenue Department.
NAGPUR	.. Victoria Technical Institute.
POONA	.. College of Engineering.
RANCHI	.. Office of the Director of Industries, Bihar & Orissa.
RANGOON	.. Office of the Revenue Secretary Government of Burma.
ROORKEE	.. Thomason College.
SHOLAPUR	.. Office of the Collector.

PUBLICATIONS on sale at the Patent Office:—

	Price Rs a
Patent Office Handbook (Acts, Rules and Instructions)	1 0
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911	0 10
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911 (Urdu and Hindi) .. each	0 2
The Indian Patents and Designs Rules, 1912	0 2
Weekly Notifications (Extract from the Gazette of India)	0 1
Annual Subscription with postage ..	3 0
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index, 1900—1908, and Chronological lists, 1900—1904) ..	2 8
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index, 1900—1911, and Chronological lists, 1905—1911) ..	3 0
each.	
Patent Office Journal (issued quarterly) ..	0 8
Patent Office Journals, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1920	1 0
Printed Specifications of Inventions since 1912	0 3

Absorption of Gold

	AVERAGE OF 5 YEARS ENDING										1920- 27.
	1923- 24.	1924- 25.	1925- 26.	1926- 27.	1927- 28.	1928- 29.	1929- 30.	1930- 31.	1931- 32.	1932- 33.	
1. Production (b)	71	2,01	2,95	3,40	3,86	3,39	2,79	2,55	2,55	2,55	2,55
2. Imports	4,12	5,48	13,00	16,85	32,79	9,88(a)	41,32	29,25	74,29	85,23	19,50
3. Exports	2,02	3,23	6,92	7,50	4,64	3,01(a)	13	6	98	38	10
4. Net imports (i.e., 2-3)	2,10	2,25	6,18	9,35	28,15	6,87(a)	41,19	29,19	73,93	34,85	10,40
5. Net addition to stock (i.e., 1+4)	2,81	4,26	9,13	12,75	31,51	10,26	43,98	31,74	70,47	37,08	21,58
6. Balance held in mint and Government Treasury and Currency and Gold Standard Reserves	..	66	12,88	6,57	19,11	16,93	24,92	22,32	92,32	22,32	22,32
7. Increase (+) or decrease (-) in stock held in mints, etc., as compared with the preceding year	..	+61	+2,67	-3,25	+4,47	-1,02	..	-2,00
8. Net absorption (i.e., 5-7)	2,81	3,65	6,46	16,00	27,04	11,28	43,98	33,74	76,47	37,06	21,58
9. Progressive total of additions to stock	51,74	61,86	1,01,19	1,58,61	2,77,15	3,72,61	4,87,98	5,19,67	5,93,14	6,33,22	6,54,80
10. Net progressive absorption	51,74	61,19	88,91	1,52,94	2,58,04	3,75,63	4,93,32	4,97,36	5,73,83	6,10,01	6,32,49

The Indian Tariff Board, 1927.

Textile Industry.—The Special Tariff Board, which was appointed in June 1926 to investigate the causes of the depression in the cotton textile industry and to report whether the industry was in need of protection submitted its report in January, 1927 but it was not published until June. The Board found that the depression in the mill industry which commenced in 1923 had affected Bombay much more acutely than any other centre, and that throughout India, the mills with spinning departments only had, with very few exceptions, been affected to a greater extent than mills with both spinning and weaving departments.

Causes of the Depression.—The suggested causes of the depression were examined under four heads, (i) world factors, (ii) external competition, (iii) causes affecting the Indian cotton textile industry as a whole and (iv) causes special to Bombay. The two world factors which, in the opinion of the Board had materially contributed to the depression were the altered relations between agriculture and general prices from 1920 onwards and the course of the prices of American cotton from that year. Under the head "external competition", the most important findings, based on an exhaustive examination of the statistics of Japanese imports of yarn and piece-goods into India during the post-war period and of their character, were that Japanese yarn of 2's counts and above and Japanese cloth of counts of 30s and above were being sold in India at prices which were practically equal to the cost of manufacture alone in India, without any allowance for profit or depreciation. In these circumstances, the Board held that the competition of Japanese yarn and cloth must be regarded as an important cause of the depression in the mill industry in India. It stigmatised this competition as unfair on the ground that the conditions of labour in Japan were inferior to those in India in respect of the length of the working day and the employment of women and juveniles at night. The advantage derived from the double shift working rendered possible by the employment of women and children at night, which is prohibited by the Indian Factory Act, was placed at 4 per cent. on the actual cost of manufacture both of yarn and cloth, an advantage which would be considerably increased if a reasonable return on capital were included in the cost of production. The depreciation of the Japanese exchange from 1924 onwards had stimulated exports from Japan to India whilst it lasted but Japan had ceased to enjoy any special advantage in this respect nor could it be established that Japanese goods were being dumped in India. Amongst the causes of depression which has been suggested as applicable to India as a whole, the Board found that over-capitalisation of mills could not be included though it had undoubtedly contributed to accentuate the depression in Bombay as had the high dividends paid and the consequent failure to husband resources during the boom period. The use of inefficient machinery was also cited out as a cause of depression. The managing

agency system was in the main acquitted of responsibility for the existing conditions though certain defects inherent in that system such as undue conservatism and lack of initiative were held to have to some extent contributory to them. The Board's conclusion as regards the stabilisation of the rupee at 1s. 6d. was that coming as this did, at a time of falling prices, it had rendered the problem presented by the disparity between prices and wages in the industry somewhat more acute.

Of the causes of the depression which had been suggested as special to Bombay, the Board found that the loss of the export trade in yarn with China and the increasing competition of mills in Ahmedabad and other centres were the most important. In the five years before the war, the exports of yarn from Bombay represented 53 per cent. of the total Bombay mill production. In the five years ending 1923-24, they were only 24 per cent. and in 1924-25, they had fallen to 11 per cent. The loss of the trade with China in yarn which had not been compensated appreciably by an increase in the extent of piece-goods meant that the Bombay mills had to find an outlet in the home market for the equivalent of 300 million yards of cloth at a time when they were faced with the competition of an additional 40 million yards of cloth manufactured in mills in India outside Bombay. The costs of production in Bombay and other centres were carefully examined and the conclusion reached was that Bombay was under substantial disadvantages as compared with centres in respect of cost of fuel and power, cost of water and higher local taxation. These disadvantages, however, were rather more than set off by advantages in regard to cost of stores of insurance and of office expenses. By far the greatest disability under which the Bombay industry laboured in its competition with mills in Ahmedabad and other centres in India was its high cost of labour.

Remedial Measures.—The remedial measures suggested by the Board were discussed under four heads—(i) internal economies, (ii) improvement of the industry, (iii) changes in the tariff and (iv) changes in the tariff. The most important direction in which internal economies could be effected was by increasing the efficiency of labour a method which it regarded as greatly to be preferred to a reduction in wages. It made very detailed recommendations as to the ways in which greater labour efficiency could be secured. Other suggestions put forward under this head were that a single hedge contract would lead to economies in the purchase of the raw material that the charge for water used by the mills in Bombay should be reduced and that the "town duty" of one rupee per bale levied on all cotton consumed in the Bombay mills should be reduced to eight annas. The Board then turned its attention to the organisation of the industry and made suggestions for increasing the efficiency of the Bombay Millowners' Association by the

constitution of strong sub-committees to deal with the various branches of the Association's activities. Improvements in the personnel of the firms of managing agents were recommended. The winding down of the capital in the Bombay mill industry was held to be a matter requiring immediate attention. The most important recommendation under this head was that Bombay should utilise to the full its natural advantages in the matter of climate and situation for the production of goods of higher counts and that the difficulties in the way of its doing so presented by the lack of suitable raw material in India should be overcome temporarily by the greater use of American and African cotton. A great expansion in the Bombay mill production of bleached, coloured and dyed and printed goods was suggested as one remedy for the depression. To this end, the Board recommended the establishment by a combination of mills of a large factory for combined printing, bleaching and dyeing in or near Bombay. It further suggested greater attention to the development of the export trade of Bombay and pointed out that that the first essential to such development was that adequate information should be collected regarding conditions in certain large markets in the Near and Far East, and that the industry should be in a position to utilise it. In regard to changes in the tariff, the Board was unanimous in holding that no justification for an export duty on cotton could be established and that the concession of free entry enjoyed by cotton mill machinery and mill stores prior to 1921 should again be granted. It was further agreed that a moderate measure of protection, in addition to that afforded by the existing revenue duty of 5 per cent. on yarn and 11 per cent on cloth, could be justified for such period as labour conditions in Japan remained inferior to those in India.

The President, Mr. F. Noyce, differed from his colleagues, Raja Hari Kishan Kaul and Mr. N. S. Subba Rao as to the form in which this protection should be given. The two latter held that a differential duty against Japan was undesirable as was also an all round increase in the duty of yarn, owing to its effect on the handloom industry. Their view was that protection to the cotton mill industry should be given in the form of an addition to the existing duty on all cotton manufactures other than yarn. The addition they recommended was 4 per cent and in discussing the form in which state aid could be given other than by changes in the tariff they proposed that the proceeds of the additional duty should be utilised in providing a stimulus to the production of goods of higher quality by the grant of a bounty on the spinning of higher counts of yarn. They, therefore, recommended that a bounty of one anna per pound, or its equivalent, should be given on all yarn of 32s and higher counts, based on the production of an average of 15 per cent. of the total spindleage in mills in British India. The operation of the bounty would be limited to four years, at the end of which period the operation of the new Japanese Factory Law would have removed the effect of the unfair competition from that country. It would also be limited to the production of 15 per cent. of the spindleage in any one mill and would not be given unless the total spindleage on the production of higher counts

exceeded 7½ per cent. and the average count spun was not below 34s.

Mr. Noyce held that this scheme would do nothing to help these mills which had no weaving departments or to solve the greatest problem before the Bombay mill industry that of meeting the increasing competition of other centres. He also considered that the administrative difficulties in working it would prove insuperable. In his view, the maximum amount of protection which could be justified was that which would offset the actual advantage per pound of yarn or per pound of cloth manufactured which was derived from double shift working in Japan. He, therefore, recommended the imposition of a differential duty of 4 per cent. on all cotton manufactures imported into India from Japan this duty to continue until the end of the financial year 1929-30.

Although the Board failed to agree in regard to the bounty scheme, it was unanimous in its views on other forms of State aid to the industry. It suggested assistance from Government if a satisfactory scheme for a combined bleaching, dyeing and printing plant could be put forward by the Bombay mill industry, the establishment of Trade Commissioners at Basra and Bombay and a rapid survey of the possibilities of the markets in other countries by a small mission consisting of an official and a nominee of the Bombay Millowners' Association. It also suggested that the Bombay mill industry should have its own representative in its principal export markets and that an expenditure incurred by the Bombay Millowners' Association in this respect should be supplemented for four years by the grant of an equal amount from Government up to a maximum of Rs. 25,000 annually. The question of assisting the industry by subsidising shipping freights was held to be one for investigation by the Trade Commissioners and the Commercial Mission. No justification was considered to exist for the grant of export bounties or the abolition of company super tax. Finally, the Board rejected the claim for special treatment of the hosiery industry and also that put forward by certain mills using imported yarn for the abolition of the duty on yarn of counts above 40s or for a rebate of the duty on such yarn.

Decision of the Government of India—

The Government of India dealt with the recommendations of the Board so far as these related to changes in the Tariff in a Resolution of the Commerce Department dated June 7th, 1927. They accepted Mr. Noyce's view that the proposed bounty scheme was impracticable and held that its rejection removed the principal reason advanced by the majority of the Board for a general increase in the import duty on cotton-piece goods. They further held that the advantages to Japan resulting from labour conditions, which they placed at 10 per cent, if a reasonable return on capital were included in the cost of production, was more than covered by the existing revenue duty of 11 per cent on cloth and that in these circumstances no additional duty on this account could be justified. The existing duty of 5 per cent. on yarn did not fully cover the Japanese advantage, but an additional duty was undesirable in view of its prejudicial effect on the handloom industry. The

menations of the Board in regard to the duty on machinery and mill stores were accepted in principle, but the Government of India held that differentiation between industries was undesirable. They, therefore, decided that the duty on all machinery and on certain mill stores should be remitted.

The decision of the Government of India led to a strong protest from a conference of representatives of the cotton mill industry which met at Bombay in June, and by a deputation of millowners which was subsequently received by the Viceroy at Simla. The representations thus made led to a reconsideration of the whole question by the Government of India and on August 16th, 1927, they announced that they had come to the conclusion that the cotton spinning industry could fairly claim additional assistance and that they had decided to bring before the Legislature a Bill providing that, up to the 31st March 1930, the duty on cotton yarn, irrespective of the country of origin, should be one and half annas per pound or 3 per cent. *ad valorem* whichever was higher. This meant that the specific duty would be leviable on all imported yarn, unless its value exceeded Rs. 1-14-0 per pound, in which case it would continue to be 1 per cent. *ad valorem*. In order to minimise the burden imposed on the handloom industry by the revised duty, the duty on artificial silk which was being used in increasing quantities by handloom weavers and in cotton mills would be reduced from 15 to 7½ per cent. The Government also decided to extend the list of mill stores exempted from duty. Two Acts embodying these decisions were passed at the September session of the Imperial Legislature.

The Government of India have accepted the recommendation of the Tariff Board that a

small Commercial Mission should be deputed to explore the potentialities of certain export markets. Dr D. B. Meek, the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, and Mr. T. Maloney, the Secretary of the Bombay Millowners' Association, have been deputed to undertake the investigation.

Miscellaneous Inquiries.—The Indian Tariff Board proper was engaged during the year on a number of miscellaneous enquiries. It took evidence in regard to railway waggons and underframes and their component parts, wire and wire nails, bolts and nuts, steel castings, machine belting, printing paper, ply wood and tea chests and matches. The only report published during the year was that on the duties on printing paper. The question referred to the Board was the interpretation of the entry in the Tariff schedule imposing a protective duty of one anna per pound on printing paper containing less than 65 per cent of mechanical wood pulp. The Government of India had ruled that the percentage of mechanical pulp should be calculated on the total weight of the paper and not merely on the fibre content. The effect of this ruling was to bring within the scope of the duty large quantities of imported news print which there appeared reason to believe it had been the intention of the Legislature to exclude when the Bamboo Paper Industry (Protection Act) of 1923 was passed. The Tariff Board reported in favour of excluding from the protective duty printing paper containing no mechanical wood pulp or in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to less than 65 per cent of the fibre content. Their recommendation was accepted by the Government of India and embodied in an Act passed at the September session of the Legislature.

COPYRIGHT.

There is no provision of law in British India for the registration of Copyright. The right of Copyright accrues under the Indian Copyright Act under which there is now no registration of rights, but the printer has to supply copies of these work as stated in that Act and in the Printing Presses and Books Act XXV of 1867. The Indian Copyright Act made such modifications in the Imperial Copyright Act of 1911 as appeared to be desirable for adapting its provisions to the circumstances of India. The Imperial Act of 1911 was brought into force in India by proclamation in the *Gazette of India* on October 30, 1912. Under s. 27 of that Act there is limited power for the legislature of British possessions to modify or add to the provisions of the Act in its application to the possession, and it is under this power that the Indian Act of 1914 was passed. The provisions of the Imperial Act applicable to British are scheduled to the Indian Act. The Act to which these provisions are scheduled are some adaptations of them to Indian law and procedure and of them in their applications, and musical compositions. In the first published in British India the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish a translation is, subject to an important proviso, to subsist only for ten years from the first publication of the work. The provisions of the Act as to mechanical instruments for producing musical sounds were found unsuitable to Indian conditions. "The majority of Indian melodies," it was explained in Council, "have not been published, i.e., written in staff notation, except through the medium of the phonograph. It is impossible in many cases to identify the original composer or author, and the melodies are subject to great variety of notation and tune. To meet these conditions s. 5 of the Indian Act follows the English Musical Copyright Act of 1902 by defining musical work as meaning any combination of melody and harmony, or either of them, printed, reduced to writing, or other wise graphically produced or reproduced."

Customs Tariff.

General import duties are levied for fiscal purposes and not for the protection of Indian industries. But the tariff has been modified with a view to admitting free or at favourable rates articles, the cheap import of which was considered necessary in the interests of the country. Thus certain raw materials, manures, agricultural implements and dairy appliances are admitted free. Machinery, printing materials, etc. are assessed at 2½ per cent. and iron and steel railway material and ships at 10 per cent. High duties are imposed on tobacco, liquors and matches.

Re-Imports.—Articles of foreign production on which import duty has been once paid, if subsequently exported, are on re-import exempted from duty on the following conditions:—

The Collector of Customs must be satisfied—

- (1) of the identity of the articles;
- (2) that no drawback of duty was paid on their export;
- (3) that the ownership has not changed between the time of re-export and subsequent re-import;
- (4) that they are private personal property re-imported for personal use, not merchandise for sale;
- (5) that not more than three years have passed since they were re-exported.

Duty is, however, charged on the cost of repairs done to the articles while abroad which should be declared by the person re-importing the articles in a form which will be supplied to him at the time of re-importation.

To facilitate identification on re-importation an export certificate giving the necessary particulars should be obtained from the Customs Department at the time of shipment of the articles which should be tendered for examination.

This concession of free entry on re-importation is not extended for the benefit of Companies or Corporate Bodies.

Drawbacks.—When any goods, capable of being easily identified which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and upon which duties of Customs have been paid on importation, are re-exported by sea from such Customs port to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on board a ship proceeding to a foreign port, seven-eighths of such duties shall, except as otherwise hereinafter provided, be repaid as drawback:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector at such Customs port and that the re-export be made within two years from the date of importation, as shown by the records of the Customs House, or within such

term as the Chief Customs Authority, or Chief Customs Officer on sufficient cause being shown in any case determines, provided further that the Chief Customs Officer shall not extend the term to a period exceeding 3 years.

When any goods, having been charged with Import duty at one Customs port and thence exported to another, are re-exported by sea as aforesaid, drawback shall be allowed on such goods as if they had been so re-exported from the former port:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Officer in-Charge of the Customs House at the port of final exportation, and that such final exportation be made within three years from the date on which they were first imported into British India.

No drawback shall be allowed unless the claim to receive such drawback be made and established at the time of re-export.

No such payment of drawback shall be made until the vessel carrying the goods has put out to sea, or unless payment be demanded within six months from the date of entry for shipment.

Every person, or his duly authorised agent claiming drawback on any goods duly exported, shall make and subscribe a declaration that such goods have been actually exported and have not been re-landed and are not intended to be re-landed at any Customs port; and that such person was at the time of entry outwards and shipment, and continues to be, entitled to drawback thereon.

Merchandise Marks.—Importers into India especially from countries other than the United Kingdom, would do well to make themselves acquainted with the law and regulations relating to merchandise marks. In Appendix II will be found the principal provisions of the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889, and connected Acts and the notifications issued thereunder. The following summary of the regulations in force does not claim to be exhaustive. For those seeking more complete information a reference is suggested to the Merchandise Marks Manual which is published under the authority of the Government of India and obtainable of all agents for the sale of Indian Government publications.

Infringements or offences may be classified conveniently under four heads:—

1. Counterfeit trade marks;
2. Trade descriptions that are false in respect of the country of origin;
3. Trade descriptions that are false in other respects; and
4. Lengths not properly stamped on piece-goods

Schedule II—(Import Tariff).

—In the expression "*ad valorem*" used in these Schedules the reference is to "real value" as defined in Section 30 of the Sea Customs Act 1878 (VIII of 1878), unless an article has a tariff value assigned to it.

—Tariff valued goods are based on the ordinary trade description of each article and cover all reduced grades and mixtures unless they are separately provided for.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
L—Food, Drink and Tobacco.			
FISH.			
FISH, SALTED, wet or dry	Indian maund of 82½ lbs. avoirdupois weight.	Such rate or rates of duty not exceeding one rupee as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> , from time to time prescribe,*
FISH excluding salted fish (<i>see</i> Serial No. 1)	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
FISHMAWS, (including singally and sozille, and sharkins.	"	15 " "
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.			
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES, all sorts, fresh, dried, salted or preserved.†	"	15 " "
<i>Tariff values.—</i>			
Almonds, without shell	cwt.	Rs. 98 0	15 " "
" Kagazi Persian in the shell ..	"	88 0	15 " "
" in the shell Persian	"	20 0	15 " "
Cashew or cajoo kernels	"	35 0	15 " "
Cocoanuts, Straits, Dutch East Indies and Siam.	thousand,	105 0	15 " "
" Maldives	"	30 0	15 " "
" other	"	45 0	15 " "
" kernel (khopra)	cwt.	22 0	15 " "
Dates, dry, in bags	"	12 0	15 " "
" wet, in bags, baskets and bundles ..	"	5 8	15 " "
" , in pots, boxes, tins and crates ..	"	12 0	15 " "
Figs, dried, Persian	"	13 0	15 " "
" " European	"	18 0	15 " "
Garlic	"	6 8	15 " "
Pistachio nuts	"	70 0	15 " "
Raisins, Red, Persian Gulf	"	13 0	15 " "

* The rate on the 1st January, 1928 and until further notice is annas 7½.

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No. 8, the 25th September 1920, Currants are liable to duty at Rs. 1-4-0 per cwt.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.		Rs a
GRAIN, PULSE AND FLOUR.		c
FLOUR except sago flour	<i>Ad valorem</i>
GRAIN AND PULSE, all sorts, including broken grains and pulse, but excluding flour (see Serial No 5 and 7).
SAGO FLOUR
LIQUORS.		
ALE, Beer, Porter, Cider and other fermented liquors.	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles	...
DENATURED SPIRIT	<i>Ad valorem</i>
PERFUMED SPIRITS	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles.
LIQUEURS, Cordials, Mixtures and other preparations containing spirit—		
(a) Entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Ditto.
(b) If tested	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof.	7. c.
All other sorts of SPIRIT	Ditto
WINES—		
Champagne and all other sparkling wines not containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit.	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles
All other sorts of wines not containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit.	Ditto.	...
Provided that all sparkling and still wines containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit shall be liable to duty at the rate applicable to "All other sorts of Spirit"	"	

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.		R ^s . a. p.	
PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES			
PROVISIONS OILMAN'S & STORES, AND GROCERIES.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
all sorts, excluding vinegar in casks (<i>see</i> Serial No. 7).			
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Butter	lb.	1 12 0	15 per cent.
Cassava, Tapioca or Sago (whole)	cwt.	12 0 0	15 " "
Cassava or Tapioca (sour)	"	10 2 0	15 " "
China preserves in syrup	Box of 6 large or 12 small jars.	8 8 0	15 " "
" " dry, candied.. .. .	lb.	0 7 0	15 " "
China canned fruit	case of 4 dozen.	15 0 0	15 " "
Cocum	cwt.	7 0 0	15 " "
Gbi	"	68 0 0	15 " "
Vegetable product	"	42 0 0	15 " "
Vermicelli, Gouri, from China and the Far East	"	25 0 0	15 " "
" Peas " " " " " "	"	32 0 0	15 " "
" Rice " " " " " "	"	13 8 0	15 " "
Yeast, from China and the Far East	"	29 0 0	15 " "
VINEGAR, in casks	<i>Ad valorem</i>	2½ " "
SACCHARINE.			
SACCHARINE (except in tablets)	lb.	R ^s . a. p. 5 0 0
SACCHARINE TABLETS	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent. or R ^s . 5 per pound of Saccharine Contents, whichever is higher.
SPICES.			
SPICES, all sorts—	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Betelnuts (husked)—			
Raw, or boiled whole, from Goa	cwt.	21 0 0	15 per cent.
Raw, or boiled whole, from Straits, Dutch East Indies and Siam.	"	18 0 0	15 " "
Raw, whole, from Ceylon	"	21 0 0	15 " "
Raw, split (sun-dried) from Ceylon	"	33 0 0	15 " "
Boiled, split or sliced	"	28 0 0	15 " "
Chillies, dry	"	25 0 0	15 " "
Cloves	"	32 0 0	15 " "
" exhausted	"	11 0 0	15 " "
" stems and heads	"	7 0 0	15 " "
" in seeds, nariayang	"	20 0 0	15 " "
Ginger, dry	"	33 0 0	15 " "
Mace	lb.	2 0 0	15 " "
Nutmegs	"	1 0 0	15 " "
" in shell	"	0 8 0	15 " "
Pepper, black	cwt.	65 0 0	15 " "
" long	"	90 0 0	15 " "
" white	"	90 0 0	15 " "

Customs Tariff

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation
I—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.		Rs. a P.
SUGAR.		
CONFECTIONERY	Ad valorem
SUGAR, excluding confectionery (see Serial No. 19)–		
(1) Sugar, crystallised or soft 33 Dutch Standard and above	cwt.
(2) Sugar, crystallised or soft inferior to 33 Dutch Standard but not inferior to 8 Dutch Standard
(3) Sugar, below 8 Dutch Standard, molasses and sugar candy.	Ad valorem
<i>Tariff values.</i>		
Molasses—		
(i) Imported in bulk by tank steamer ..	cwt.	1 10 6
(ii) otherwise imported	2 4 0
Sugar Candy	20 0 0
TEA.		
TEA		
<i>Tariff values.</i>		Ad valorem
Tea, black	lb.	0 11 6
„ green	1 2 0
OTHER FOOD AND DRINK.		
COFFEE..	Ad valorem
<i>Tariff value.</i>		
Coffee, other than roasted or ground ..	cwt.	35 0 0
HOPS
SALT, excluding Salt exempted under Serial No. 25	Indian maund of 82½ lbs. avoirdupois weight.	...

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.			
OTHER FOOD AND DRINK—contd.			
SALT imported into British India and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in any process of manufacture; also salt imported into the port of Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware; also salt imported into any port in the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in curing fish in those provinces. (For the general duty on salt, see Serial No. 24.)	Free.
ALL OTHER SORTS OF FOOD AND DRINK not otherwise specified.	ad valorem	15 per cent.
TOBACCO.			
CIGARS	75 " "
CIGARETTES of value—			Rs. s.
(a) not exceeding Rs. 10-8 per thousand ..	thousand.	7 0
(b) exceeding Rs. 10-8 per thousand	10 8
<i>Note.</i> —For the purposes of this item, "value" means real value as defined in Section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878, provided that the amount to be deducted on account of duties payable on importation to determine the real value in accordance with the provisions of clause (a) of the said Section shall be Rs. 7 per thousand.			
TOBACCO, unmanufactured	lb.	1 8
All other sorts of TOBACCO, manufactured	2 4
II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured.			
COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL.			
COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL	ton.	0 8
GUMS, RESINS AND LAC.			
STICK GINSENG LAC	Free.
GUMS, RESINS AND LAC, all sorts not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 32).	ad valorem	15 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Gambler, block and cube	cwt.	22 0	15 "
" in flakes or circular pieces ..	"	47 0	15 "
Gum Ammoniac	"	35 0	15 "
" Arabic	"	25 0	15 "
" Benjamin, raw	"	32 0	15 "
" .. cowrie	"	60 0	15 "
" Bysabol (coarse myrrh)	"	22 0	15 "
" Olibanum or frankincense	"	11 0	15 "
" Persian (false)	"	13 0	15 "
Myrrh	"	34 0	15 "
Rosin	"	17 0	15 "

Customs Tariff

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—cont

Names of Articles.	Per
II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.	
HIDES AND SKINS, RAW.	
HIDES AND SKINS, raw or salted..
METALLIC ORES AND SCRAP IRON OR STEEL FOR RE-MANUFACTURE.	
IRON OR STEEL, old..
<i>Tariff value.—</i>	
Iron or Steel, old	cwt
METALLIC ORES all sorts, except other and other pigment ores.	...
OILS.	
KEROSENE, also any mineral oil other than kerosene and motor spirit which has its flashing point below one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer by Abel's close test.	Imperial gallon
MOTOR SPIRIT	"
MINERAL OIL—	
(1) which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is ordinarily used for the batching of jute or other fibre;	ton
(2) which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is such as is not ordinarily used for any other purpose than for lubrication,	Imperial gallon
(3) which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purposes.
<i>Tariff value.—</i>	
Mineral oil which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purposes, if imported in bulk.	ton.
All sorts of animal, essential, mineral, and vegetable non-essential oil not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos 37, 38 and 39):—
<i>Tariff Values—</i>	
Cassia oil	lb.
Citronella oil	"
Coconut oil	cwt.
Kajiputty oil	lb.
Linseed oil, raw or boiled	Imperial gallon
Peppermint oil	lb.
SEEDS.	
OIL-SEEDS, imported into British India by sea from the territories of any Prince or Chief in India.	...
SEEDS, all sorts not otherwise specified

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
12—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.			
TALLOW, STEARINE AND WAX.			
TALLOW	Free.
All sorts of stearine, wax, grease and animal fat not otherwise specified.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
Tariff value— Vegetable wax	cwt.	55 0 0	15 per cent.
TEXTILE MATERIALS.			
COTTON, raw	Free.
TEXTILE MATERIALS, the following—	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
Silk waste, and raw silk including cocoons raw fax, hemp, jute and all other unmanufactured textile materials not otherwise specified.			
<i>Tariff values.—</i>			
Raw Silk—			
Bokhara	lb.	12 0 0	15 per cent
Yellow Shanghai	"	5 10 0	15 "
" other kinds	"	6 8 0	15 "
Mathow	"	4 8 0	15 "
Panjam	"	3 0 0	15 "
Persian	"	9 0 0	15 "
Siam	"	6 12 0	15 "
White Shanghai, Thonkoon or Duppon	"	4 4 0	15 "
" other kinds	"	6 8 0	15 "
" other kinds of China	"	7 0 0	15 "
Coir fibre	cwt.	8 4 0	15 "
Raw hemp	"	35 0 0	15 "
WOOL, raw, and wool-tops	Free.
WOOD AND TIMBER.			
FIREWOOD	<i>Ad valorem</i>	21 per cent.
WOOD AND TIMBER, all sorts, not otherwise specified, including all sorts of ornamental wood.	"	15 "
MISCELLANEOUS.			
CANES AND BATTANS	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.—</i>			
Canes—			
Malacca	100 pieces.	22 0 0	15 per cent.
Chinmy	"	11 0 0	15 "
Tries	"	8 0 0	15 "
Root Moonah	"	28 0 0	15 "
Mattan	"	18 8 0	15 "
Pole, all kinds	"	45 0 0	15 "
Tahite	cwt.	25 0 0	15 "

Customs Tariff

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation
II—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.		
MISCELLANEOUS.—(contd.)		
RATTANS—		
Chair	cwt.	20 0 0
Basket	"	10 8 0
Outers	"	75 0 0
Inners	"	38 0 0
CONCHES AND SHELLS—		
<i>Tariff values.—</i>		
Cowries, bazar, common	cwt.	6 0 0
" yellow, superior quality	"	8 0 0
" Maldivic	"	21 0 0
" Sankhli	"	120 0 0
Mother-of-pearl, nacre	"	20 0 0
Nakhla	"	120 0 0
Tortoise-shell	lb.	10 0 0
" nakh	"	2 0 0
IVORY, unmanufactured		
		<i>Ad valorem</i>
<i>Tariff values.—</i>		
Elephants' grinders	cwt.	300 0 0
" tusks (other than hollows, centres, and points), each exceeding 20 lb., in weight, and hollows, centres and points each weighing 10 lb. and over.	"	375 0 0
Elephants' tusks (other than hollows, centres, and points), not less than 10 lb. and not exceeding 20 lb. each, and hollows, centres, and points each weighing less than 10 lb.	"	725 0 0
Elephants' tusks each less than 10 lb. (other than hollows, centres and points).	"	490 0 0
Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 4 lbs.	"	275 0 0
Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 3 lbs. and under 4 lbs.	"	220 0 0
Sea-cow or moye teeth, each less than 3 lbs.	"	180 0 0
MANURES, all sorts, including animal bones and the following chemical manures:—Basic slag, nitrate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, muriate of potash, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, kainit salts, carbolime, urea, nitrate of lime, calcium cyanamide, mineral phosphates and mineral superphosphates.		
		...
PRECIOUS STONES, unset and imported uncut, and Pearls, unset.	..	.
PRECIOUS STONES, unset and imported cut (see Serial No. 54).	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>
PULP OF WOOD, rags and other paper-making materials
RUBBER STUMPS, rubber seeds and raw rubber
All other raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured, not otherwise specified *		
		<i>Ad valorem</i>

Customs Tariff

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured.			
APPAREL.			
ALL CLOTHING, including drapery, boots and shoes, and military and other uniforms and accoutrements, but excluding uniforms and accoutrements exempted from duty under Serial No. 60 and gold and silver thread (see Serial Nos. 107 and 108) and articles made of silk or silk mixtures (see Serial Nos. 124, 125 and 126).	..	Ad valorem.	15 per cent.
UNIFORMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS appertaining thereto imported by a public servant for his personal use.	Free
ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES.			
Subject to the exemptions specified in Serial No. 64.			
(1) Firearms, including gas and air guns, gas and air rifles and gas and air pistols, not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos. 65 and 165.)	each.	..	Rs. 10
(2) Barrels for the same, whether single or double.	Rs. 10
(3) Main springs and magazine springs for firearms.	Rs. 10
(4) Gun stocks and breech blocks	Rs. 10
(5) Revolver-cylinders, for each cartridge they will carry	Rs. 10
(6) Actions (including skeleton and waster); breech bolts and their heads, cocking pieces, and locks for muzzle loading arms.	Rs. 10
(7) Machines for making, loading, or closing cartridges for rifled arms.	..	Ad valorem	30 per cent.
(8) Machines for capping cartridges for rifled arms	30
GUNPOWDER for cannon, rifles, guns, pistols and sporting purposes	50
SUBJECT TO THE EXEMPTIONS SPECIFIED in Serial No. 64 all articles other than those specified in Serial Nos. 61, 65 and 165 which are arms or parts of arms with the exception of Indian Arms Act, 1878 and for air-guns which are exempted under Serial No. 84, all tools used for cleaning or putting together the same, all machines for making, loading, closing or capping cartridges for arms other than rifled arms and all other sorts of ammunition and military stores, and any articles which the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare to be ammunition or military stores of the p of this Act			
	30

Customs Tariff

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued*

Names of Articles.

Per

III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*

ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—*contd.*

following ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES:—

....

- (a) Articles falling under the 3rd, 4th, 6th, 7th or 8th sub-head of No. 61, when they appertain to a firearm falling under that item and are fitted into the same case with such firearm;
- (b) Arms forming part of the regular equipment of a commissioned or gazetted officer in His Majesty's Service entitled to wear diplomatic, military, naval, Royal, Air Force or police uniform;
- (c) A revolver and an automatic pistol and ammunition for such revolver and pistol up to a maximum of 100 rounds per revolver or pistol (i) when accompanying a commissioned officer of His Majesty's regular forces or of the Indian Auxiliary Force or the Indian Territorial Force or a Gazetted Police Officer, or (ii) certified by the commandant of the corps to which such Officer belongs, or, in the case of an Officer not attached to any Corps, by the Officer Commanding the Station or District in which such Officer is serving, or in the case of a Police Officer by an Inspector-General or Commissioner of Police, to be imported by the Officer for the purpose of his equipment;
- (d) Swords for presentation as Army or Volunteer Prizes;
- (e) Arms, ammunition and Military Stores imported with the sanction of the Government of India for the use of any portion of the Military Forces of a State in India which may be maintained and organised for Imperial Service;
- (f) Morris tubes and patent ammunition imported by Officers Commanding British and Indian Regiments or Volunteer Corps for the instruction of their men.

MENTAL ARMS of an obsolete pattern possessing only an antiquarian value; Masonic and theatrical and fancy dress swords, provided they are virtually useless for offensive or defensive purposes; and *dicks* intended exclusively for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes.

....

LOSIVES, namely, blasting gunpowder, blasting gelatine, blasting dynamite, blasting roquette, blasting tonite, and all other sorts including detonators and fuses

....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*contd.*

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES.			
AN-DESLIGHTS	Free.
BLEACHING PASTE and bleaching powder	Free.
COPPERAS, green	..	ad valorem.	2½ per cent.
<i>Tariff value.</i> Copperas, green, if imported in bulk	..	4 0 0	2½ per cent.
OPUM and its alkaloids and their derivatives	..	sear of 80 total.	Rs. 24 or 15 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.
QUINA BARK and the alkaloids extracted therefrom including Quinine.	Free.
MAGNESIUM CHLORIDE	Free
NITRATE	Free
CHEMICALS, Drugs and Medicines, all sorts, not otherwise specified.	..	ad valorem	15 per cent.
<i>Tariff values</i>			
Alkali, Indian (saji-khar)	15 per cent.
Alum (lump)	..	6 0 0	15 "
Ammonium chloride—
Muritate of Ammonia, crystalline	..	20 0 0	15 "
Sal ammoniac, sublimed	..	25 0 0	15 "
Other sorts, including compressed	..	22 0 0	15 "
Anhydrous ammonia gas	..	lb. 0 14 0	15 "
Arsenic (China mansil)	..	cwt. 70 0 0	15 "
Calcium chloride	..	4 8 0	15 "
Carbide of calcium	..	16 0 0	15 "
Carbonate of ammonia	..	32 0 0	15 "
Carbonic acid gas	..	0 3 0	15 "
Chlorine gas	..	0 4 8	15 "
Epsom salts (in bulk)	..	cwt. 2 8 0	15 "
Peppermint crystals	..	lb. 14 0 0	15 "
Potassium bichromate	..	cwt. 27 0 0	15 "
Silicate of soda (in liquid form)	..	3 0 0	15 "
Soda ash including calcined natural soda and manufactured sesqui-carbonates	..	6 0 0	15 "
Soda, bicarbonate	..	8 8 0	15 "
Soda, bichromate	..	22 8 0	15 "
Soda caustic, solid	..	10 8 0	15 "
" " flake	..	15 0 0	15 "
" " powdered	..	15 8 0	15 "
Soda crystals (in bulk)	..	7 0 0	15 "
Sodium Sulphide	..	8 8 0	15 "
Sulphate of copper	..	19 0 0	15 "
Torna or natural soda uncalcined	..	3 8 0	15 "
Asafoetida (hing)	..	100 0 0	15 "
coarse (hingra)	..	10 8 0	5 "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*contd.*

Names of Articles.

Per

III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*(CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES—*contd.*)

Laosiohan (bamboo camphor)	118
Calumba root	cwt.
Camphor refined, other than powder and slabs	lb.
" refined, slabs	"
" powder from Japan	"
" " China including Hong-	"
kong.	"
Camphor, synthetic, powder	"
Cassia lingua	cwt
China root (Chobchini) rough	"
" " " stripped	"
Cubeba	"
Calangal, China	"
Galap	"
Storax, liquid (rose mellos or salamas)	"

(CONVEYANCES.)

CARTS tipping wagons and the like conveyances designed for use on light rail track, if adapted to be worked by manual or animal labour and if made mainly of iron or steel, and component parts thereof made of iron or steel—

(a) if of British manufacture ton

(b) if not of British manufacture ton

CONVEYANCES not specified in Serial No. 75, namely, tramcars, motor-omnibuses, motor-lorries, motor vans, passenger lifts, carriages, carts, jinrikshas, bath-chairs, perambulators, trucks, wheelbarrows, bicycles, tricycles and all other sorts of conveyances not otherwise specified, and component parts and accessories thereof, except such parts and accessories of the motor vehicles above-mentioned as are also adapted for use as parts or accessories of motor cars, motor cycles or motor scooters (see Serial No. 77).

MOTOR CARS, MOTOR CYCLES and MOTOR SCOOTERS and articles (other than rubber tyres and tubes) adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof; provided that such articles as are ordinarily also used for other purposes than as parts and accessories of motor vehicles included in this item or in Serial No. 76 shall be dutiable at the rate of 5% specified in the tariff.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued*.

Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i> CUTLERY, HARDWARE IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS			
The following Agricultural implements, namely: winnowers, threshers, mowers and reapers, machines binding machines, elevators, seed and corn crushers, chaff-cutters, root-cutters, e silage-cutters, horse and bullock carts, ploughs, cultivators, scarifiers, harrows, cold chisels, seed-drills, hay-feeders, hay presses, potato diggers, latex sprays, spraying machines, or flasks; also agricultural tractors; also component parts of these implements or tractors or tractors, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the machines, machines or tractors for which they are reported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture.*			
ARTICLES plated with gold and silver ..		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
CLOCKS and WATCHES and parts thereof ..		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
CUTLERY, excluding plated cutlery (see Serial No. 11)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
The following Dairy Appliances, namely: cream separators, milk sterilizing or pasteurizing plant, milk aerating and cooling apparatus, churns, butter drivers, and butter workers: also component parts of these appliances, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the appliances for which they are reported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy purposes.*			Free
ELECTRICAL CONTROL, CLAY AND TRANSMISSION GUAR, namely, switches, fuses and circuit-breaking devices of all sorts and descriptions designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts, and regulators for the with motors designed to consume less than 187 watts per ohm of insulated copper wires and cables, any one core of which has a sectional area of less than one-eighth part of a square inch, and wires and cables of other metals of not more than equivalent conductivity, and line insulators including also cleats, connectors, leading in tubes and the like of types and sizes as are ordinarily used in connection with the transmission of power for other than industrial purposes, and the fittings thereof.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.

Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No. 18, the 17th June 1926, the following agricultural machines are exempt from payment of import

Best Pullers, Broadcast Seeders, Corn Pickers, Corn Shellers, Cultivators, Stalk Cutters, and Shredders, Potato, Planters, Lime Sowers, Manure Spreaders and Listers.

Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No. 109, the 22nd October 1927, Soil graders designed primarily for use as agricultural implements exempt from payment of import duty.

Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No. 27, the 5th August 1926, silver-plated surgical instruments are liable to duty at 15 per cent, and

Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No. 7, the 5th February 1927, Milking machines and such component parts thereof as can be readily fitted into their proper places in the machines and cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy purposes are exempt from payment of import duty.

Customs Tariff

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*contin*

Names of Articles.	Per
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>	
CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—<i>contd.</i>	
HARDWARE, ironmongery and tools, all sorts, not otherwise specified.
<i>Tariff value.</i>	
Crown corks	gross
INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances, imported by a passenger as part of his personal baggage and in actual use by him in the exercise of his profession or calling.
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS and parts thereof
TELEGRAPHIC INSTRUMENTS and APPARATUS, and parts thereof imported by, or under the orders of a Railway Company.
WATER-LIFTS, sugar-mills, oil-presses, and parts thereof, when constructed so that they can be worked by manual or animal power.
All other sorts of implements, instruments, apparatus and appliances and parts thereof, not otherwise specified. †
DYES AND COLOURS.	
DYES derived from coal-tar and coal-tar derivatives used in any dyeing process.
DYEING and Tanning Substances, all sorts not otherwise specified and paints and colours and painters' materials, all sorts
<i>Tariff values.</i>	
Azoe bark	cwt
Cochineal	lb.
Gallnuts, Persiau	cwt
Gamboge	lb.
Turmeric	cwt
Vermillion, Canton	box of 90 brindles
FURNITURE, CABINETWARE AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOD.	
FURNITURE, Cabinetware and all other manufactures of wood not otherwise specified.	.

Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) dated the 28th February 1925, apparatus for wireless telecommunication or reception whether by telegraphy or telephony (including apparatus which are essential for its working and have been given it or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose) with the for the time being of the importation by a 2½ per cent ad valorem

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>			
GLASSWARE AND EARTHENWARE.			
GLASS and GLASSWARE. Inlaid ware, earthenware, china and porcelain; all sorts except glass handles and beads and false pearls (<i>see</i> Serial No 94)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Aerated water bottles, empty—			
Cod's pattern—			
Under 10 ozs	gross,	28 0 0	15 per cent
10 ozs.	"	30 0 0	15 "
Over 10 ozs.	"	34 0 0	15 "
Crown cork pattern—			
7 ozs. and under	"	18 0 0	15 "
Over 7 ozs. up to and including 10 ozs ..	"	21 0 0	15 "
Over 10 ozs.	"	24 0 0	15 "
GLASS BANGLES and beads and false pearls		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Glass Bangles—			
China—			
Niruchi and pasalai	100 pairs	2 0 0	30 per cent.
Bracelet, Jodi and fancy, all kinds ..	"	5 0 0	30 "
Rajawariki, all kinds	"	7 0 0	30 "
Japan—			
Keshmi or lustre, plain or fancy, all colours—			
Vaknel or zigzag	doz. pairs,	0 2 0	30 per cent.
All others	"	0 1 0	30 "
Hollow or tube including new amber colour.	"	0 2 0	30 "
New gold (hollow or tube) including real gold colour.	"	0 3 0	30 "
Sonerikada (gobula)	"	0 3 0	30 "
European—			
Common, including plain colour, painted or flowered, but excluding vaknel or zigzag—			
Garnet and ruby, excluding pasalai ..	"	0 1 0	30 "
All colours, excepting garnet and ruby, but including pasalai.	"	0 2 6	30 "
Gilt and fancy, all sizes—			
K. flower or pressed garnet fancy, pressed durbar, fancy enamel and fancy moti-mala.	"	0 14 0	30 "
Chandlars, Keshira or Kalka durbar, rainbow fancy, coral fancy, salmadar or Salma durbar and momachi.	"	1 8 0	30 "
Pasalai and machine polished, thin, including patli-flower and fancy round rings, but excluding vaknel or zigzag.	"	0 6 0	30 "
Common mirror bangles including chasmas and Ranikdarbar.	"	0 9 0	30 "
Pasalai	"	0 4 0	30 "
Vaknel or zigzag, plain, all colours ..	"	0 10 0	30 "
Vaknel or zigzag, gilt and fancy, all colours.	"	1 0 0	30 "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—contd

Names of Articles,	Per
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd	
HIDES AND SKINS AND LEATHER.	
HIDES and SKINS not otherwise specified. Leather and Leather Manufactures, all sorts not otherwise specified.	...
MACHINERY.	
MACHINERY, namely, such of the following articles as are not otherwise specified:—	...
(1) prime-movers, boilers, locomotive engines and tenders for the same, portable engines (including power-driven road rollers, fire engines and tractors), and other machines in which the prime mover is not separable from the operative parts;	
(2) machines and sets of machines to be worked by electric, steam, water, fire or other power, not being manual or animal labour, or which before being brought into use require to be fixed with reference to other moving parts;	
(3) apparatus and appliances, not to be operated by manual or animal labour, which are designed for use in an industrial system as parts indispensable for its operation and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose;	
(4) control gear, self-acting or otherwise, and transmission-gear designed for use with any machinery above specified, including belting of all materials and driving chains but excluding driving ropes not made of cotton;	
(5) bare hard-drawn electrolytic copper wires and cables and other electrical wires and cables, insulated or not; and poles, troughs, conduits and insulators designed as parts of a transmission system, and the fittings thereof	
<p>NOTE—The term "industrial system" used in sub-clause (3) means installation designed to be employed directly in the performance of any process, or series of processes necessary for the manufacture, production or extraction of any commodity.</p>	

Schedule II —(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
MACHINERY—<i>contd.</i>			
The following textile machinery and apparatus, by whatever power operated, namely, bobbins, beak cards and beak knitting needles, reeds and shuttles; warp and weft preparation machinery and looms, bobbins and pins, dobbies, Jacquard machines, Jacquard harness loom cards, Jacquard cards, punching plates for Jacquard cards; warping mills; multiple box shutes, solid or let sleys, tape sleys, swivel sleys, tape looms; wool carding machines, wool spinning machines, hosiery machinery; felt mat shearing machines, ear fibre allowing machines; beak knitting machines, dobby cars; lathes and lags for dobbies; wooden winders; silk looms; silk throwing and reeling machines; cotton yarn reeling machines; sizing machines; doubling machines, silk twisting machines, cone winding machines, piano card mending machines; harness building frames; card lacing frames; drawing and denting hooks; sewing thread balls making machines, burlap finishing machinery, hank rollers, cotton carding and spinning machines; mul eyes, flugs, combler boards and combler board frames, take-up motions, temples and pickers, picking bands; picking sticks; printing machines, roller cloth, clearer cloth; sizing lannel and roller skins.	Free.
Printing and Lithographic Material, namely: presses, aluminium lithographic plates, composing sticks, chase, imposing tables, lithographic stones, stereo-blocks, wood blocks, half-tone blocks, electrotpe blocks, roller moulds, roller frames and stocks, roller composition, standing screw and hot presses, perforating machines, gold blocking presses, galley presses, proof presses, arming presses, copper plate printing presses, rolling presses, ruling machines, ruling pen making machines, lead and rule cutters, type casting machines, type setting and casting machines, rule bending machines, rule nutting machines, bronzing machines, stereotyping apparatus, paper folding machines, and paging machines, but excluding ink and paper.*	Free.
Component Parts of Machinery as defined in Serial Nos. 86, 97 and 98, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of the machine or apparatus and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose.	Free.

Customs Tariff

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*contd.*

Names of Articles.	Per
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>	
MACHINERY—<i>concl'd.</i>	
<p>Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the machine to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.</p>	
MACHINERY and component parts thereof, meaning machines or parts of machines to be worked by manual or animal labour, not otherwise specified and any machines (except such as are designed to be used exclusively in industrial processes) which require for their operation less than one quarter of one brake-horse-power.	.
METALS, IRON AND STEEL	
IRON alloys
IRON ANGLE, channel and tee—	
(a) fabricated, all qualities—	
(i) of British manufacture	ton,
(ii) not of British manufacture	"
(b) not fabricated, kinds other than galvanized, tinned or lead-coated and other than Crown or superior qualities—	
(i) of British manufacture	ton
(ii) not of British manufacture	"
IRON ANGLE, channel and tee not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial No. 101b).	...
<i>Tariff values.—</i>	"
Angle, channel and tee—	
Crown and superior qualities not fabricated	ton
Other kinds, not fabricated, if galvanized, tinned or lead coated.	"

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
<p>III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i></p> <p>METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i></p>			
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
IRON common bar not galvanized, tinned or lead-coated if not of any shape and dimension specified in clause (a) or clause (c) of Serial No 102c—			
(i) of British manufacture	ton.	..	26 0 0
(ii) not of British manufacture	37 0 0
IRON BAR AND ROD not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 101d).	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent.
<i>Tariff value—</i>			
bar and rod—			
Qualities superior to Grade A of the British Engineering Standard Association.	ton.	350 0 0	10
Grade A of the British Engineering Standard Association and Crown quality and intermediate qualities—			
Over $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter or thickness	190 0 0	10
$\frac{1}{2}$ inch and under in diameter or thickness.	..	220 0 0	10
Common, if galvanized, tinned, or lead-coated	180 0 0	10
IRON PIG	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10
<i>Tariff value—</i>			
Iron pig	ton.	75 0 0	10
IRON rice bowls	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10
<i>Tariff value—</i>			
Iron rice bowls	cwt.	20 0 0	10
STEEL, angle and tee if galvanized, tinned or lead-coated.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10
<i>Tariff value—</i>			
Angle and tee, if galvanized, tinned or lead-coated, not fabricated.	ton.	180 0 0	10
STEEL angle and tee, not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 102a) and beam, channel, zed, trough and piling—			
(a) fabricated—			
(i) of British manufacture	ton.	..	Rs. 21 or 17 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.
(ii) not of British manufacture	ton.	..	Rs. 21 or 17 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher, plus Rs. 15 per ton.
(b) not fabricated—			
(i) of British manufacture	to.	..	Rs. a. p. 9 0 0
not of	20 0 0

Customs Tariff

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*cont'd*

Names of Articles.	Per
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>cont'd.</i>	
METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>cont'd.</i>	
STEEL BAR AND ROD, the following kinds—	...
(a) shapes specially designed for the reinforcement of concrete, if the smallest dimension is under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch;	
(b) all shapes and sizes, if—	
(i) of alloy, crucible, shear, blister or tub steel, or	
(ii) galvanized or coated with other metals, or	
(iii) planished or polished including bright steel shafting,	
(c) other qualities, if of any of the following shapes and sizes—	
(i) rounds under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter	
(ii) squares under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch side	
(iii) flats, if under 1 inch wide and not over $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick,	
(iv) flats not under 8 inches wide and not over $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick,	
(v) ovals, if the dimension of the major axis is not less than twice that of the minor axis,	
(vi) all other shapes, any size.	
<i>Tariff values.—</i>	
Bar and rod—	
Galvanized or coated with other metals, all shapes and sizes.	ton.
Planished or polished, including bright steel shafting, all shapes and sizes.	..
STEEL, BAR AND ROD, not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial No. 102c)—	
(i) of British manufacture	ton.
(ii) not of British manufacture
STEEL, (other than bars), alloys, crucible, shear, blister and tub
STEEL, (other than bars) made for springs and cutting tools by any process.
STEEL, ingots, blooms and billets, and slabs of a thickness of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches or more.	..

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
* III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>		Rs. a p.	
METALS, IRON AND STEEL— <i>contd.</i>			
STEEL STRUCTURES, in plate, partially or wholly, not otherwise specified if made mainly or wholly of steel bars, sections, plates or sheets for the construction of buildings, bridges, tanks, well cylinders, towers and similar structures or for parts thereof but not including builders' hardware (see Serial No. 84) or any of the articles specified in Serial Nos. 76, 96, 99 or 150—			
() of British manufacture	ton	Rs. 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher.
() not of British manufacture	"	Rs. 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher, plus Rs. 15 per ton.
STEEL, tinplates and tinned sheets, including tin taggers and cuttings of such plates, sheets or taggers	"	"	Rs. 18
IRON OR STEEL anchors and cables	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent.
IRON OR STEEL bolts and nuts, including hookbolt- and nuts for roofing.	"	"	10 "
IRON OR STEEL EXPANDED METAL	"	"	10 "
IRON OR STEEL HOOPS AND STRIPS	"	"	10 "
IRON OR STEEL NAILS, WIRE OR FRENCH	cwt.	"	Rs. 3.
IRON OR STEEL NAILS, rivets and washers, all sorts not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 102).	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Nails, rivets and washers—			
Nails, rose, deck, and flat-headed	cwt.	18 0 0	10 "
" bullock and horse-shoe	"	45 0 0	10 "
Panel pins, 16 gauge and smaller	"	14 0 0	10 "
Rivets, boiler-makers' or structural, 16 black	"	10 0 0	10 "
Washers, black, structural	"	12 0 0	10 "
IRON OR STEEL PIPES and tubes and fittings there- for, if riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets—			
(a) galvanized	ton	-	Rs. 33 or 17 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher.

Customs Tariff

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		
METALS. IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i> IRON OR STEEL PIPES and tubes and fittings there- for riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets— <i>contd.</i>		
(b) not galvanized—		
(i) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick— of British manufacture	ton	...
not of British manufacture
(ii) under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick— of British manufacture
not of British manufacture
IRON OR STEEL PIPES AND TUBES; also fittings therefor, that is to say, bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves, cocks and the like, excluding pipes, tubes and fittings therefor otherwise specified (see Serial No. 103a).		
IRON OR STEEL PLATES OR SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick and not of cast iron—		
(a) fabricated, all qualities—		
(i) of British manufacture	ton	..
(ii) not of British manufacture
(b) not fabricated, chequered and ship, tank, bridge and common qualities—		
(i) of British manufacture
(ii) not of British manufacture

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Variation	Duty
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>combs</i>.			
METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>combs</i>.			
IRON OR STEEL PLATES AND SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos 102 <i>k</i> , 102 <i>l</i> , 103 <i>g</i> and 103 <i>h</i> , whether fabricated or not.	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Plates and sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick—			
Dollar fire-box and special quantities, not fabricated.	ton	250 0 0	10 ..
Galvanized, plain, not fabricated	215 0 0	10 ..
IRON OR STEEL SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, whether fabri- cated or not, if coated with metals other than tin or zinc.	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 ..
IRON OR STEEL SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick—			
(a) fabricated—			
(i) galvanized	ton	Rs. 33 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher
(ii) all other sorts, not otherwise speci- fied (see Serial No. 103 <i>k</i>)—			
of British manufacture	Rs. 39 or 17 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher.
not of British manufacture	Rs. 39 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher, plus Rs. 26 per ton.
(b) not fabricated—			
(i) galvanized	Rs. 39.
(ii) all other sorts, not otherwise speci- fied (see Serial Nos 102 <i>k</i> and 103 <i>k</i>).			
of British manufacture	Rs. 35
not of British manufacture	Rs. 59.

Customs Tariff

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.		
METALS, IRON AND STEEL—contd.		
IRON OR STEEL RAILWAY TRACK MATERIAL—		
A Rails (including tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved)—		
(a) (i) 30 lbs. per yard and over . (ii) fish-plates therefor ..	ton
(ii) spikes and tie-bars therefor— of British manufacture . not of British manufacture ..	,
(b) under 30 lbs. per yard, and fish- plates, spikes and tie-bars therefor— of British manufacture .. not of British manufacture ..	,
B Switches and crossings and the like mate- rials not made of alloy steel, including switches and crossings and the like ma- terials for tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved—		
(i) for rails 30 lbs. per yard and over.	..	.
(ii) for rails under 30 lbs per yard— of British manufacture . . . not of British manufacture
C Sleepers, other than cast iron, and keys and distance pieces and the like for use with such sleepers.		

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. a. p.	
METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i>			
IRON OR STEEL RAILWAY track material not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos. 103a and 117) including bearing plates, cast iron sleepers and fastenings therefor, and lever-boxes.	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent.
IRON OR STEEL TRAMWAY track material not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 103a), including rails, fish-plates, tie-bars, switches, crossings and the like materials of shapes and sizes specially adapted for tramway tracks.	.	"	10 "
IRON OR STEEL barbed or stranded fencing-wire and wire-rope.	.	"	10 "
IRON OR STEEL WIRE other than barbed or stranded fencing wire, wire-rope or wire-netting.	ton	"	Rs. 60.
IRON OR STEEL (other than bar or rod) specially designed for the reinforcement of concrete	"	10 per cent.
IRON OR STEEL, the original material (but not including machinery) of any ship or other vessel intended for inland or foreign navigation which has been assembled abroad, taken to pieces and shipped for reassembly in India:— Provided that articles dutiable under this item shall not be deemed to be dutiable under any other item.	ton	Rs. 23 or 10 per cent. whichever is higher.
ALL SORTS OF IRON AND STEEL manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified.	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
Iron and Steel cans or drums— When imported containing kerosene and motor spirit, namely:—			
(a) cans, tinued, of four gallons capacity ..	can	0 9 0	15 "
Cans or drums not tinued, of two gallons capacity—			
(a) with hinged caps	can or drum	1 8 0	15 "
(b) ordinary	"	0 5 0	15 "
Drums of four gallons capacity			
(a) with hinged caps	drum	2 8 0	15 "
(b) ordinary	"	1 0 0	15 "
METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL			
CURRENT NICKEL, bronze, and copper coin of the Government of India.	Free.
GOLD AND SILVER bullion and coin	"
GOLD PLATE, gold thread and wire, and gold manufactures, all sorts.	.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
SILVER PLATE silver thread and wire, and silver manufactures, all sorts.	.	"	30 "

Customs Tariff

Schedule II. Import Tariff—continued

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. o. p.
METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i>		
LIN block	ton	
ZINC, unwrought, including cakes, ingots, tiles (other than boiler tiles), hard or soft slabs and plates, dust, dross and ashes; and broken zinc.	
ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL and manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified.	. . .	<i>Ad valorem</i>
<i>Tariff values.</i>		
Aluminium circles	lb	0 12 6
" sheets, plain	0 11 6
Brass, patent or yellow metal, sheets and sheathing, weighing 1 lb. or above per square foot, and brasses, and plates	cwt.	46 0 0
Brass, patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) ingots.	..	33 0 0
Brass, patent or yellow metal (including gun metal old.)	..	28 0 0
Copper, brasses, sheets, plates and sheathing.	..	48 0 0
" old	"	33 0 0
" pigs, tales, ingots, cakes, bricks and slabs.	"	46 0 0
" China, white, copperware	lb	3 0 0
" toll or dankpana, plain, white, 10 to 11 in. $\frac{3}{4}$ to 5 in.	hundred leaves.	1 10 0
" toll or dankpana, plain, coloured, 10 to 11 in. $\frac{3}{4}$ to 5 in.	..	1 12 0
Lead, pig	cwt.	22 0 0
Quicksilver	lb	8 4 0
PAPER, PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY.		
Paper and articles made of paper and papier mache, pasteboard, millboard, and cardboard, all sorts, and stationery, including drawing and copy books, labels, advertising circulars, sheet or card almanacs and calendars, Christmas, Easter, and other cards, including cards in booklet form, including also waste paper and old newspapers for packing, but excluding trade catalogues and advertising circulars imported by packet, book, or parcel post (<i>see</i> Serial No. 115) and postage stamps whether used or unused (<i>see</i> Serial No. 116) and paper and stationery otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial Nos. 113 and 114).	<i>Ad valorem</i>
<i>Tariff values.</i>		
Old newspapers in bales and bags ..	cwt.	5 0 0
Printing paper (excluding chrome, marble, flint, poster and stereo) in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to not less than 65 per cent of the fibre content, glazed or unglazed, white or grey.	lb.	0 2 0

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.			
PAPER, PASTEBOARD, AND STATIONERY —contd.		Rs. a. p.	
Packing and wrapping paper—			
Machine-glazed pressings	lb.	0 2 6	15 per cent
Manilla, machine-glazed or unglazed, and sulphate envelope.	"	0 2 9	15 "
Kraft and imitation kraft		0 2 9	15 "
Straw boards	cwt.	7 0 0	15 "
Printing paper (excluding chrome, marble, flint, poster and stereo), all sorts which contain no mechanical wood pulp or in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to less than 65 per cent of the fibre content.	lb.	...	One anna.
WRITING PAPER—			
(a) Ruled or printed forms (including letter paper with printed headings) and account and manuscript books and the binding thereof.	lb.	...	One anna or 15 per cent ad valorem, whichever is higher.
(b) All other sorts	lb.	...	One anna.
TRADE CATALOGUES and advertising circulars imported by packet, book, or parcel post.	Free.
POSTAGE STAMPS, whether used or unused	"
RAILWAY PLANT AND ROLLING-STOCK			
Railway materials for permanent-way and rolling-stock, namely—sleepers, other than iron and steel, and fastenings therefor; bearing plates, fish bolts and nuts, chairs, interlocking apparatus, brake-gear, shunting skids, couplings, and springs, signals, turntables, weighbridges, carriages, wagons, tip-wagons, rail removers, scooters, trollies, trucks, and component parts thereof; switches, crossings and the like materials made of alloy steel; also cranes, water cranes and water-tanks when imported by or under the orders of a railway company.*		Ad valorem	10 per cent.
Provided that for the purpose of this entry 'railway' means a line of railway subject to the provisions of the Indian Railways Act, 1900, and includes a railway constructed in a State in India and also such trainways as the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, specifically include therein:			
Provided also that articles of machinery as defined in Serial No. 96 or No. 99 shall not be deemed to be included hereunder			
Component Parts of Railway Material, as defined in Serial No. 117, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of railways and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose:	Ad valorem	10 per cent;

Under the Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 20, the 2nd April 1927, cranes, water-cranes and water-tanks when imported by the administration being a railway company of any railway as defined in the laws previous to this item, are to duty at 0 per cent ad valorem.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Serial No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.		Rs. s. p.	Rs. s. p.
	RAILWAY PLANT AND ROLLING-STOCK <i>—nov. id.</i> Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the railway material to which they belong, if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.			
	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS.			
119	ARTIFICIAL SILK YARN AND THREAD	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	7½ per cent.
120	COTTON PIECE-GOODS	"	11 "
121	COTTON TWIST AND YARN and cotton sewing or darning thread.	..	"	5 " or 1½ anna per cent. whichever is higher.
122	SECOND-HAND or used gunny bag or cloth made of jute.	Free.
123	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS, that is to say — Cotton thread other than sewing or darning thread, and all other manufactured cotton goods not otherwise specified. FLAX, twist and yarn, and manufactures of flax. Haberdashery and millinery excluding articles made of silk (see Serial No 128) Hemp manufactures. Hosiery, excluding articles made of silk (see Serial No 128). Jute, twist and yarn, and jute manufactures, excluding second-hand or used gunny bags or cloth (see Serial No. 122). Silk yarn, moles and warps and silk thread. Woolen yarn, knitting wool, and other manufactures of wool including felt All other sorts of yarns and textile fabrics, not otherwise specified	...	<i>Ad valorem</i>	13 per cent.
124	SILK GOODS used or required for medical purposes, namely—silk ligatures; elastic silk hosiery, elbow pieces, thigh pieces, knee caps, leggings, socks, anklets, stockings, suspensory bandages, silk abdominal belts, silkweb, catheter tubes and oiled silk.	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
125	SILK mixtures, that is to say — (a) fabrics composed in part of some other textile than silk and in which any portion either of the warp or of the weft but not of both silk; (b) fabrics not being silk on which silk is superimposed such as embroidered fabrics; (c) articles made from such fabrics and not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 124).	20 "
	<i>N.B.—For tariff values under this item see Serial No 126 below</i>			

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—concluded.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—concluded		Rs. a. p.	
YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—concluded			
SILK PIECE-GOODS, and other manufactures of silk not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos. 124 and 125).		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
<i>At tariff values.</i> Silk piece-goods (white or coloured, plain or figured and all widths) from Japan and China (including Hongkong)—			
<i>Japan—</i>			
Paj, all kinds, including Habuta, Thema, Jucken and Nankin and including striped, printed, woven so-called (i.e., swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered), embossed and pin-ripples but excluding all kinds of Shioji or Shui Paj.	lb.	20 8 0	
Satins, Taffetas and Koliakas, all kinds, including striped, printed, woven so-called (i.e., swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered), and embossed		22 8 0	
Twill, all kinds		21 8 0	
Tartan (gold embroidered)		24 8 0	
Fugi and Boreki, all kinds		11 0 0	
Fancies printed and woven so-called (i.e., swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered) including Gorgeottes, crepes, nuns, gauzes, and all kinds of Shioji or Shui Paj		27 8 0	
Embroideries and embroidered piece-goods, excluding Burmese scarves.		44 0 0	
Shawls, diaries, handkerchiefs, hosiery, mufflers and scarves, excluding Burmese scarves.		33 0 0	
Dupettas and China silk patkas		16 0 0	
Burmese scarves—(a) Paj or Habuta:		40 0 0	
(b) Other kinds		47 0 0	
Cotton and silk mixed satins, embroidered		14 0 0	
Cotton and silk mixed satins, other kinds		10 0 0	
Cotton and silk mixed hosiery		23 0 0	
Cotton and silk mixed Fugi and Boreki, all kinds.		9 0 0	
Silk Fents		9 0 0	
<i>China (including Hongkong but excluding Canton)—</i>			
Honans, all kinds, and patkas		7 12 0	
Shantings and Tussore, all kinds, including patkas.		6 0 0	
White Corded all kinds, excepting white cords		5 0 0	
White cords, all kinds		10 8 0	
Crepes, gauze, and paj, all kinds		20 0 0	
Satins and fancies all kinds, including longies and stripes, Taffetas, and Pagris, all kinds		13 0 0	
Fugi and Boreki, all kinds		10 0 0	
V B These values are also applicable to silk under Serial V			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff).

Names of Articles.	Per.	Tariff values
III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs. a l
MISCELLANEOUS.		
AEROPLANES, aeroplane parts, aeroplane engines, or aeroplane engine parts and rubber tyres and tubes used exclusively for aeroplanes.	..	Ad valorem
ART the following works of.—(1) Statuary and pillars intended to be put up for the public benefit in a public place, and (2) memorials of a public character intended to be put up in a public place, including the materials used, or to be used in their construction, whether worked or not.
ART works of, excluding those specified in Serial No. 128.	Ad val rem
BOOKS PRINTED, including covers for printed books, maps, charts, and plans, proofs, music and manuscripts.
Brushes and brooms.	...	Ad valorem
Building and Engineering Materials, including asphalt, bricks, cement (other than Portland cement), chalk and lime, clay, pipes of earthenware, tiles, firebricks not being component parts of any article included in Serial No. 96 or No. 117 and all other sorts of building and engineering materials not otherwise specified including bitumen and other insulating materials.	...	"
CANDLES	"
CHINA CLAY	"
CINEMATOGRAPH FILMS	Ad valorem
<i>Tariff values.</i>		
Exposed standard positive films, new or used—		
Proved to have been printed from negatives produced in India.	Foot	0 1 0
Others		0 1 0
Cordage and rope and twine of vegetable fibre not otherwise specified.	Ad valorem
<i>Ad valorem.</i>		
Coir yarn	ewt.	13 0 0
Fire works specially prepared as danger or distress lights for the use of ships.	Ad valorem
FIRLWORKS not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial No. 137)
FURNITURE tackle and apparel, and otherwise described, for steam-sailing, rowing and other vessels.
IVORY, manufactured
JEWELLERY AND JEWELS
MATCHES—		
(1) In boxes containing on the average not more than 100 matches.	gross of boxes	..
(2) In boxes containing on the average more than 100 matches.	For every 25 matches or fraction thereof in each box.	..
	per gross of boxes.	

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff).

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Duty
III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
MISCELLANEOUS—<i>contd.</i>			Rs. a. p.
Undipped splints such as are ordinarily used for match making.	lb.	..	0 4 6
Boxes such as are ordinarily used for making match boxes, including boxes and parts of boxes made of such materials.	"	..	0 6 0
MATS AND MATTING	...	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
OILCAKES	"	..	15 "
OILCLOTH AND FLOOR CLOTH	15 "
PACKING—Engine and Boiler—all sorts, excluding 1. King forming a component part of any article included in Serial Nos 96 and 117.	15 "
PERUMENT, not otherwise specified	15 "
<i>At valorem.</i>			
Gowin, husked and unhusked	cwt.	65 0 0	15 "
Kapurkachi (zedoory)	..	26 0 0	15 "
Patch leaves (patchouli)	..	27 0 0	15 "
Rose-flowers, dried	..	20 0 0	15 "
PITCH, tar and dammer	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
<i>At valorem.</i>			
Coal pitch	cwt.	5 0 0	15 "
Stockholm pitch	..	18 0 0	15 "
Stockholm tar	..	15 0 0	15 "
Dammer Bark	..	8 0 0	15 "
POLISHES and compositions	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
PORTLAND CEMENT	ton	..	Rs. 9.
PRINTING INK	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	5 per cent.
The following printing material, namely, type, leads, brass rules, wooden and metal quoins, shooting sticks and galleys and metal furniture	2½ "
PRINTS, Engravings and Pictures, including photographs and picture post cards.*	30 "
ROPE for the withering of tea leaf	2½ "
ROPE, cotton	Free.
RUBBER TYRES and other manufactures of rubber, not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial No 127.)	..	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
SHIPS and other vessels for inland and harbour navigation, including steamers, launches, boats and barges imported entire or in sections:— Provided that articles of machinery as defined in Serial No. 96 or No 99 shall, when separately imported, not be deemed to be included hereunder	10 "
SMOKERS' requisites, excluding tobacco (Serial Nos 27 to 30) and matches (Serial No. 142).	30 "

Under Government of India Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 109-12, dated the 17th March 1925 insignia and badges of official British and Foreign Orders are exempt from payment of import duty.

Under Government of India Notification No. 1428, dated 17th November 1923, Jute Bag as are used for paper making, are exempt from payment of export duty provided that the Collector is satisfied that they are useless for any purpose to which cloth or rope is ordinarily put.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff).

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		
MISCELLANEOUS—<i>contd.</i>		
SOAP	<i>Ad valorem</i>
<i>Tariff value.</i>		
Soft soap	cwt	15 8 0
STARCH and farina	
STONE AND MARBLE, and articles made of stone and marble	<i>Ad valorem</i>
TOILET REQUISITES, not otherwise specified	"
TOYS, games, playing cards and requisites for games and sports, including bird-shot, toy cannons, air guns and air pistols for the time being excluded in any part of British India, from the operation of all the prohibitions and directions contained in the Indian Arms Act, 1878; and bows and arrows.	"
<i>Tariff value.</i>		
Bird-shot	cwt	38 0 0
All other articles wholly or mainly manufactured, not otherwise specified.	<i>Ad valorem</i>
<i>Tariff values</i>		
Bangles—		
Celluloid, plain, flat, with and without border and grooved but excluding double border.	dozen	
Celluloid (rubber rings excluding coils) ..	pais.	1 14 0
MISCELLANEOUS and Unclassified	"	0 6 0
ANIMALS, living, all sorts	"
CORAL	<i>Ad valorem</i>
FODDER, bran and pollards	"
Specimens illustrative of natural science, and medal and antique coins	"
UMBRELLAS, including parasols and sun-shades, and fittings therefor	...	<i>Ad valorem</i>
<i>Tariff values</i>		
Umbrella ribs other than nickelled, brassed, fluted or metal tipped—		
Solid Flexus, all sizes—		
From Japan	Dozen	1 10 0
From other countries	Sets of 3.	2 5 0
Solids, 23, 25 and 27 inches	Dozen	2 5 0
Solids, 16, 19 and 21 inches	Sets of 12	1 4 0
	Dozen	
	Sets of 8	
All other articles not otherwise specified, including articles imported by post*	<i>Ad valorem</i>

Under Government of India. Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification the 26th 8c 1926 hides and skin cuttings and fleasings such are used for exempt from payment of export duty

Schedule III.—(Export Tariff).

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
JUTE, OTHER THAN BIMLIPATAM JUTE.			
RAW JUTE—		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
(1) Cuttings	Bale of 400 lbs.	...	1 4 0
(2) All other descriptions	"	...	4 8 0
JUTE MANUFACTURES, when not in actual use as coverings, receptacles or bindings for other goods—			
(1) Sacking (cloth, bags, twill, yarn, rope and twine).	Ton of 2,240 lbs.	20 0 0
(2) Hessians and all other descriptions of jute manufactures not otherwise specified.*	"	32 0 0
HIDES AND SKINS.			
RAW HIDES AND SKINS—†		<i>Ad valorem</i>	5 per cent.
<i>Tariff values.</i>			
If exported from Burma—			
(1) Arsenicated and air-dried hides—			
(a) Cows (including calf skins) ..	lb.	0 8 3 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) ..	"	0 8 8 0	"
(2) Dry salted hides—			
(a) Cows (including calf skins) ..	"	0 4 8 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) ..	"	0 2 9 5	"
(3) Wet salted hides—			
(a) Cows (including calf skins) ..	"	0 3 6 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) ..	"	0 2 0 5	"
(4) Goat and kid skins	Piece	0 13 6 5	"
(5) Sheep skins	"	0 8 0 5	"
If exported from any place in British India other than Burma—			
(1) Arsenicated and air-dried hides—			
(a) Cows (including calf skins) Framed. ..	lb.	0 9 6 5	"
(a) Cows (including calf skins) Unframed ..	"	0 6 0 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) Framed ..	"	0 7 0 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) Unframed ..	"	0 4 6 5	"
(2) Dry salted hides—			
(a) Cows (including calf skins) ..	"	0 6 6 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) ..	"	0 3 6 5	"
(3) Wet salted hides—			
(a) Cows (including calf skins) ..	"	0 4 0 5	"
(b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) ..	"	0 2 6 5	"
(4) Goat and kid skins	Piece	1 8 0 5	"
(5) Sheep skins	"	1 0 0 5	"
RICE.			
RICE, husked or unhusked, including rice flour, but excluding rice bran and rice dust, which are free	Indian maund of 82 lbs. avoirdupois weight.	Three annas.

* Under Government of India Notification No. 1428, dated 17th November 1923, Jute Raas as are used for paper-making are exempt from payment of export duty provided that the Collector is satisfied that they are useless for any purpose to which cloth or rope is ordinarily put.

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 35, the 25th September 1926, hide and skin cuttings and dressings, such as are used for glue-making, are exempt from payment of export duty.

Trade.

India is pre-eminently an agricultural country and that fact dominates the course of its trade. The great export staples are the produce of the soil—wheat, seeds, cotton and jute. If we look back on the course of Indian trade over a long period of years we shall note a striking development towards stability. In the days that are past, the outturn of the soil was subjected to periodic shocks from famines arising from the failure of the rains, when the export trade in these staples dwindled to small proportions. But the spread of irrigation has produced a great change, and though no doubt in future heavy losses may be incurred from the weakness of the monsoons, they are never likely to be as catastrophic as in such years as 1899-97 and 1899-1900. Well over thirty per cent of the cultivable area of the Punjab is under irrigation, and huge new works are in progress to utilise the waters of the Satlej, and of the Indus in Sind. Whilst these great works have been carried out or are in progress to spill on the land the floods of the snowfed rivers of the North, other works of a less imposing character have safeguarded the arid tracts of the South. A chain of storage lakes arrests the rains of the Western Ghats and through canals spreads them over the parched lands of the Deccan. The rivers of the South like the Cauvery are being harnessed to preserve their flood waters for Madras. All over India irrigation works, large and small, are being restlessly pressed forward, and their effect is to give a far greater stability to Indian agriculture.

The destination of these surplus crops is another factor of importance. The great customer for Indian cotton is Japan, and to a lesser extent the Continent of Europe. Continental Europe is also a large buyer of her oilseeds and another produce, and of her hides and skins. Whilst the United Kingdom is the great market for tea and wheat, foreign countries are a very important factor in the Indian export trade, therefore India had a vital interest in the economic recovery of Europe. When the post-war boom collapsed it hit India hard and

for a year or two the export trade reeled under the shock. The progress of the Dawes Plan and the measures taken under the League of Nations to assist Austria and Hungary back to industrial health had a special bearing on the prosperity of India; they have been elements of importance in inducing her recovery of prosperity.

But whilst India is pre-eminently an agricultural country, she ranks at the International Labour Office at Geneva as one of the great industrial countries of the world. Her manufacturing industries are few in number and are concentrated in a few areas, but they are of great importance. The largest is the cotton textile industry, which has its home in the town and Island of Bombay, with important subsidiary centres at Ahmedabad, Bhopal and Nagpur. Next in importance is the jute industry. Raw jute is a virtual monopoly of Bengal, and the jute mills are concentrated in and near Calcutta. The metallurgical industry is of more recent growth. The principal centre is Jamshedpur, the seat of the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company where subsidiary industries have sprung up to utilise the products of the blast furnaces and mills. A very large proportion of the jute manufactures is exported. The cotton textile industry has lost a considerable part of its export trade to Japan, the Far East and East Africa, the mills find their principal outlet in India itself, and even there they are subject to severe competition from Japan and China. The iron and steel industry is for the most part a home industry, though large quantities of Indian pig iron are shipped to the Far East, and in some years to the western ports of North and South America. Therefore whilst India is still in the main an agricultural country, three-quarters of her population drawing their sustenance from the soil, her manufacturing industries are of large and growing importance, and their prosperity every year affects in an increasing degree the general prosperity of the people.

I.—GENERAL.

The value of total exports of merchandise amounted to Rs. 800 crores as compared with Rs. 885 crores in 1925-26, showing a reduction of about 20 per cent. The most important factor that contributed to this decrease was the heavy fall in the world prices of raw materials, particularly of cotton and jute. The value of imports showed some slight expansion, being valued at Rs. 231 crores as against Rs. 226 crores, an increase of approximately 2 per cent.

Imports.—Imports of cotton piece goods increased by 22½ million yards, 14 per cent in value, from 788 million yards, while in value

the corresponding increase was only of Rs. 21 lakhs or 1 per cent. White goods rose from Rs. 16 crores to Rs. 17½ crores and coloured goods from nearly Rs. 16 crores to Rs. 17½ crores while grey goods, notwithstanding an increase of 39 million yards in quantity, fell from Rs. 22 crores to Rs. 19½ crores. Imports of cotton twist and yarn were valued at Rs. 6½ crores against Rs. 7½ crores in the preceding year. The imports of sugar increased by 15 per cent in quantity from 805,000 tons to 924,000 tons and by 21 per cent in value from Rs. 16 crores to Rs. 19 crores. Imports of iron and steel in quantity increased by 4 per cent from 281,000 tons to 294,000 tons and the value by 7 per cent.

Imports.—The imports of railway plant and rolling-stock on private account exceeded from Rs. 5 crores to Rs. 31 crores. Imports of hardware and motorcars were valued at Rs. 5 crores and Rs. 3 crores respectively, as in the preceding year. Mineral oils fell away from 200 million gallons to 153 million gallons in quantity and from Rs. 10 crores to Rs. 6 crores in value. The value of imported provisions rose from Rs. 4 crores to Rs. 3½ crores. Alizarine and aniline dyes increased in quantity from 10½ million lbs. to 15 million lbs., while in value there was an advance by Rs. 27 lakhs to Rs. 1.70 lakhs. A larger quantity of foreign cotton was absorbed to 700 tons valued at Rs. 5 crores against 17,500 tons valued at Rs. 3½ crores in the preceding year. Imports of liquors and paper were valued at Rs. 3.5 lakhs and Rs. 2.78 lakhs showing increases of Rs. 15 lakhs and Rs. 20 lakhs respectively of imports in the preceding year.

Exports.—The total value of raw cotton and cotton manufactures exported fell from Rs. 10½ crores to Rs. 70 crores. Raw cotton declined by 24 per cent. in quantity from 745,000 tons to 569,000 tons and by 38 per cent. in value from Rs. 9½ crores to Rs. 5.8½ crores. Raw silk increased in quantity by 9 per cent. from 617,000 tons to 708,000 tons but, as the previous year's high range of prices was not maintained, decreased in value by 23 per cent. from Rs. 38 crores to Rs. 29½ crores. Exports of gunny bags and gunny cloth also increased in quantity, while the value realised fell. The total value of raw jute and jute manufactures shipped fell from Rs. 87 crores to Rs. 50 crores. Exports of lacca gums fell from 3,063,000 tons to 2,129,000 tons in quantity and from Rs. 48 crores to Rs. 39 crores in value. Shipment of raw wool fell from 2,549,000 tons valued at Rs. 39½ crores to 2,035,000 tons valued at nearly Rs. 3½ crores and of wheat from 21,000 tons valued at Rs. 3½ crores to 176,000 tons valued at Rs. 2½ crores. Exports of barley and pulse also decreased. Tea showed an improvement. Shipments increasing in quantity by 23 million lbs. and in value by Rs. 3 crores to 340 million lbs. valued at Rs. 29 crores. The total quantity of oilseeds exported again decreased by 412,000 tons to 8,18,000 tons while the value of the shipments fell by Rs. 10½ crores to Rs. 10 crores.

Balance of Trade.—The balance of trade in merchandise in favour of India which reached the record figure of Rs. 191 crores in 1925-26 fell to Rs. 79 crores. As might be expected therefore there was a contraction in India's absorption of the precious metals, the net imports of treasure being Rs. 29 crores against Rs. 53 crores in the preceding year. The net imports of gold amounted to nearly Rs. 19½ crores or Rs. 15½ crores less than in 1925-26 while the net imports of silver showed a small increase of Rs. 3 crores from Rs. 17 crores to Rs. 20 crores owing to reduced shipments of white metal to China.

Index Numbers.—The trend of prices in India and abroad, particularly in the United Kingdom, Japan and America, India's three best customers, was, on the whole, downward, in spite of large increases in the prices of certain commodities affected by the coal strike in the United Kingdom. The influence of the coal

of raw cotton and textile goods. The "Statist" wholesale price index number fell from 135 to 123.3, the Bank of Japan from 238.9 to 204.6 and in the United States of America the Bradstreet's index number from 12.9 to 12.5. The index number of wholesale prices in Calcutta fell from 149 to 146.

Ropees Exchange.—The sterling value of the rupee was in the neighbourhood of 1s. 8d. throughout the year, the highest and lowest quotation for telegraphic transfers on London being 1s. 6 1/2d. and 1s. 5 1/2d. respectively. At times, however, the rate showed a tendency to weaken and on one occasion in December, 1926 the Government of India had to resort to selling sterling on London, to keep rates on the 1s. 6 1/2d. basis. These sales amounted to £1,425,000 during the year and were made at the rate of 1s. 5 1/2d. to the rupee.

Bank Rates.—In the money market, conditions were exceptionally easy. In the beginning of the year the Imperial Bank of India rate stood at 8 per cent. but dropped to 5 per cent. on the 20th May. For the six months from June to the end of December the rate remained at 4 per cent. Thereafter seasonal demands for money combined with special reasons for hesitancy in the exchange market led to a gradual rise in the Bank rate to 7 per cent. on the 8th February 1927, which was maintained until the close of the year.

Government of India Paper.—The following figures which compare the price and yield per cent. of 3½ per cent. Government of India paper on or about 1st April during the past twelve years show how greatly India's credit has improved within recent years:—

	Price.	Yield per cent.
	Rs. a	
1918	81 4	4.4
1917	99 0	5.1
1916	87 0	5.2
1915	71 0	4.9
1914	60 0	5.8
1913	53 0	6.2
1912	55 8	6.3
1911	61 0	5.7
1910	67 0	5.2
1909	67 14	5.2
1908	74 6	4.7
1907	78 11	4.4

Tariff Changes.—Certain minor changes in the tariff were introduced with effect from April 1926, such as the removal of the import duty on stick or seed lac and hay-presses, the reduction of the rates of duty on saccharine and saccharine tablets and on certain items of textile machinery, and the imposition of specific duties in place of *ad valorem* duty of 15 per cent. on portland cement and on mineral oils used for batching and for lubrication. These were fully dealt with in last year's review. The improvement in financial position enabled the Government of India to effect important reductions in customs duties with effect from 1st March 1927. The import duty on motor cars has been reduced from 30 per cent. to 20 per cent., *ad valorem* and on tyres from 30 per cent. to 15 per cent. with a view to encouraging the development of motor transport in India. The import duty of 15 per cent. on rubber seeds and a stamp has been a special

representation of the Government of Burma, in order to assist rubber cultivation. The export duty of Rs. 1-8 per 100 lbs. on tea has also been abolished and measures have been taken to compensate for the loss of revenue arising therefrom by making the whole of the non-agricultural income of the tea companies liable to income-tax. On the other hand the import duty on unmanufactured tobacco has been raised from Re. 1-0 to Rs. 1-5 per lb. The other important changes introduced were made in pursuance of the Steel Industry (Protection) Act, 1927, which was enacted on the recommendations of the Tariff Board.

Tariff Board's Report on the Steel Industry in India.—The Steel Industry (Protection) Act, 1924, which granted protection to the Indian steel industry, was due to expire on the 31st March 1927. As provided in that Act, the Tariff Board was directed to make a fresh enquiry as to the necessity for further continuance of protection, and the degree of protection required. They accordingly made a very careful examination of the whole position in 1926 and submitted a report to the Government of India recommending the continuance of protection on certain lines for a further period of seven years. The system of bounties was to be abolished and the protection was to be afforded by means of customs duties only. The Board proposed a double scale of duties, a basic duty fixed with reference to the price of British

steel and leviable on steel coming from all countries and an additional duty based on the difference between British and continental prices and leviable on non-British steel only. In their opinion this was necessary in order to secure an equitable distribution of the burden over the different classes of consumers and to ensure the stability of the scheme of protection. They also recommended that the basic duty should not be modified until after a statutory enquiry to be held not earlier than 1933-34, but suggested that the Governor-General in Council should be vested with power to vary the additional duty in either direction on a consideration of variations in the price of non-British steel. The Board proposed very little material change in the list of protected iron and steel manufactures except that in the case of plates and sheets the protection was proposed to be extended to chequered plates and to sheets of all descriptions excluding those coated with metal other than tin or zinc. In the case of tin plates the protective duty was to be reduced from Rs 85 to Rs 48 per ton.

The Government of India accepted the main recommendations and introduced a bill in the Indian Legislature to give effect to them. The Bill was accepted by the legislature and came into force on the 1st April 1927. The duty on unwrought zinc was also removed from 1st April 1927.

PREFERENCES BY BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

	Full rate	Preferential rate.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Coffee per cent.	0 14 0	0 11 8
Currents	0 2 0	
Raisins and other dutiable fruits	0 7 0	Free.
Tea per lb.	0 0 4	Five-sixths of full
Tobacco—		rate.
Unmanufactured—		
Containing 10 per cent. or more of moisture—		
Unstripped	0 3 10	0 3 9½
Stripped	0 8 10½	0 8 6½
Containing less than 10 per cent of moisture—		
Unstripped	0 9 9½	0 7 6½
Stripped	0 9 10	0 7 6½
Manufactured—		
Cigars	0 16 10	0 12 11½
Lace and embroidery ad valorem	33½ per cent.	Two-thirds of full rate
Silk, raw and manufactured per lb	Rates varying from 1s. to 7s 9d.	Five-sixths of full rate

II.—IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

Cotton manufactures (Rs. 65,05 lakhs).—The import figures showed advances over the previous year's figures in all the principal items except cotton twist and yarn. The year did not, however, fulfil, in the measure expected, the hopes of a brisk revival of trade that were manifested during the early part of 1925. During the first three months of the year the tendency

generally was to buy only for immediate requirements and in view of the falling market in raw cotton this attitude was fully justified. The import trade took a more buoyant turn towards the latter part of the year and during January and February a fair volume of orders was placed with the Lancashire mills.

different classes of imported cotton manufactures during the past four years and during the pre-war 1913-14. When comparing the 1926-27 with those of the previous year, it should be remembered that the purchases in 1926-27 were made on a much lower basis.

Imports of cotton manufactures.	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27
	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)
Twist and yarn	4.18	7.84	9.60	7.77	6.62
Piece-goods—					
Grey (unbleached) .. .	25.45	21.06	23.49	21.89	19.82
White (bleached) .. .	14.29	15.44	20.23	15.99	17.53
Coloured, printed, or dyed	17.86	17.69	20.02	15.92	17.22
Tents of all descriptions..	54	65	68	70	84
TOTAL PIECEGOODS ..	58.14	56.84	69.42	54.50	55.01

Imports of cotton manufactures.	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27
	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)
Hosiery .. .	1.20	84	1.12	1.40	1.47
Handkerchiefs and towels ..	89	23	31	22	19
Thread .. .	39	71	73	84	74
Other sorts .. .	1.52	82	1.08	91	1.02
GRAND TOTAL ..	60.90	67.48	82.32	65.67	65.05

Cotton Twist and Yarn (Rs. 6.62 lakhs).—The imports under this head registered a still further fall both in value and in quantity review. The total quantity imported amounted only to 48 million lbs. as against 56 millions in 1924-25 and 52 millions in 1925-26. The value of the imports was only Rs. 6.62 lakhs as compared with Rs. 7.77 lakhs.

The production of yarn in Indian mills reached a record figure of 807 million lbs. while the imports, which receded to 49 1/4 million lbs., showed a fall of 4 per cent. as compared with 1925-26 and of 12 per cent. as compared with 1924-25.

The United Kingdom's share in the total trade in Cotton twist and yarn fell on 3 per cent.

in 1925-26 to 41 per cent. Japan's share receded from 65 per cent. to 54 per cent.

Cotton Piece-goods (Rs. 55.01 lakhs).—The total imports of piece-goods, including tents, during 1926-27 showed an increase in quantity of 224 million yards over the previous year of 14 per cent, but the corresponding increase in value was only Rs. 51 lakhs or 1 per cent. White goods contributed most to the increase, the imports rising by 106 million yards to 371 million yards, while coloured goods showed an increase of 82 million yards and grey goods of 39 million yards. In value white goods increased from Rs. 15.99 lakhs to Rs. 17.53 lakhs and coloured, printed and dyed goods from Rs. 15.92 lakhs to Rs. 17.22 lakhs but grey goods declined from Rs. 21.99 lakhs to Rs. 19.82 lakhs as the quantity was not sufficient to cover the fall in prices.

... of cotton, printed and dyed goods both in quantities separately for each item in the table below —

1920-21.		1921-22		1922-23		1923-24		1924-25	
Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)
281.3	10.98	31.7	4.23	128.5	6.25	132.5	8.14	189.0	8.12
133.9	11.54	34.9	2.09	77.0	3.98	110.1	6.12	142.2	7.4
71.1	6.93	13.7	1.27	37.7	2.37	51.9	3.47	75.8	4.4

owing the principal varieties of each of the three main classes for the year 1913-14 and the two years 1925-26 and 1926-27.

1913-14 (pre-war year)	1925-26	1926-27	White (bleached.)	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1925-26	1926-27	(Coloured)
806.1	430.1	471.6	Duties, suits and scarves.	104.8	72.3	114.0	Duties, suits and scarves.
150.4	37.0	73.6	Jaconets, madras, poliam, mull, etc.	307.9	140.8	231.8	Jaconets, madras, poliam, mull, etc.
545.4	171.1	168.8	Longcloth and shirtings.	115	83.8	97.4	Longcloth and shirtings.
2	30.4	18.3	Namsocks...	204.7	77.0	66.9	Namsocks...
21.3	19.4	11.9	Drills and jeans.	5.7	6.1	6.1	Drills and jeans.
			Checks, spots and stripes.	16.1	7.0	12.3	Checks, spots and stripes.
10.8	9	2.2	Twills	8.3	12.2	11.8	Twills
			Others sorts	31.0	9.6	29.7	Others sorts
1584.2	709.1	748.4	Total	792.8	403.1	571.0	Total

... goods the increase has mostly been in bordered varieties. The United Kingdom, as usual, provided the major share of grey goods which increased 19 million yards in 1925-26 to 100 million yards in the year under review, a 10 per cent. The quantity imported in 1926-27 was below that of 1925-26 by 21 per cent.

increase of 19 per cent or 8 per cent, on 1924-25 show an increasing net trade. Japan also has a share.

Wool. Raw and (lakhs).—Imports of raw wool in the previous year's level of 10 lakhs as against 8 million lbs were valued at Rs. 321

A further expansion of the woolen piece-goods trade is expected to be commensurate with the increase in the raw wool trade. The value of raw wool in 1926-27 was 38 million yards as

the previous year, while in 1926-27, of 8 per cent, over 1925-26 was valued at Rs. 38 million yards as

preceding year, i.e. a rise of 8 per cent. in quantity but a fall of 5 per cent. in value, owing to a drop in prices.

Artificial Silk (Rs. 4.22 lakhs).—The market for artificial silk in India is steadily expanding. From 1924-25 the rate of increase in the imports has been very rapid. As compared with the previous year imports of artificial silk yarn during 1926-27 showed a remarkable rise of 116 per cent. in quantity and 37 per cent. in value. Italy forced ahead of her competitors and supplied 3,843,179 lbs. against 392,688 lbs. in 1921-22, and 1,309,257 lbs. in 1925-26. The United Kingdom lost ground slightly, her consignments falling from 761,000 lbs. to 655,000 lbs. In imports of piece goods of cotton and artificial silk also there was a substantial rise, the consignments increasing from 15 million yards to nearly 42 million yards.

Imports of sugar of all sorts, excluding molasses and confectionery, still further increased and amounted to 820,900 tons, a rise of 13 per cent. over the preceding year, and 23 per cent. as compared with 1921-25. The value of the imports rose by 21 per cent. to Rs. 18.37 lakhs. Sugar ranked second in importance in the list of imports while in the preceding year it had taken but the third place. A feature of the imports during the year was the increase in the takings of beet sugar partly at the expense of Java sugar. This is attributable to the thinness of the Java market as a result of a poor outturn in 1926-27.

The total area under sugarcane in India advanced from 2,679,000 acres in 1925-26 to 2,800,080 acres in 1926-27 and the total production of raw sugar (*ad r*) from 2,977,000 tons to 3,208,000 tons.

The production of sugar by modern factories and refineries in the season 1925-26, amounted to 90,270 tons as compared with 67,400 tons in 1924-26 and 94,700 tons in 1928-24.

Metals and Manufactures thereof—(Rs. 23.32 lakhs).—The imports of metals and manufactures thereof decreased by 4 per cent. in quantity from 915,000 tons to 909,000 tons and by 6 per cent. in value from Rs. 25½ to nearly Rs. 24 crores.

Iron and Steel—(Rs. 16.75 lakhs).—The year 1926 witnessed the prolonged coal strike in the United Kingdom, a strike which had virtually paralysed the iron and steel industry of Great Britain.

These facts had their influence on the Indian trade returns. The supplies from the United Kingdom were restricted throughout the period of stoppage and a larger proportion than usual of the Indian import trade went to Germany and Belgium.

Manufactured iron and steel imported (excluding pig and old iron or steel) decreased by 5 per cent. in value from 879,000 tons to 833,000 tons and by 7 per cent. in value from Rs. 18.03 lakhs to 16.70 lakhs.

The noticeable feature of the year's trade was the high proportion of the imports from the Continent, Belgium supplying 257,000 tons or 30½ per cent. and Germany 79,000 tons or 9½ per cent. as compared with 229,000 tons (25.9 per cent.) and 90,000 tons (8.8 per cent.) respectively in 1925-26.

Other Metals—(Rs. 7.06 lakhs).—Imports of metals other than iron and steel and manufactures thereof increased in quantity from 62,000 tons to 64,000 tons but decreased in value from Rs. 7.28 lakhs to Rs. 7.06 lakhs.

Machinery and Millwork (Rs. 14.60 lakhs).—The engineering industries of the United Kingdom which were able to work on previous stocks or on imported material were less seriously affected by the coal stoppage than was expected. In the year the imports of all kinds of machinery (including belting for machinery and printer's presses) receded to the fourth place in order of importance in India's import trade, and were valued at Rs. 14.60 lakhs as compared with Rs. 17.87 lakhs in 1925-26.

Railway plant and Rolling Stock (Rs. 6.09 lakhs).—Imports on private and Government account combined under this head which, since 1st April 1925, excludes rails, chairs, fishplates, etc., were valued at Rs. 6.09 lakhs (Rs. 3.26 lakhs private and Rs. 2.83 lakhs Government) as compared with Rs. 8.11 lakhs (Rs. 5.99 lakhs private and Rs. 3.13 lakhs Government) in 1925-26.

Motor Vehicles (Rs. 6.09 lakhs).—The increase in the imports of motor vehicles was well maintained. Lower prices stimulated the growing motor car habit and the further extension of motor transport in India. With the improvement of the financial position of the Government of India it has been found possible to reduce the rate of duty on motor cars from 30 per cent. *ad valorem* to 20 per cent. *ad valorem* and on pneumatic tyres and tubes to 15 per cent. *ad valorem* with effect from 1st March 1927. The absence of a wet work or good roads and the limitations on the loads allowed on bridge are two important factors which still operate against the more rapid development of motor transport in India. The number of motor cars imported rose by 3 per cent. from 12,757 in 1925-26 to 13,197 in 1926-27 and their value by 4 per cent. from Rs. 2.82 lakhs to Rs. 2.94 lakhs. The British light car is steadily growing in popularity and advancing its position in the market although Canada and the United States of America still maintain their preponderant place in this trade.

The total value of the imports of hardware excluding cutlery and electroplated ware decreased slightly from Rs. 5.20 lakhs to Rs. 5.07 lakhs in 1926-27. The reduction is particularly noticeable in the imports of metal lamps, while implements and tools and builders' hardware recorded an increase. The other items specified have remained fairly constant during the last two years.

Mineral Oil (Rs. 8.89 lakhs).—Mineral oils imported into British India comprise mainly kerosene oil, fuel oils and lubricating oils. The total imports of all kinds of mineral oils from foreign countries declined to 18.4 million gallons valued at Rs. 8.89 lakhs from 200 million gallons valued at Rs. 10.05 lakhs in 1925-26. This represented a fall of 8 per cent. in quantity and 11 per cent. in value.

Provisions (Rs. 5.50 lakhs).—The total value of imported provisions rose by Rs. 85 lakhs from Rs. 4.65 lakhs in 1925-26 to Rs. 5.50 lakhs in 1926-27. Almost all the principal items included in this head increased and

bottled provisions, lardaceous and patent foods, condensed milk, biscuits and cakes, cocoa and chocolate, butter and ghee contributed to this increase.

Liquors (Rs. 3.53 lakhs).—The total quantity of foreign liquors imported rose by 10 per cent. from 5,695,000 gallons in 1925-26 to 6,261,000 gallons in 1926-27. In value however, the rise was not proportionate to the increase in the quantity, the total imports being to the extent of Rs. 3.53 lakhs, showing only a 6 per cent. increase over that of the preceding year. Of the total quantity of Liquors imported consisted of ale, beer and porter, 54 per cent. of spirits and 5 per cent. of wines, etc.

Paper and Pasteboard (Rs. 3.08 lakhs).—The quantity of paper and pasteboard imported rose by 15 per cent. from 87,400 tons in 1925-26 to 100,400 tons in 1926-27. In respect of value there was also an increase of 10 per cent. from Rs. 2.81 lakhs to Rs. 3.08 lakhs, the prices having remained fairly steady throughout the year.

Chemicals (Rs. 2.44 lakhs).—The value of the imports of chemicals rose from Rs. 2.03 lakhs in 1925-26 to Rs. 2.44 lakhs in 1926-27. Prices of chemicals in the United Kingdom, from which the major share of the imports is drawn, remained remarkably steady throughout the year, in spite of the disturbances caused by the coal strike. As in the preceding year soda compounds accounted for 43 per cent. of the total value of

chemicals imported in 1926-27, at Rs. 1.05 lakhs as against Rs. 1.05 lakhs in 1925-26.

Cigarettes.—The duty on import duty on cigarettes had the effect of raising the price of trade in cigarettes rose from 3,412,000 lbs. to 4,175,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 27.

The United Kingdom is the largest supplier and accounts for 99 per cent. of the trade in cigarettes, from 3,877,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 27 to 4,142,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 27.

Jute and Jute Manufactures.—The total weight of jute exported increased from 1,563,000 tons but the value fell from Rs. 97 crores to Rs. 87 crores, lower prices. Of the total value jute accounted for 67 per cent. and 61 per cent. respectively in 1925-26 and 1926-27. The following statement shows the value of jute exported during 1913-14 to 1926-27 in three years:—

1913 14 15
Jute (in thousand tons)
Bags (in million)
Cloth (in million yards)

EXPORTS.

Date.	B. TWILLS.		HESSTANS, 40" x 8 oz	
	Near	Forward.	Near	Forward
1926—				
September, 28	Rs. 50 12	Rs. 48 8 to 47 4	Rs. 14 12	Rs. 14 8 to 14 6
October, 26	52 8	50 0 to 47 8	15 1	14 12 to 14 6
November, 30	49 4	47 12 to 47 8	14 4	14 1 to 14 4
December, 21	49 4	49 0 to 48 8	14 10	14 10 to 14 11
1927—				
January, 25	47 12	47 12 to 47 8	14 7	14 7 to 14 8
February, 22	48 8	48 8 to 48 0	14 8	14 9 to 14 11
March, 29	49 4	49 0 to 48 4	14 8	14 8 to 14 4

Cotton. Rs. 38.60 lakhs. Indian crop accompanied by a record American crop following on the top of the two large crops of 1925 and 1924 affected the exports of raw cotton from India which fell in quantity by 24 per cent. and in value by 38 per cent. The Indian cotton crop of 1926-27 was estimated at 4,973,000 (400 lbs. each) as compared with 6,200,000 bales in 1925-26 and 6,088,000 bales in 1924-25. The American crop of 1926 was estimated at 18,618,000 bales (23,272,000 lbs. of 400 lbs. each) exceeding the output of 1925 by 2,514,000 bales (3,142,000 lbs. of 400 lbs. each). The Egyptian crop of 1926 was estimated at 1,789,000 bales (of 400 lbs. each) as compared with 1,946,000 bales in 1925 and 1,797,000 bales in 1924.

Cotton Manufactures.—(Rs. 10.75 lakhs).—The appointment of a Tariff Board to enquire into the condition of the textile industry to examine the causes of depression and to report on the measures required for alleviation, was mentioned in last year's review. The Board whose report has recently been published has found that the depression is to a large extent due to world causes. In India itself the depression has been more acute in Bombay than in other centres, and this is attributed partly to causes for which the mill-owners themselves are responsible, partly to the competition of Japan and partly to the competition of mills in other parts of India, which are favoured by proximity to raw material and consuming markets and cheaper labour supply. Under the first head they lay stress on the undue conservatism of the industry and insufficient diversification of production. The Board also found that the industry in India is placed in an unfair position vis-à-vis Japan, owing to the inferior conditions of labour prevailing at present in that country. The majority of the Board recommended, among other things, a bounty for a period of four years, of 1 anna per pound or its equivalent on the spinning of higher counts of yarn, based on the output of an average of 15 per cent. of the total working spindleage in a mill. They also proposed an additional duty of 4 per cent. on all imported cotton piecegoods. The Government of India in their resolution on the report have disagreed with the necessity for a bounty on the spinning of high counts of yarn, as a long established industry, such as the cotton textile industry in Bombay, should need no stimulus at the cost of the general taxpayer if such a development is in its own interests. They also consider that the advantage which Japan has over India in the manufacture of piecegoods on account of inferior labour conditions is sufficiently covered by the existing revenue duty of 11 per cent. on imports. They have, however, agreed to introduce legislation with a view to remove, in pursuance of the recommendation of the Board, the import duty on machinery and certain mill stores, for a period of three years subject to certain conditions. If the desirability of encouraging the manufacture in India of such machinery or stores; and legislation in order (1) to modify the import duty on cotton yarn from 5 per cent. to 5 per cent. or 1½ annas per pound whichever is higher, and to reduce the import duty on artificial silk yarn and thread from 5 per cent. to 7 per cent. The three proposals of the Tariff Board are still under consideration.

Cotton Yarn. Rs. 99 lakhs. The production of yarn in Indian mills in 1926-27 totalled 807 million lbs. as compared with 687 million lbs. in 1925-27 and 719 million lbs. 1924-25 and 693 million lbs. in 1913-14.

Exports or yarn increased from nearly 32 million lbs. to 41½ million lbs. The average exports in the five years ending 1913-14 were 19½ million lbs., while the average for the quinquennium 1914-15 to 1918-19 was 130 million lbs. and of the post-war quinquennium 8½ million lbs.

The total production of piecegoods in Indian mills in 1926-27 showed a noticeable increase of 16 per cent. in quantity as compared with the previous year. The proportion of the exports of piecegoods to the total production was, however, very nearly the same as in 1925-26, the percentages being 8.7 in 1926-27 and 8.4 in 1925-26 as compared with 9.2 in 1924-25.

Foodgrains and Flour.—(Rs. 39.23 lakhs). Foodgrains, pulse and flour contributed a still smaller share to the export trade of the country. Compared with the average annual shipments in the pre-war quinquennium, the exports registered a decline in quantity of 45 per cent. while as compared with 1925-26 the quantity fell by 21 per cent. and the value by 18 per cent. The total exports during the year amounted to 2,429,000 tons valued at Rs. 39½ crores as compared with 3,063,000 tons valued at Rs. 48 crores in 1925-27. All the important items showed decrease, rice not in the bulk falling by 514,000 tons or 20 per cent. wheat by 36,000 tons or 17 per cent. while exports of barley were only 1,600 tons compared with 42,000 tons in the preceding year. Pulses declined by 21,000 tons to 118,000 tons.

Tea.—(Rs. 29.04 lakhs). The total production of tea in India in 1926 is estimated at 393 million lbs. as compared with 384 million lbs. in 1925 and 375 million lbs. in 1924. Assam as usual contributes the largest share, her output being 62 per cent. of the total production, while Northern India excluding Assam contributes 25 per cent. and Southern India 13 per cent. The total area under tea in 1926 was 740,000 acres against 728,000 acres in 1925.

Oilseeds. (Rs. 10.09 lakhs).—The exports of oilseeds showed a large decrease of 83 per cent. in quantity from 1,250,000 tons in 1925-27 to 898,000 tons in 1926-27, while in value there was a drop of 36 per cent. from Rs. 29.84 lakhs to Rs. 19.09 lakhs.

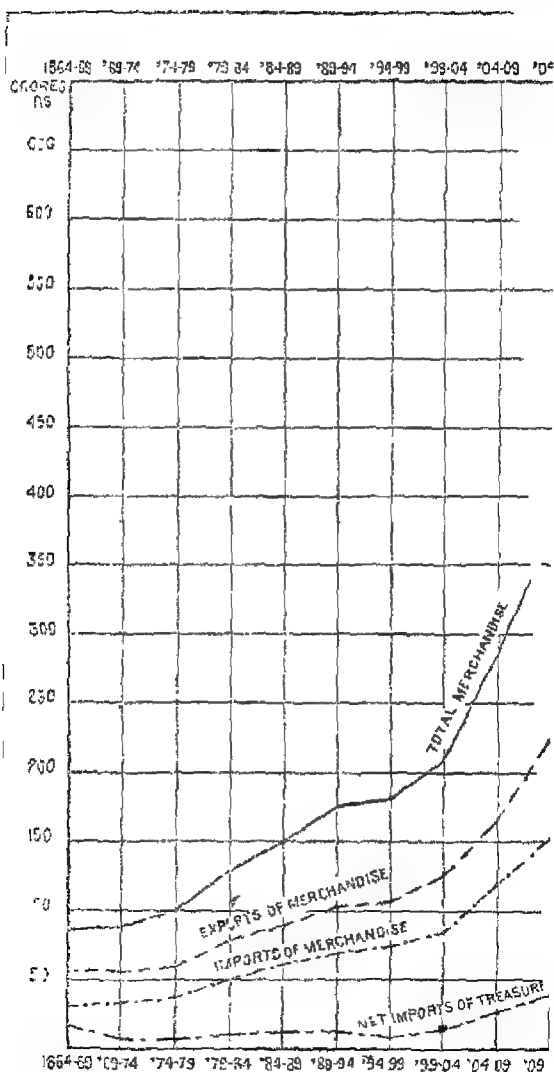
Hides and Skins. (Rs. 14.53 lakhs).—The export figures under this head show no striking variations. Shipments of raw hides and skins amounted to 50,627 tons which was only 200 tons less than the exports of the previous year. Fifty five per cent. of the exports under this head consisted of raw hides which amounted to 27,800 tons valued at Rs. 2.57 lakhs as compared with 28,400 tons valued at Rs. 3.21 lakhs shipped in the preceding year.

Metals and Ores. (Rs. 7.21 lakhs).—The total exports of metals and ores amounted to 226,000 tons in 1926-27 as compared with 226,000 tons in the preceding year.

The Foreign Sea-borne Trade

The Foreign Sea-borne Trade of British India during
(1864-69 to 1919-24): Quinquennial average

(PRIVATE AND GOVERNMENT)



Manganese Ore.—The total quantity of ore exported decreased from 64,000 tons to 438,000 tons in quantity and from Rs. 1,54 lakhs to Rs. 1,49 lakhs in value.

Coal.—(Rs. 81 lakhs). The arrangement made for the grading of coal and the grant of certificates for coal intended for export referred to in the previous year's review helped the Indian coal trade to recover slowly from the effects of competition and to strengthen its position in adjacent markets. It also received an unex-

pected boost from the coal strike in the United Kingdom. The prices realised were not very attractive but they helped to clear the accumulated stocks. Exports of coal rose by 168 per cent. in quantity from 240,000 tons in 1925-26 to 643,000 tons in 1926-27 and by 134 per cent. in value from Rs. 341 lakhs to Rs. 81 lakhs.

Re-Exports.—The total value of foreign merchandise re-exported showed a further decline to Rs. 8 crores from Rs. 104 crores in 1925-26 and Rs. 134 crores in 1924-25.

IMPORTS.

	1913-14.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
United Kingdom	64.1	64.1	51.4	47.8
Germany	6.9	6.8	5.9	7.2
Java	5.8	6.3	6.2	6.2
Japan	2.6	6.9	8.0	7.1
United States of America	2.6	5.7	6.7	7.9
Belgium	2.3	2.7	2.7	2.9
Austria and Hungary	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7
Straits Settlements	1.8	2.0	2.5	2.5
Persia, Arabia, Asiatic Turkey, etc.	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.8
France	1.5	1.0	1.4	1.5
Madagascar	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.2
Italy	1.2	1.6	1.9	2.7
China	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4
Netherlands	1.8	1.2	1.6	2.0
Australia	1.5	1.3	1.6	1.7
Hongkong	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4
Dutch Borneo	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4
Ceylon	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.6
Switzerland	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.9
East Africa and Zanzibar	1.3	2.0	1.8	1.0

EXPORTS.

	1913-14.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
United Kingdom	23.4	23.5	21.0	21.5
Germany	10.6	7.1	7.0	6.6
Japan	9.1	14.3	13.0	13.3
United States of America	8.7	8.8	10.4	11.1
France	7.1	5.3	5.5	4.5
Belgium	4.8	3.9	3.2	2.9
Austria and Hungary	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.1
Ceylon	3.6	3.7	3.9	4.8
Persia, Arabia, Asiatic Turkey, etc.	3.2	1.5	2.4	2.6
Italy	3.1	5.9	5.0	3.7
Hongkong	3.1	1.0	1.8	1.0
Straits Settlements	2.7	2.1	2.6	3.1
China	2.3	2.4	4.0	3.7
Central and South America	2.2	2.1	2.6	3.1
Netherlands	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.0
Australia	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.5
East Africa and Zanzibar	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.6
Russia	1.0	0.6	0.5	1.3
Spain	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.9
Java	1.0	1.7	1.2	1.0

Balance of Trade.—The surplus of India's exports over imports of private merchandise in 1926-27 amounted to Rs. 79 crores which was less than half of the record figure of the preceding year, when the credit balance stood at Rs 161 crores, having progressively

risen from Rs. 155 or crores in 1923-24 and Rs. 111 in 1924-25. The following table shows the balance of trade and bullion on private three years as compared with the pre-war, war and post-war periods.

	GOLD.		SILVER.
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
Average of pre-war period	32.70	8.92	10.88
Average of war period	10.60	2.09	4.56
Average of post-war period	21.57	9.08	14.18
1924-25	74.39	36	24.46
1925-26	35.23	38	19.80
1926-27	10.50	10	21.66

The Indian Stores Department

The Indian Stores Department was instituted on 1st January 1922, after a specially appointed officer had during the preceding year investigated its possible sphere of work. The Government of India nearly half a century previously enunciated the policy of purchasing for State use stores of indigenous origin or manufacture rather than stores produced or manufactured abroad and for many years before the creation of the new department the rules governing stores purchase for public departments prescribed that subject to certain conditions as to quality and so forth preference should be given to articles manufactured wholly or in part in India. Revisions of these rules to make them better serve the purpose for which they were drafted were from time to time made but as Indian industrial development progressed and as Indian nationalism increased complaints that the policy presumed to be embodied in the rules was not in effect carried out grew in volume. The Indian Industrial Commission found that the industrial resources of the country were far from sufficiently utilised by Government Departments but that the reason was not due to restrictions in the stores purchase rules but to the failure of the Departments fully to avail themselves of the scope which the rules offered. They found that the rules were too rigid and to lack flexibility as to quantities and market values of supplies and to the absence of

agencies and they considered the need for an expert agency for the selection of stores required. It was recommended that a Stores Committee should be established which the Government appointed to advise the Government with a Secretary of State to accept recommendations. The Committee was thereupon instituted.

It was designed primarily to meet the requirements of the Central Government and with those of the Provincial Governments directly controlled by India, it being impossible for the Provincial Government to utilise its services at the same time invite Provincial Government authorities, compared with other public or semi-public

Organisation.—The Indian Stores Department was instituted on 1st January 1922 included.

A Chief Secretary of the Department
A Joint Secretary of the Department
A Secretary of the Department

A Director of Textiles Purchase.

An Assistant Chief Controller.

The designation of the Director of Textiles Purchase was early changed to Deputy Director of Purchase (Textiles) and within the first year an Assistant Controller of Textiles Purchase was appointed. The Department's growth has thus from its beginning constantly broadened and accelerated. The preliminary organisation was instituted temporarily but the department and its organisation were before the end of 1922 put on a permanent basis. The offices of Superintendent of Local Manufactures and Government Text House at Alipur and of the Metallurgical Inspector at Jamshedpur, hitherto under the direct administration of the Industries and Labour Department, were in July 1922 absorbed in the new organisation.

The Functions of the new Department were early indicated as being—

- (a) To act, subject to certain limitations, as a purchasing agency and in an advisory capacity in all matters connected with the procurement of goods and services for the public service on behalf of all Central Departments of Government and of the minor Local Governments and also on behalf of such major Local Governments, company worked railways, Corporations, Port Trusts, Municipalities and similar quasi-public bodies and Indian States as may desire to avail themselves of its assistance;
- (b) To scrutinise the Home Indents of all Central Departments, minor Local Governments and such other authorities as utilise its services with a view to ensure attention to the encouragement of Indian industries, so conducting its operations in this respect as to prevent the purchase of articles of non-Indian manufacture when goods of indigenous production of suitable quality and price are obtainable;
- (c) To purchase and inspect in India for central departments and other buyers on the lines above indicated certain specified commodities;
- (d) To inspect stores purchased otherwise than through the agency of the department;
- (e) To draw up for the approval of departments and others which effect their purchases through the department specifications of the various classes of stores in demand and if so desired to advise and assist departments and others which make their own purchases in the preparation or specifications and the standardisation of patterns;
- (f) To act as a central bureau of information on all matters affecting the purchase of stores and their prices, particularly with reference to the extent of Indian manufactures and their capacity from time to time.

In order to secure the benefit of the accumulated experience of over sixty years of purchase and inspection work in the foremost markets of the world which had been acquired by the India Store Department in London, advantage was taken of the presence of the Director of the Department in London and a representative was sent on leave to England to report him to examine the system in force

in the London organisation with a view to the embodiment of what was useful to the Indian Stores Department in its organisation and methods. It was at the outset decided that the Department should be quasi-commercial and self-supporting, charging a small percentage upon the cost of its purchases and other minimum fees in other branches of activity to defray its establishment and other costs.

Past Year's Work.—By 1923 the Department had become represented in most of the chief industrial and commercial centres of India had attracted a fairly large clientele and was conducting operations on a large scale. The latest report on its operations, that for the financial year 1926-27, shows that during that year the value of the purchases effected by it was Rs. 3,98,82,000, which was an increase of 45 per cent. on the figure for the next preceding year. In the case of textile goods these purchases in India represented 97 per cent of the total. The bulk of the purchases of engineering and allied stores was, as they have always been, of articles of overseas manufacture. A development in this respect recently made is an arrangement with the Consulting Engineers of the High Commissioner in London for them to open a branch in India. Government will bear the overhead charges involved in this, but will otherwise pay the engineers nothing for their work, and the development will place at the disposal of the Stores Department the Consulting Engineers' expert knowledge and acquaintance of world market, and foreign manufacturing firms in regard to heavy engineering supplies, such as railway engines, great bridge-work and so forth. This will enable the Stores Department to take over from the High Commissioner and the Indian Store Department under his control in London the purchase of these heavier supplies and to develop their adopted policy of inviting tenders in terms of rupees in India instead of in sterling in London.

The numbers of Europeans and Indians holding gazetted appointments in the Department at the end of 1926-27 were 29 and 24 respectively. The number of authorities, comprising not only Departments of the State, both Central and Provincial, but also public bodies such as Company Railways and Municipalities, Indian States and a number of private firms, availing themselves of the services of the Department is rapidly increasing. A number of the major Provincial Governments have promulgated rules for the purchase of stores and most of these provide for the utilisation of the Department. The Central Provinces have designated the Department one of the agencies to be employed and the Governments of Bengal and the Punjab have appointed the Department their sole purchasing agency. The Government of Bombay have prescribed that all purchases in India above Rs. 500 in value, whether of indigenous or imported stores, except plant and machinery and component parts shall normally be made through the Department. They have also directed that all indents upon the Indian Store Department in London shall be forwarded through the Indian Stores Department.

Investigations are continually made by the Department into the potentialities of Indian sources of supply. The list of approved contractors was in 1926-27 increased by 278 and application for registration from 104 other firms were rejected. During the same year 1928 indents on the India Store Department, London, of an estimated value of Rs. 8,81,53,278, were received for scrutiny. The growth of the revenue of the Department has recently exceeded that of its expenditure and as a result there was in 1926-27 a marked decrease in the

net deficit on revenue account, which in 1926-27 stood at about Rs. 29,500 Rs. compared with about Rs. 2.15 lakhs in the last preceding year. The expenditure included in this calculation does not include pensions and contributions to provident fund, rents of Government buildings, cost of printing and stationery and certain other indirect charges and it is therefore calculated that considerable increase in the volume of business done must take place before the Department can be self-supporting in the true sense of the term.

Bombay Stamp Duties.

	Rs. a.
<i>Acknowledgment of Debt</i> ex. Rs. 20 ..	0 1
<i>Affidavit or Declaration</i>	2 0
<i>Agreement or Memo. of Agreement</i> —	
(a) It relating to the sale of a bill of exchange	0 4
(b) If relating to sale of a Government security, or share in an incorporated company or other body corporate—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, a. 2 for every Rs. 10,000 or part.	
(c) If not otherwise provided for ..	1 0
<i>Appointment in execution of a power</i> —	
(a) Of trustees	15 0
(b) Of property moveable or immovable	30 0
<i>Articles of Association of Company</i> —	
(a) Where the company has no share capital or the nominal share capital does not exceed Rs. 2,500 ..	25 0
(b) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 2,500 but does not exceed Rs. 1,00,000	50 0
(c) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 1,00,000	100 0
<i>Articles of Clerkship</i>	250 0
<i>Award</i> , any decision in writing by an Arbitrator, other than by an Order of the Court. The same duty as a Bond for the amount or value of the property to which the award relates as set forth in such award subject to a maximum	20 0
<i>Bill of Exchange</i> payable on demand..	0 1
Where payable otherwise than on demand but not more than one year after date or sight (if drawn singly)—Not exc. Rs. 200, a. 3; exc. Rs. 200, not exc. Rs. 400, a. 6; exc. Rs. 400, not exc. Rs. 600, a. 9; exc. Rs. 600, not exc. Rs. 800, a. 12; exc. Rs. 800, not exc. Rs. 1,000, a. 15; exc. Rs. 1,000, not exc. Rs. 1,200, a. 1 a. 2; exc. Rs. 1,200 not exc. Rs. 1,600 Rs. 1 a. 8; exc. Rs. 1,600	

not exc. Rs. 2,500, Rs. 2 a. 4; exc. Rs. 2,500, not exc. Rs. 5,000, Rs. 4 a. 8; exc. Rs. 5,000, not exc. Rs. 7,500, Rs. 6 a. 12; exc. Rs. 7,500, not exc. Rs. 10,000, Rs. 9; exc. Rs. 10,000, not exc. Rs. 15,000, Rs. 13 a. 8; exc. Rs. 15,000, not exc. Rs. 20,000, Rs. 18; exc. Rs. 20,000, not exc. Rs. 25,000, Rs. 22 a. 8; exc. Rs. 25,000, not exc. Rs. 30,000, Rs. 27; and for every add. Rs. 10,000, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 30,000, Rs. 2.	
Where payable at more than one year after date or sight, same duty as a Bond.	
	Rs. a.
<i>Bill of Lading</i>	0 8
<i>Bond</i> (not otherwise provided for)—	
Not exc. Rs. 10	0 2
Exc. Rs. 10, but not exc. Rs. 50 ..	0 4
Exc. Rs. 50, but not exc. Rs. 100 ..	0 8
Exc. Rs. 100 & does not exc. Rs. 200 ..	1 0
Exc. Rs. 200 & does not exc. Rs. 300 ..	2 4
Up to Rs. 1,000, every Rs. 100 or part ..	0 12
For every Rs. 500 or part, beyond Rs. 1,000	3 12
<i>Bond, Administration, Customs, Security or Mortgage Deed</i> —For amount not exceeding Rs. 1,000, same duty as a Bond.	
In any other case	10 0
<i>Cancellation</i>	5 0
<i>Certificate or other Document relating to Shares</i>	0 2
<i>Charter Party</i>	2 0
<i>Cheque</i>	0 1
<i>Composition—Deed</i>	20 0
<i>Conveyance</i> , not being a Transfer—	
Not exceeding Rs. 50	0 8
Exceeding Rs. 50 not exceeding Rs. 100	1 0
Exceeding Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 200	2 0
Rs. 200 but does not exceed Rs. 300	4 8

Rs. a

For every Rs. 100 or part in excess of Rs. 100 up to Rs. 1,000	1	8
For every Rs. 500, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 1,000	7	8
Copy or Extract —If the original was not chargeable with duty, or if duty with which it was chargeable does not exceed 1 Rupee	1	0
In any other case	2	0
Counterpart or Duplicate —If the duty with which the original instrument is chargeable does not exceed one rupee—The same duty as is payable on the original. In any other case	2	0
Delivery Order	0	1
Entry in any High Court of an Advocate or Vakil	500	0
In the case of an Attorney	500	0
Instrument—Apprenticeship	10	0
Divorce	2	0
Other than Will, recording an adoption or conferring or purporting to confer Authority to adopt	20	0
Lease —Where rent is fixed and no premium is paid for less than 1 year, same duty as Bond for whole amount; not more than 3 years, same as Bond for average annual rent reserved; over 3 years, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to amount or value of the average annual rent reserved; for indefinite term, same as Conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount or value of the average annual rent which would be paid or delivered for the first ten years if the lease continued so long; in perpetuity, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to one-fifth of rents paid in respect of first 50 years. Where there is premium and no rent, same as Conveyance for amount of premium; premium with rent, same as Conveyance or amount of premium in addition to the duty which would have been payable on the lease if no fine or premium or advance had been paid or delivered.		
Other—Allotment of Shares	0	2
Credit	0	2
License	10	0
Memo of Association of Company —If accompanied by Articles of Association	30	0
If not so accompanied	80	0
Notarial Act	2	0
Order or Memo. intimating the purchase or sale —		
(a) Of any Goods exceeding in value Rs. 20	0	4
(b) Of any Stock or marketable Security exceeding in value Rs. 20—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20 a year for every Rs. 10,000 or part.		

Note of Protest by a Ship's Master

Partnership —Where the capital does not exceed Rs. 500
In any other case
Dissolution of

Policy of Insurance—

- (1) **Sea**—Where premium does not exceed rate of 2a., or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of amount insured
- In any other case for Rs. 1,000 or part thereof
- (2) **For time**—For every Rs. 1,000 or part insured, not exc. 6 months ..
- Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 12 months
- If drawn in duplicate, for each part—Half the above rates, for Sea and Time.
- (3) **Fire**—When the sum insured does not exceed Rs. 5,000
- In any other case
- In respect of each receipt for any payment of a premium on any renewal of an original policy—One half of the duty payable in respect of the original policy in addition to the amount, if any, chargeable under Art. 53 (Receipt).
- (4) **Accident and Sickness**—Against Railway accident, valid for a single journey only
- In any other case—for the maximum amount which may become payable in the case of any single accident or sickness where such amount does not exceed Rs. 1,000, and also where amount exc. Rs. 1,000, for every Rs. 1,000 or part
- (5) **Life, or other Insurance, not specially provided for**—
- For every sum insured not exceeding Rs. 1,000 and also for every Rs. 1,000 or part
- If drawn in duplicate, for each part
- Insurance by way of indemnity against liability to pay damages on account of accidents to workmen employed by or under the insurer or against liability to pay compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923. For every Rs. 100 or part payable as premium ..
- In case of a re-insurance by one Company with another— $\frac{1}{2}$ of duty payable in respect of the original insurance, but not less than 1 anna, or more than 1 Re.
- Policies of all classes of Insurance not included in Article 47 of Schedule 1 of Stamp Act of 1899 covering goods,

	Rs. a.	
merchandise, personal effects, crops and other property against loss or damage, are liable to the same duty as Policies of Fire Insurance.		
Power of Attorney—		
For the sole purpose of procuring the registration of one or more documents in relation to a single transaction or for admitting execution of one or more such documents	1 0	(b) In any other case
When required in suits or proceedings under the Presidency Small Causes Courts Act, 1882	1 0	Respondentia Bond —The same duty as a Bond for the amount of the loan secured.
Authorising 1 person or more to act in a single transaction other than that mentioned above	2 0	Security Bond —(a) When the amount secured does not exceed Rs. 1,000—The same duty as a Bond for the amount secured.
Authorising not more than 5 persons to act jointly and severally in more than 1 transaction, or generally ..	10 0	(b) In any other case
Authorising more than 5 but not more than 10 persons to act	20 0	Settlement —The same duty as a Bond for the sum equal to the amount or value of the property—settled as set forth in such settlement.
When given for consideration and authorising the Attorney to sell any immovable property—The same duty as a Conveyance for the amount of the consideration.		Revocation of Settlement —The same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned as set forth in the instrument of revocation but not exceeding ten rupees.
In any other case, for each person authorised	2 0	Share-warrant to bearer issued under the Indian Companies Act.—One and a half times the duty payable on a conveyance for a consideration equal to the nominal amount of the shares specified in the warrant.
Promissory Notes—		Shipping Order
(a) When payable on demand—		Surrender of Lease —When duty with which lease is chargeable does not exceed Rs. 5—The duty with which such Lease is chargeable.
(i) When the amount or value does not exceed Rs. 250	0 1	In any other case
(ii) When the amount or value exceeds Rs. 250 but does not exceed Rs. 1,000	0 2	Transfer of Shares —One-half of the duty payable on a Conveyance for a consideration equal to the value of the share.
(iii) In any other case	0 4	Transfer of any Interest secured by a Bond, Mortgage, &c., or Policy of Insurance—If duty on such does not exceed Rs. 5—The duty with which such Bond, &c., is chargeable.
(b) When payable otherwise than on demand—The same duty as a Bill of exchange for the same amount payable otherwise than on demand.		In any other case
Protest of Bill or Note	2 0	—of any property under the Administrator General's Act 1874, Section 31.
Protest by the Master of a Ship	2 0	—of any trust property without consideration from one trustee to another trustee or from a trustee to a beneficiary—Five rupees or such smaller amount as may be chargeable for transfer of shares.
Proxy	0 2	Transfer of Lease by way of assignment and not by way of under-lease—The same duty as a conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount of the consideration for the transfer.
Receipt for value exs. Rs. 20	0 1	Trust, Declaration of —Same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned, but not exceeding
Reconveyance of mortgaged property—		Revocation of —Ditto, but not exceeding
(a) If the consideration for which the property was mortgaged does not exceed Rs. 1,000—the same duty as a bond for the amount of such consideration as set forth in the Reconveyance.		
(b) In any other case	10 0	
Release —that is to say, any instrument whereby a person renounces a claim upon another person or against any specified property—		
(a) If the amount or value of the claim does not exceed Rs. 1,000—The same duty as a Bond for such amount as set forth in the		
(b) In any other case		

The Indian National Congress.

For a complete history of the movement represented by the Indian National Congress the reader is referred to earlier editions of the Indian Year Book. The Congress was founded in 1885 by Mr. Allan Octavian Hume, a retired member of the Indian Civil Service, and it held its first session in Bombay at Christmas of that year, the fundamental principles of the Congress were laid down to be:—

Firstly, the fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements that constitute the population of India :

Secondly, the gradual regeneration, along all lines, mental, moral, social and political of the nation thus evolved : and

Thirdly the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or injurious to the latter country.

With these objects in view the Congress pursued an unevenful career until 1907. It undoubtedly exercised a great influence in inducing a spirit of national unity amongst the diverse peoples of India, in focussing the chief political grievances, and in providing a training ground for Indian politicians. But in 1907 the Extremists, chiefly of the Deccan and the Central Provinces, who had for some time chafed under the control of the older generation, succeeded

in wrecking the Surat session of the Congress and produced a split which had long been seen to be imminent. The senior members of the Congress therefore re-crystallised its creed in definite terms. They laid down that—

"The objects of the Indian National Congress are the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self-governing members of the British Empire, and a participation by them in the rights and responsibilities of the Empire on equal terms with those members. These objects are to be achieved by constitutional means by bringing about a steady reform of the existing system of administration and by promoting national unity, fostering public spirit and developing and organising the intellectual, moral, economic and industrial resources of the country."

For some years following 1907 efforts were made to heal the split and these were without avail until 1916 when a re-united Congress met at Lucknow under the presidency of Babu Ambica Charan Mazumdar of Faridpur in Bengal. But the union then effected was purely superficial; the difference between the Moderates and the Extremists was fundamental; the Extremists captured the machinery of the Congress and from the period of the special session held at Calcutta in September 1920 the Congress passed entirely under the domination of Mr. Gandhi.

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT.

It was in 1920 that Mr. Gandhi, who had only in the previous year unsuccessfully started his Passive Resistance struggle as a protest against the Rowlatt Act, conceived his idea of non-cooperation. Originally intended to be a protest against the British policy toward Turkey, the "fighting" of two other grievances was later on added to its first object, namely, the punishment of officials in the Punjab Martial Law regime and the securing of Swaraj for India. Mr. Gandhi and Mr. Shaukat Ali were able in 1920 to get the Calcutta Special Congress to endorse their programme of "progressive non violent non-co-operation" which was reiterated by the annual session at Nagpur, which, on Mr. Gandhi's motion, changed its old creed into "the attainment by India of Swaraj by all legitimate and peaceful means." The stern measures adopted by local Governments led to the imprisonment of a large number of active Congressmen with the result that the Ahmedabad Congress in 1921 made a "grim resolve" to challenge the "repression movement" by appointing Mr. Gandhi as dictator and by resolving to start a "No tax" campaign at Bardoli. The riots in Chauri Chaura in 1922, preceded by the Bombay riots in 1921 during the Prince of Wales' visit (see 1923 and 1924 editions of this book) opened Mr. Gandhi's eyes to the impossibility of maintaining a non-violent atmosphere under exciting conditions. He suspended his proposed civil disobedience campaign, and replaced it by what is known as the Bardoli Pro...

pended all the aggressive items of non-co-operation in favour of the promotion of inter-communal unity and khaddar. Soon after Mr. Gandhi was arrested for sedition, tried and sentenced to undergo imprisonment for six years (See 1923 and 1924 editions.)

This turn of events threw cold water on the enthusiasm of non-co-operators who got discouraged. In order, therefore, to sound the country's readiness for aggressive action once more, the All-India Congress Committee appointed a Committee, known as the Civil Disobedience Committee, in June 1922. The Committee toured the country and in October, 1922, produced two reports, one favouring Council entry to offer obstruction to Government and the other recommending the adoption of the Bardoli programme. A battle royal ensued between the two parties at the Gaya Congress. The anti-Council Party won the day, and the Councilites, led by the Congress President, Mr. C. R. Das, formed the Swarajya Party in order to push their own Council programme. The Swarajya Party by its continuous propaganda gained considerable support in the country. The Councilites, on the other hand, had a large number of seats in various provincial Councils and in the Assembly. The annual Congress at Cocanada, under the presidentship of Mr. Mahomed Ali, put an end to the Council entry controversy.

THE CONGRESS IN 1924-26.

The Congress had an eventful career in 1924. Mr. Gandhi, who had an attack of appendicitis of a serious form in the Yerowda Jail, was released by the Government of Bombay. Immediately, the No-Changers revived their hopes of fighting the Swarajists to a finish. After nearly six weeks' discussion, in May, 1924, Mr. Gandhi definitely dissociated himself from the Council Programme and the Swarajist obstructive policy; while the Swarajist leaders in a separate statement defended their policy. Public controversy again centred round the Council question. In the meanwhile, the Government of Bengal with the sanction of the Governor-General promulgated an Ordinance in order to check the forces of the growing revolutionary movement in Bengal. Under this Ordinance and under Regulation III of 1918 they effected several arrests including a few Swarajists. Mr. Gandhi went to Calcutta and, after a series of consultations with the Swarajist leaders, drew up what is now known as the Gandhi-Swarajist Pact by which Mr. Gandhi agreed to suspend the non-co-operation movement and to recognise the Swarajists as the accredited representatives of the Congress on legislative bodies, while in return the Swarajists agreed to his spinning franchise which laid down 2,000 yards of hand-spun yarn every month as the subscription to Congress membership instead of the four annas a year as decided by the Nagpur Congress.

The Congress which met at Belgaum during Christmas week under Mr. Gandhi's presidency endorsed the Bengal Pact. Among the other resolutions passed by the Congress was one suspending the non-co-operation programme. Thus the movement received its final burial at the hands of the very author of its being. The policy of the Congress executive during the first half of 1925 was one of aimless drift. The death of Mr. C. R. Das demoralised the Swarajists. Mr. Gandhi promptly went to their rescue and at the end of the year the Swarajists' political programme was formally adopted by the Cawnpore Congress. Of a more far-reaching character was the split that occurred in the ranks of the Swarajists themselves at Cawnpore. Messrs. Jayakar and Kelkar from Bombay and Dr. Moonje from the C. P. registered their emphatic protest and resigned their seats on the Legislatures professing thereby to liberate themselves from the Swarajist obligations and desiring to be free to propagate their own cult of Responsive Co-operation and acceptance of office.

The Responsive Co-operators, who had in the meanwhile strengthened their position and secured appreciable support to their creed of co-operation when possible and opposition when necessary, led the country's attack on the Swarajists.

The elections came and went. Generally speaking the Swarajists were ousted. What with the defeat sustained by the Congress

strength of the communal organisations the premier political organisation in the country namely, the Congress, lost its prestige considerably.

It was in this atmosphere that the 41st session of the Congress was held at Assam during Christmas week in 1926. After much heated discussion the Congress set its face against the acceptance of ministries or other offices in the gift of the Government and approved of the policy of rejection of budgets and refusal of supplies until a response to the "national demand" was forthcoming. The hardy annual in the shape of a resolution setting complete independence as the goal of the country was opposed by Mr. Gandhi himself, and turned down by a large majority. The Congress to its credit showed Hindu-Muslim dissensions although they had assumed serious proportions during the year and relegated them to the working Committee of the Congress.

Congress in 1927.

The year's Congress activities bore distinct traces of the character of the President, Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyengar—in particular, his inordinate ambition to glorify his presidency by the achievement at any price of communal and political unity and his general weakness resulting from a desire to placate opponents, humour friends and please all. It was an impossible task and impossible it proved to be. The decision of the Gauhati Congress against the acceptances by Congressmen of ministries definitely alienated the Responsivists. The Liberals were claiming the Responsivists who were still in the Congress but not of it. While the political influence of the Congress in the country was confined to the handful of Swarajists with their dull and destructive tactics, the communal tension was worsening day by day leading to alarmingly frequent outbreaks of riots and minor disturbances. Every Hindu procession particularly in Northern India, and every Mahomedan festival became a "head-line event" and it was with much relief that one read ".... passed off quietly." This communal antagonism was doubtless a disquieting feature of the country's advance and the leaders were not blind to it. But frantic efforts were productive of no more than pious paper resolutions which were broken before the ink had dried. The year was full of such instances.

The first move of importance in the direction of communal unity was what were known as the Delhi proposals, which a body of leading Mussliamans gathered at Delhi offered at the instance of Mr. Jinnah to the Hindu community. It was thought that the quarrels between the two communities were ultimately traceable to the existence of separate electorates, hence it was sought to abolish them. Although a minority community, the Mahomedans, according to the Delhi proposals, agreed to joint electorates with reservation of seats, provided Sind was constituted a separate province and Reforms were introduced in the N. W. F. Provinces and Baluchistan. The proposals met with mixed reception opinion being divided even inside the

Congress Camp. The Responsivists, almost all of whom are ardent supporters of the Hindu Mahasabha principles, were unwilling to accede to the conditions under which the separate electorates were surrendered. Their attitude suffered up the wavering Mussalmans into withdrawing the offer. Ultimately, however, the proposals were formally accepted by the All-India Congress Committee which met in Bombay, not without mental reservations on the part, perhaps, of everyone concerned. The leaders called it a red letter day in the Congress annals, declared that Hindu-Moslem unity had been achieved and fancied Swaraj was within reach. A short while later riots broke out, if only to demonstrate the hollowness of the pact.

More contentious than this was the issue of political unity which Mr. Iyengar had set himself to establish. Early in the year he toured Maharashtra, the stronghold of Responsivism and was evidently impressed with their argument that acceptance of ministry would be to the good of the country. Presumably Mr. Iyengar himself shared that view inasmuch as he was anxious to secure the Congress seal for a course of action which Swarajists in his own Province were clamouring for. It was clear that the Swarajists in the Madras Legislative Council were not inimical to the Independent Ministry which they had helped to bring into existence but which they were prepared to throw overboard and replace the moment the Congress ban was lifted. No wonder that the die-hards accused the Madras Swarajists, not excluding the Congress President, of being traitors to the Swarajist creed and of being Liberals in Congress cloak. Most of the Congressmen, like the country, had become sick of Swarajism and only too much aware of the futility of its practice and had come to realise that the next logical step was to try to work diarchy and show its unworkability to the Statutory Commission. The Congress President was vacillating, but Pandit Nehru was a diplomat. Rather than risk a defeat at the hands of the die-hard Congressmen and incidentally reveal to the country that he was deviating from the heroics and bravado of Swarajism the President chose to shelve the question of political unity with the connivance of the Responsivists but in the teeth of die-hard opposition. But this would not do, for the smouldering fire of die-hard resentment against the President's vacillation broke out into open attack. This was precipitated by a decision reached by the Congress Working Committee markedly Responsivist in tone on the question of the acceptance of ministry. The Assam Congress resolution was so modified that not only did uniform opposition to the ministry cease to be Congressmen's duty but the question whether Congressmen should support or oppose the ministry was also left to be decided by the Congress parties in the Legislatures concerned.

This was too much for the die-hards who, though small in number, were literally thirsting for the blood of the Congress President and those responsible for the above-mentioned resolution. A requisition was got up to call a special session of the All-India Congress Committee. The meeting was pilt off from time to time until it did meet in October at Calcutta. It was so late in the year and such a long time had elapsed

since the Working Committee's condonation of the Madras Swarajist's support to the Independent Ministry that the issue was not pressed by the die-hards. The session was rendered lively by the feeling that was generated by the consideration of the conclusions arrived at by the Unity Conference held at the same place earlier. There was a bitter debate marked by a walk out several amendments and numerous points of order. Ultimately the resolutions were ratified and the 'era of communal peace' hailed—but almost simultaneously riots broke out at Gaya. As a result, conversions and reconversions were to be allowed and so were music before mosques and cow sacrifice—subject, of course to conditions. It is significant to note that important personalities like Dr. Moonje, Lal Bahadur and Pandit Malaviya refused to attend the Unity Conference, while Mr. Gandhi was not even invited.

All the talk and quarrel about the internal affairs of the Congress were set at rest by rumours of the exclusion of Indians from the personnel of the Royal Commission on Indian Reforms. The major issue drowned all petty controversies. Most of the leaders fancied that it would be an insult to India if Indians were not appointed members of the Commission. Even moderates reputed for their sobriety and reasonableness affected extremism. As feeling ran high in the country, the Viceroy thought it necessary to explain the reasons that induced the British Government to adopt the course—which he later announced—and to remove any misapprehension about the motives behind the decision. His Excellency cancelled a part of his autumn tour and went to Delhi to interview almost all the accredited leaders of the land whom he had invited individually. What took place at the interviews is a matter of speculation, but it is evident from the statement which he issued subsequently and from the adverse comment which was made thereon, that the Viceroy tried to explain the reasons for setting up a purely Parliamentary Commission but that the leaders persisted in thinking that it was a studied insult to India. The Viceroy's statement pointed out how it was impossible to secure adequate representation for the various and warring political and communal interests of India without making the Commission unwieldy, set out the advantages of an inquiry by eminent Parliamentarians free from prejudices and opinions formed earlier and explained the difficult position in which Parliament would find itself if confronted with conflicting reports which a mixed Commission was bound to lead to. But the leaders would not listen to reason. The explanation in Parliament that the Government of India Act of 1919 contemplated the setting up only of a Parliamentary Commission was turned down as specious argument. Even an earnest attempt on the part of the ex-Labour Premier to show to Indians the unique and unprecedented advantages of their Legislatures being allowed not only to place their views before the Commission, but also to offer their criticisms on the report before the joint Parliamentary Select Committee, proved ineffective. For a few days, but for a few days only, the country seemed unanimous in condemning the composition of the Commission. ^{Muslims} ^{untouchables} ^{and}

growing section of the community at large found on cool consideration that it would be better to co-operate with the Commission.

Congressmen, however, thought otherwise. Boycott of Commission was the breath of their nostrils; Hindu-Muslim unity, their fond dream and the drafting of a Swaraj constitution formulating their political demands, their pastime. Attempts had already been made at Delhi and Calcutta to solve the communal tension, but the formulae evolved were acceptable neither to the Hindus nor to the Mussalmans. With boycott, unity and constitution making as their war-cry, Congressmen met at Madras during Christmas under the presidency of Dr. M. A. Ansari. As President-elect he had made statements which indicated his future policy, so that his presidential speech disclosed nothing new.

He deplored communal dissensions and asked both communities to accept the decision of the Congress. Seeking to make the Congress a truly national body he invited all communities and political parties to join it and urged those who desired to go to the Councils to form one people's Party of opposition on the basis of the Congress programme. He advocated a boycott of the Commission demanding a round-table conference of Indian and British representatives to settle India's future and recommended the preparation of a constitution and its submission to a National Convention.

Of the many topics discussed informally and at the Working Committee and the Subjects Committee, the Hindu-Muslim unity proposals stand out prominent. It was a sure sign of the state of feeling that prevailed then and prevails now as these lines are being written that the Hindu Mahasabha leaders were opposed to the creation of communal provinces as a condition attaching to the introduction of joint electorates. A definite breach was imminent, but thanks to Mr. Gandhi a compromise was reached. The resolution as finally adopted by the open Congress stipulated the introduction of joint electorates with reservation of seats, the constitution of Sind, Karnatak, Andhra and Utkal as separate provinces and the introduction of the forms in the N. W. F. Provinces. On the question of music outside mosques and cow slaughter each community should respect the other's feelings without prejudice to the rights of the respective communities. Of course the Congress decided on a thorough boycott of the commission including hartals and mass demonstrations. As expected, the Working Committee was asked to draft a Swaraj constitution in consultation with other bodies and to place it before a National Convention to be convened at Delhi not later than March 1928. By far the most spectacular of the resolutions was that which declared the goal of the Indian people to be complete national independence which was carried after considerable opposition.

The National Liberal Federation.

The definite breach between the moderate and extremist elements in the Congress at its special session in Bombay in August 1918 (vide 1919 edition of this book) witnessed the birth of the National Liberal Federation which has since then, been the platform of Indian moderate leaders. It held its first session in Bombay in 1918, Sir Surendranath Banerjee presiding. The Federation adopted for its creed the old Congress formula which was set aside by the Nagpur Congress.

Those who had held the Federation in high esteem for its moderation, sobriety and balanced judgment suffered a rude shock in 1927 when the Liberal body and its leading lights proved the saying, "If you scratch a Liberal you will find an extremist." Liberal leaders by bow to their avowed principle of co-operation with the Government when they expressed in favour of a boycott of the Commission set up to inquire into the

and measure of the country's political advance. About the middle of the year the rumour got abroad that Indians would not be represented on the Commission. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru started a controversy protesting against such a step. Academic discussions in the Press on the merits of the procedure went on for several weeks until the Viceroy invited all the leaders of the country to a personal interview at Delhi.

His advice fell on deaf ears and his announcement met with adverse criticism. He alluded to the difficulties of securing adequate representation of Indians on the Commission without making it unwieldy, drew attention to the fact that the Parliamentarians who constituted the Commission were impartial and able men and

timely in placing its views on the Commission's report before the Joint Select Committee of Parliament. For, but Indians had been excluded from the Commission and it was an insult to the country's honour. The Liberals, therefore, would have nothing to do with it. They refused to be convinced by the arguments advanced by Lord Buckenham and others in Parliament in support of the composition of the exclusively Parliamentary Commission. Liberal leaders had committed themselves and the Federation followed them.

An interview given by Lord Sinha was published a few hours before the session actually opened in Bombay under the presidency of Sir T. B. Sapru. The danger of non-co-operation was emphasised by Lord Sinha, but Sir Chimanlal Setalvad, Chairman of the Reception Committee, declared: "The scheme as announced is unacceptable and we cannot take any part in it." He, however, added, "If fresh proposals or modifications are made, we are prepared to consider them with an open mind." Sir Tej Bahadur declared, "The Liberal Party cannot be a party to anything which is inconsistent with the honour and self-respect of India and her moral right effectively to participate in the determination of its future. We can forget its duty to the country in a crisis of this character. Neither our self-respect nor our sense of duty to our country can permit us to go near the Commission."

An attempt on the part of a section of Liberals to delete the threat of boycotting the Commission from the principal resolution was stifled and a show of unanimity was maintained.

An amendment was on the point of being moved in the open session, but was withdrawn. Sir P. N. Srivastava Iyer's resolution which was adopted "unanimously"—"The National Liberal Federation is strongly of opinion that the official announcement made about the constitution of the Statutory Commission and the functions of the Committees of the Indian Legislatures is unacceptable, as it flagrantly denies the right of the Indian people to participate on equal terms in framing the future constitution of the country, and that the Legislatures and Indians throughout the country should have nothing to do with the Commission at any stage or in any form." Sir Moropant Jeshi Pandit B. Kunzru and Mr. C. Y. Chintamani were among the supporters of the resolution. The Federation also appointed a Committee to formulate, in co-operation with similar committees of other organisations in the country, a scheme for responsible Government. The usual resolution urging communal unity and advocating joint electorates with reservation of seats for important minorities was adopted. The Federation endorsed a manifesto drafted by the leaders which, while recognising Britain's right finally to settle India's constitution, reaffirmed the latter's claim to a permanent and durable constitution capable of automatic growth. In winding up the proceedings, the President made a long-winded statement roundly accusing Government of non-co-operation with the constitutional party and declaring that the Liberals would have nothing to do with the Commission unless and until the constitution is so revised as to include an equal proportion of Indians and Englishmen.

The Moslem League.

The All-India Moslem League came into being in 1906 out of the universal desire among leading Mussalmans at that time to have a central organisation to co-ordinate their efforts. With a view to the attainment of this end, the League was formed under the Munro-Morley scheme of constitutional reforms then under discussion. Indian Moslems who had been hitherto keeping aloof from politics organised the League. Its original objects were the promotion of loyalty to British Government, the protection of political and civil rights of Mussalmans and to place their needs and aspirations before Government in appropriate language and to promote inter-communal unity without prejudice to the other

objects of the League. Moslem opinion slowly gathered momentum and in 1913 the securing of self-rule for the British Empire was its main aim. The League was a powerful body in 1913 and 1914, and its communal representation arrived at between the League and the Congress in 1916 was bodily incorporated in the Government of India Act, 1919. The birth of the Khilafat Committee, however, overshadowed the League which from 1919 had almost disappeared till April 1923 when it met for a brief period under the presidency of the late Mr. Bhargava, but had to be adjourned for want of a quorum. In 1924, however, some influential Moslem leaders like

Mr. M. A. Jinnah thought that the Khilafat Committee's functions having ceased in view of the Turkish deposition of the Khalifa decided to revive the League which met under Mr. Jinnah's chairmanship at Lahore in May 1924. The Lahore session practically did nothing else save to reorganise the scattered branches of the League.

The Double session.—The 1925 and 1926 sessions of the League were noted for their vitality and liveliness. The League gained in strength, owing largely to the increased loyalty of Muslims to their communal organisation, which has followed the rapid growth of the Hindu Mahasabha, the rival Hindu communal organisation. A feeling of separatism, distrust and even positive ill-will grew up between the two communities which led to inter-communal riots, which in turn aggravated the inimical relations—a veritable vicious circle. Proportionate distribution of the loaves and fishes of office, on the political side, and the questions of the Hindus playing music before mosques and Mahomedans killing cows, on the religious side, constituted the points of difference. Suspicion was in the air and communal disturbances were of frequent occurrence. It was in this state of affairs that Mr. Jinnah and a few Mahomedans met at Delhi early in the year and offered in the name of the Muslim community to surrender its right to separate electorates in any future scheme of representative government, provided certain seats were reserved for the minority community and Sind was constituted a separate province and reforms were introduced in the N. W. F. Provinces and Baluchistan. There was considerable opposition to this both on the part of the Hindus and the Mahomedans. In spite of this and several other paper schemes and compromises and attempts at communal unity, riots continued to break out and heads to be broken.

The domestic affairs of the League were equally confusing. Sir Mahomed Shafi, who was elected to preside over the 1927 session, agreed

to retire in favour of H. H. the Aga Khan. The latter provisionally accepted the presidency but on arrival in India declined it. Meanwhile the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms had been set up with no Indians on it and a section of the Mahomedans led by Sir Ali Imam and Mr. Jinnah was for boycotting the Commission, while an influential section, following Sir Mahomed Shafi and Mr. A. K. Ghuznafi, advocated co-operation. The boycotters thought that if the session of the League was held at Lahore, the stronghold of Sir Mahomed Shafi, the decision might go against them. A meeting of the League Council was, therefore, called by the Secretary—who, by the way, had resigned before calling the meeting—to select the venue of the session and the president. Amid the protests of those who favoured Lahore the Council decided to hold the session at Calcutta. Sir Mahomed refused to abide by the decision with the result that Mr. Jinnah and his supporters, including Sir Ali Imam, Sir Abdur Rahim and others, held their own session at Calcutta under the presidency of Maulvi Mahomed Vakub. They passed a resolution boycotting the Commission, adopted the Congress resolution as the basis of inter-communal unity and finally disowned the Punjab branch of the League for the "offence" of refusing to abide by a decision which was held to be "ultra vires." Simultaneously with the Calcutta session, the All-India Muslim League met at Lahore, in keeping with the original decision of the League Council. Sir Mahomed Shafi presiding. It was decided to co-operate with the Commission, the Congress formula of communal peace was rejected because it did not properly represent Hindu opinion and agreement to give up separate electorates was made conditional upon the Hindus undertaking to accept their conditions regarding Sind etc. Since the disaffiliation of the Punjab—which was a re-enactment of an exactly similar episode ten years ago—a move is on foot to form a Punjab Provincial League which may be acceptable to the Jinnah League.

The Khilafat Committee.

The Central Khilafat Committee owed its origin to the reticence shown by the All-India Congress Committee in 1920 to the question of the Khilafat and Non-co-operation. Messrs. Gandhi and Shaukat Ali started this organisation with a view to educative propaganda throughout the country and, if possible, to capture the Congress. The object of the Committee was stated to be the righting of the Khilafat "wrongs." As a result of intensive propaganda mainly led by Mr. Gandhi himself, prominent Indian publicists supported the view that the Indian Muslims being deeply oppressed over the loss of the Caliphate of Islam, had a right to expect the British Government to redress their rights.

Soon after, the Madras Khilafat Conference under the chairmanship of Mr. Shaukat Ali unfolded a programme of progressive non-cooperation and appealed to the country for support. The Khilafat Committee, with the huge funds at its disposal, was able to draft in a large number of delegates to the Calcutta special Congress in 1920 when the non-cooperation programme was accepted by that body with two more objects added to it, namely, the obtaining of Swaraj and the righting of the Punjab wrongs.

With the deposition of the Khalifa by the British and the rise of the Muslim League, the Khilafat Committee has been reorganised by the Congress.

the entire population. No one was to be allowed to dispute between the ruling elements. Though the Government of India were willing to permit a deputation of the Committee to Turkey, the Turkish Government did not quite like the idea which had consequently to be abandoned.

The 1925 session of the Khilafat Conference was rendered lively by Mr. Hazrat Mohani whose speech strongly criticising Sultan Ibn

The resolution of the Pre-empted League's

that if the Turks went to war on the latter issue the Conference would deem it its duty to help them.

Since then one heard little about the public activities of the Committee, although many of its domestic quarrels engaged the attention of the public. Funds, however, continued to be collected for the "activities" of the Committee which could hardly be specified. Things dragged on until the latter half of 1927, when the leaders found the Khilafat organisation a useful tool for purposes of their propaganda for boycotting the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms. The visit to India of the King and Queen of Afghanistan lent some importance to the Khilafat Committee which took a leading part in welcoming Their Majesties. Flushed with the enthusiasm which characterised their

the removal of the Khilafat from the position was proclaimed "King of Islam"—the Khilafatists proceeded to Madras to attend the All-India Khilafat Conference. Held, as it was in the Congress camp, it bore visible traces of the extremist influence of the bigger political body. Indeed the professional politicians so arranged things that the Khilafat organisation, professing to speak in the name of the Mussulmans of India,—and that at a time when the All-India Muslim League itself was rent asunder by a schism—resolved to boycott the Simon Commission. The hollowness of its claim to voice the opinion of the community was proved by the first words of the President of the session, Moulvi Mahomed Shafi, M.L.A., who pleaded for keeping the Khilafat Committees "alive". Mr. Mahomed Ali urged the need of reviving the Khilafat activities, namely, the religious, social, political, educational and economic uplift of the community and the safe-guarding of the interests of Islam throughout the world. The Conference welcomed the Afghan King's suggestion to form an Asiatic League, advocated the revival of the Khilafat movement, approval of the efforts made to establish Hindu-Muslim unity and, above all, questioned Britain's right to settle India's destiny and decided to boycott the Reforms Commission. Thus ended the neatly stage-managed one-day session of the Conference.

The Indian Legislature.

The Annual Delhi session of the Indian Legislature in 1927 commenced in the new Council House on 19 January. H. E. the Viceroy having on the preceding day opened that fine pile of new buildings. The first business was the swearing in of members after the recent general election and the next the election of President and Vice-President. Mr. V. J. Patel, who had been returned unopposed by the Gujarat constituency in which his home is situated, was re-elected to the chair and Maulvi Mahomed Yakub was elected Vice-President in succession to Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, who had not been returned to the new House.

His Excellency the Viceroy delivered an inaugural address in the Assembly Chamber on 24th January. Lord Irwin informed the Legislature of a brigade of to Shanghai. India had in with convention

step before a decision to adopt it was taken by His Majesty's Government. His Excellency specially dwelt in his address with the Indian constitutional problem. He said he was not infrequently told that the British problem in India was psychological and that many of its difficulties would disappear if once India could be convinced that the British people were sincere in their professed intention of giving India responsible self-government. To carry such conviction to those who remained unconvinced was, His Excellency recognised, a very difficult task, but he told the Assembly that the very instincts of the British left them no alternative but to open to India the path in which they had themselves been pioneers and along which they had led and were still leading their people wherever the British flag was flown. He also pointed out that the British people had pledged before the world their intention to carry out the promises contained in the historical of August, 1917. The Viceroy

reiterated that the restraints placed upon the Bengal political detainees had no relation with the question of constitutional advance, for the maintenance of law and order was the inalienable duty of every Government, however constituted. The detainees were kept under restraint in order to prevent terrorist outrages and would be released the moment Government were satisfied that their release would not defeat this object.

The Viceroy specially referred to the charge of insincerity based on the method of approach which the British Parliament had adopted towards the problem of Indian constitutional development and declared that Parliament was not inspired by any selfish desire to retain power but by a genuine belief that the circumstances of history had laid upon it the duty of guiding and assisting India and by a sense that it would be definitely defaulting on these obligations if it surrendered its charge before it was satisfied that it could safely be entrusted to other hands. "When Parliament invites India to co-operate in the working of the Reformatory Constitution it does not invite any Indian party, as it was authoritatively stated the other day, to lay aside for the time being its demand for *swaraj*; it does not desire that any part or individual should forgo the freest and fullest right of criticism and constitutional opposition to any action that Government may take, but it does invite Indian political parties to show whether or not the ultimate structure which Parliament is seeking to erect is one suitable to Indian conditions and Indian needs. If it sees any large section of Indian opinion, however vocal in its desire to further the cause of Indian self-government, steadily adhering to the determination to do nothing but obstruct the machinery with which India has been entrusted, Parliament is more likely to see in this evidence that the application of western constitutional practice to India may be mistaken than proof of the wisdom of the immediate surrender to India of all its own responsibility." Refusal to play the game because the players did not like the rules would have little effect on Parliament's mind, which would on the other hand certainly be influenced if it found legislatures exercising responsibilities, albeit limited, in a spirit of service and tacitly assuming always that their real responsibility was greater than that expressed in the statute.

The question of political detainees has been taken up in the Assembly before His Excellency's address because, one detainee, Mr. Satyendra Chandra Mitra, had been elected to the House while a prisoner under the Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Act, the Act which was passed to replace the Bengal Ordinance, under which a large number of Bengal politicians were placed under restraint by Lord Reading. Pandit Motilal Nehru, as leader of the Congress party, who were present in strength, moved the adjournment of the House on 21 January to call attention to what he termed Government's refusal to allow a regularly elected member to take his seat. He pointed out that detention under the Bengal Act or the Regulation III of 1915 was not a disqualification for election and he asked what would happen if such an incident as ~~had~~ was referring to in England.

The Home Member showed that the Indian Legislature had not the same code of powers, privileges and immunities as the legislatures in some other parts of the British Empire and a strong and influential committee which had considered the point concluded that such possibly ultimate provisions would at the present time be premature, while the Legislature itself only a year ago passed a Bill to regulate such questions and specifically and only exempted "members of any legislative body constituted under the Government of India Act of 1919 from liability to serve as jurors or assessors and from arrest and detention in prison under civil process at the time of meeting of such body or of such committee thereof and during the fourteen days before and after such meeting or sitting." The Home Member referred to the incarceration of Messrs. Dillon, Parnell and others under the Protection of Prisoners and Property Act, 1851, and said it had never been contended that that was a breach of the privilege of the House of Commons. The Congress party pressed the matter to a division and with the help of the parties on the inner left and in the left centre secured a majority of 19.

The general question of political detainees was raised on 3rd February by a Congress member's resolution for the repeal of Regulation III of 1915 and similar enactment and for the release of detainees on amnesty. Pandit Motilal Nehru moved an amendment demanding that all detainees be released or brought to trial. The Home Member reminded the House that such an amnesty as now demanded was given in 1920 with the result that there was a reoccurrence of revolutionary crime. He showed how crime of the kind had continued and increased until the passing of the Bengal Ordinance of 25th October 1924, since when revolutionary crime had practically ceased, though the recent discovery of bombs in Calcutta showed that it was only scorched and not killed. He quoted H. L. the Viceroy's recent statement to the House on the subject and reiterated it as an expression of Government's policy. The debate was continued at considerable length and with some wild speeches, one speaker declaring that if he had the power he would stir up every young man to become a revolutionary conspirator and the amendment was finally carried by a majority of 13.

Movements of and efforts to move, the adjournment of the House developed into a habit. Mr. Srinivasa Iyengar, President of the Congress, gave notice of such a motion to call attention to the despatch of troops to China, a step which had come under much criticism. The President ruled it in order, but the Governor-General disallowed it under the Rule which prohibits discussions affecting relations with any foreign State. On 2nd February an attempt to move the adjournment on the ground that the non-publication of the Nij Committee's report was an urgent matter was ruled out by the President because the report was three years old. On 8th February a motion of the kind criticising the Government's ordering of business for the session was carried by 7 votes. On 6th February during the B. N. B. strike a charge was talked out.

The tariff results in **legislative business** during the session were four in number, namely, a new steel Protection Bill, a Bill providing for the maintenance of the rupee ratio at 150 gold, the railway budget and the general budget. The current bounty-cum-tariff protection of the Indian steel industry being due to expire on 22nd March 1927, Government instituted a timely inquiry by the Tariff Board with a view to the settlement of future protective measures and the Board reported before the Delhi session began recommending a new system of protection for a period of seven years from 1st April 1927, the protection to be by means of increased duties rather than by the continuation of bounty.

for protect purposes was its differentiation between standard and Non-Standard steel, which in effect is the same as differentiation between British and non-British steel. British steel being standard and non-British non-standard. The political party members insisted against this differentiation on the ground, as they alleged, that it constituted an effort to give British steel makers' preference, an allegation which Government plainly denied. The Select Committee introduced into the Bill a new provision enabling Government to increase but not to reduce the duties on British steel, so as to ensure the continuance or effective protection, and the Congress party, leading the attack against what was called preference to Britain, moved to raise the Bill back to Committee. The effort was defeated in the division lobby after two days' debate and after another two days' debate was carried without amendment.

The annual **Railways Budget** showed that the final figures for the year 1926-27 were better than expected but that the revised estimates of the financial results of 1926-27 were disappointing, since there had been an appreciable decrease in earnings from passenger traffic and a still larger decrease in earnings from goods traffic. This latter falling off was due to severe floods in Burma and elsewhere to partial failure of the Punjab cotton crop and to the late movement of cotton in Bombay and elsewhere. Hence, instead of the originally estimated net surplus of 871 lakhs rupees the surplus now expected was 564 lakhs. The figures made reductions of fares and freights impossible. A memorandum circulated with this budget showed that if the Bill for fixing the fares ratio at 18d were amended so as to reduce the rupee to 16d the net railway receipt would be reduced by 8½ crores per annum and that the reduction in 1927-28 would exceed 3 crores and convert the estimated surplus of 162 lakhs into a deficit of 150 lakhs. The main criticism of the budget was political, namely in support of the demand for the appointment of Indians as members of the Railway Board. The Government reply was that the Board members are technical experts and that there are yet no Indians of the superior railway staff sufficiently knowledgeable and experienced for appointment. A bad feature of the debates was the efforts of the political parties to support their Indian

lation in demand by contentions that the Board as at present constituted was guilty of gross mismanagement, but the attack was a grotesque one because its main allegation was in regard to a statement by the Chief Commissioner that at one period of the current year there was a surplus of 30,000 wagons. The critics fasten ed on this as an example of unbelievable extravagance, though the word surplus is a technical expression concerning the day-by-day reserve of rolling stock and in the present case it only meant that on a certain day the traffic returns showed that owing to the slack ness of traffic noted in the financial statistics, wagons to the number mentioned were unem ployed. The House carried by 59 votes to 52 a motion to cut the Railway Board vote on the ground of these surplus wagons.

The General Budget for the ensuing financial year was presented to both Houses of the Legislature on 28 February and for the fourth year in succession showed a surplus, the amount of the surplus this time being 376 lakhs rupees, a balance which would, if the rupee were reduced to *did* be converted into a deficit of 158 lakhs. The report on the Ways and Means position was gratifying. It enabled Government to calculate on financing their entire capital programme, involving an expenditure of 27 crores rupees, and also that of the Provincial Governments and to redeem maturing debt with under 10 crores of new money, which it was hoped would be forthcoming on favourable terms. Government were further able to calculate on the avoidance of external borrowing as had been the case since 1923. The Finance Member proposed various changes in the import tariff which at a cost of 6 lakhs loss in revenue would considerably ease the movement of trade, and thereafter concentrated the bulk of the surplus to reduction of Provincial Contributions. These were accordingly wiped out in perpetuity except as regards 181 lakhs and that amount, Sir Basil Blackett said, should be re-utilised for the ensuing year by the utilisation of part of the surplus revealed by the final figure of revenue and expenditure for the financial year 1926-27.

The particular ground for criticism at Government with the political party in the Assembly would in the Budget scheme lay in the interaction of the ratio question and the Budget upon one another. As the Budget stood or fell with the 182 ratio, the advocates of 100 condemned Government for placing the Legislature on the horns of a dilemma by making it choose between the remission of Provincial Contributions and the lowering of the rupee. The Budget was finally passed in the form in which it was presented subject only to comparatively minor amendments.

The voting of demands for grants was as usual made the occasion for a debate on the general constitutional question. Mr. M. R. Nayak, a new comer in the Assembly and a Representative of the demand for reduction of the expenses of the Council. The debate which followed served to emphasize the political communal differences existing between Hindu and Muslim and otherwise concerned the inconveniences of the existing constitution rather than steps which could usefully be taken.

to improve it. There was from the unofficial benches much criticism of the extent to which the Executive Government could disregard the majority votes of the Assembly and of the sense of irresponsibility which this could be held to stimulate on the unofficial side of the House. The Home Member, Sir A. P. Muddiman, in his reply specially dealt with the latter complaint and said: "No constitution and no country can be run where the Legislature is in permanent conflict with the Executive—something has got to break somewhere and that is the justification of the real justification for the existence of these residuary powers. And that brings me on to the further point, which is that the more you force on a Government constituted as we are the exercise of these residuary powers conferred on that Government the more you weaken yourselves and the more you weaken us..... You make the exercise of residuary powers a thing which you yourselves regard as a very small matter and, what is worse, you deprive the Government which exercises them of their corresponding sense of the gravity of exercising those powers in the ordinary course of administration." The Jayakar motion was carried by a majority of 9 votes.

The Assembly, on the Finance Bill, carried by 50 to 48 a Swarajist motion to reduce the Salt Tax by half. This would have upset the whole Budget scheme. The Council of State restored the Bill to its original condition and the Assembly concurred in the amendment by 52 to 41. The Assembly divided equally on the Budget proposal to abolish the export duty on hides and the President gave his casting vote in favour of the maintenance of the status quo.

The Rupee Ratio Bill came on for effective debate and vote during the negotiation of the Finance Bill. Its main provision was to fix the rupee at a ratio equivalent to 8.47512 grains gold, that is the equivalent of 18½ to the rupee, and the efforts to reduce the ratio to the equivalent of 16½ gold produced a keener fight than any on the Budget. The leaders of the movement for the depreciation of the rupee were Sir Parshotamdas Thakurdas and Sir Victor Sassoon, the former following in this respect his dissent from the majority of the Royal Commission on whose recommendations the Bill was based and Sir Victor being the founder and leader of the Indian Currency League formed for the prime purpose of compelling Government to reduce the rupee level. The critical vote resulted in a victory for Government by 68 votes to 65, the largest division lists ever recorded in the history of the Assembly. Other divisions were forced by the same opponents of the Bill, but the Government majority increased as they proceeded.

There was a noteworthy debate representing keen interest on the part of unofficial members

of the Nationalist Party on the development of civil aviation in India and the session witnessed the passing or advancement of a quantity of official legislation of other than first rate general interest. The Gold Standard and Reserve Bank Bill, implementing the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Currency for the institution of an Indian Reserve Bank, was introduced and referred to Select Committee.

Private members' resolutions were interesting for the passing of a demand for the establishment of a Supreme Court in India, so as to avoid appeals to the Privy Council—though this was only carried by a majority of one vote, for the considerable volume of opinion which they revealed in favour of the redistribution of provincial boundaries so as to give more homogeneous provinces and for the insistence of the Council of State on tightening of him censorship so as to provide better protection of the morals of the people. The parties on the left of the Assembly desired to move a resolution reiterating their demand for the immediate grant of full

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important unofficial resolution passed by the Council of State was for the appointment of an inquiry into road development throughout India and to this Government assented. Another moved in the Council of State by Sir Sarbajit Nair regarding the settlement of the of common electorates. This met with strong Muslim opposition and was thrown out. With it went a Muslim amendment insisting on communal electorates as a *sine qua non* of further progress.

autumn session
was the passage
of the Cotton
visions were for
the free admission of imports of mill stores and machinery, a tariff amendment estimated to cost the central exchequer a loss of 84 lakhs of Customs revenue per year, and the imposition of a new discriminating duty on yarn imports so as to assist Indian spinning mills in face of
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Muslim communal leaders to compose their differences and offering to assist them with his personal help if representations inviting him so to do were addressed to him. The communal leaders had already summoned a conference on the problem for the following few days and were unprepared to let the initiative pass out of their hands. Advantage was therefore not taken of His Excellency's offer. (The unofficial conference failed.)

Racing.

Calcutta.

Indian Grand National. Distance about 3 miles.—

Mr. J. Mein Austin's More Sanity (10st. 11lbs.), Capt. Lestham	1
Mr. J. D. Scott's Honolulu (10st. 5lbs.), Mr. Mitchell Jones	2
Lt.-Col. Fraser Hunter's Tostan (9st. 5lbs.), Seastream	3
Mr. H. Kirkmyre's Pretender (9st. carried 9st. 2lbs.), Elliott	4

Won by three lengths; ten lengths; fifteen lengths. Time.—6 mins. 19 secs.

New Year Plate. Distance 5 furlongs—

H. H. the Aga Khan's Darial II (8st. 12lbs.), A. C. Walker	1
Mr. A. Curliender's Corhall (7st. 11lbs.), Rosen	2
Mr. M. Yoonu's Bullina Breeze (8st. 3lbs.), Hulme	3
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Fille D'Or (9st. 1lb.), O'Brien	4

Won by three-quarter length; a head, one and a half lengths. Time.—1 min 13 3-5 secs

Cooch Behar Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs—

Hajee Sir Ismail Sait's Critical (7st. 4lbs.), J. Brown	1
Mr. Bandally Mahomed's Jan (7st. 4lbs.), Marland	2
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Pensacola (8st. 2lbs.), Dobie	3
Mr. Eve's Katerfelto (7st 6lbs.), Rosen ..	4

Won by one length; two and a quarter lengths. Time.—2 mins. 20 4-5 secs.

Carmichael Cup. Distance 1½ miles—

Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Aborigine (6st. 10lbs.), Archibald	1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Green Finch (8st. 10lbs.), Stokes	2
H. H. the Aga Khan's Quincey (9st 6lbs.) A. C. Walker	3
Mr. Pannick's Keep It Dark (8st. 3lbs.), L. Brown	4

Won by 1 length; 1½ lengths; 2½ lengths. Time.—2 mins. 6 2-5 secs.

The Governor's Cup. Distance 1½ miles—

Mr. C. Howarth's Bonnie Lad (8st. 1lb.), Hutchins	1
H. B. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Minority (7st. 3lbs.), Stokes	2
Mr. Bundally Mahomed's Jan (7st 7lbs.), A. D. Walker	3
Mr. Pannick's Keep It Dark (8st. 4lbs.), L. Brown	4

Won by 2 lengths; 1½ lengths; 1 length. Time.—3 mins. 1 sec.

Macpherson Cup Distance 1½ miles.—

Haji Sir Ismail Sait's Critical (7st 13lbs.), J. Brown	1
Mr. Pannick's Keep It Dark (8st. 3lbs.), L. Brown	2
Mr. Bundally Mahomed's Jan (7st. 9lbs.), A. Dwacker	3
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Dark Orient (7st 9lbs.), Dobie	4

Won by ½ length; 2½ lengths. Time.—2 mins. 33 1-5 secs

Beresford Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. B. E. G. Eddi's Spring Running (7st. 7lbs.), Parker	1
Mr. H. Dees' Snowdrift (8st 10. lbs.), Ponce ..	2
Messrs. Edmonston's and Muer's Mandarin (8st. 1lb.), Hutchings	3
Mr. Pannick's French Bean (9st.), L. Brown ..	4

Won by a neck; 1½ lengths; 1½ lengths. Time.—3 mins. 2 2-5 secs.

Burdwan Cup. Distance about 1½ miles.

Mr. E. Des's Blacktoi (10st 7lbs.), Elliott ..	1
Mr. H. G. Gregson's Stronsay (10st 3lbs.), Venall	2
Mr. K. Dees' Snowdrift (11st 3lbs.), Jackson ..	3
Capt. W. I. Latham's More Sanity (10st 7lbs.), Owner	4

Won by 2 lengths, 1½ lengths, ¾ length. Time.—3 min. 23 2-5 secs.

Mayfowl Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Dark Orient (7st 12lbs.),	
A. C. Walker	1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's L.S.D. (8st 9lbs.),	
Herbert	1
Miss M. Prophit's Golden Trace (7st 11lbs.),	
Balfour	3
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Affable (9st 4lbs.), Forbes	4
Won by 1 length; 1½ lengths; 1½ lengths.	
Time—1 min 41 secs.	

The Vicaroy's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. A. A. Bowie's Nightjar (9st 3lbs.),	
Balfour	1
Mr. Kelso's Ventose (9st 3lbs.), Howell	2
Mr. C. N. Wadia's Domestic Bond (9st 3lbs.), Sibbritt	3
Mr. C. N. Wadia's Cap-a-Pie (9st 3lbs.), Hutchins	4
Won by a neck; 1½ head. Time.—3 mins. 6secs.	

Merchant's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Eve's Pride of Priesttown (8st.), Ritchie 1	
Mr. H. K. Dey's True Grit (7st 13 lbs.), .. 2	
Mr. C. N. Doneti's Scot (8st 12lbs.), Sibbritt 3	
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Ox Trot (9st.), Riley .. 4	
Won by 5 lengths; 3 lengths; neck. Time—2 mins 38 secs.	

Monsoon Cup. Distance about 1 mile 3 furlongs.—

Mr. E. Des's Snowdrift (9st. 11lb.), Northmore. 1	
Messrs. Soutar and Simpson's Spivis (7st 7lbs.)	
Alford	2
Mr. E. J. Cubbay's Gadget (9st.), Meekings.. 3	
Mr. B. E. G. Eddis' Spring Running .. 4	
Won by ½ length; 1½ lengths; a head. Time—2 mins. 28 2-5 secs.	

Final Plate. (Div. I) Distance about 5 furlongs.—

Messrs. Soutar and Simpson's Jabstaxay (8st. 6lbs.), Meekings	1
Capt. Hastings and Mr. Graham's Glen Des-sary (7st. 12lbs.), Ringstead	2
Sir R. N. Mookerjee and Mr. D. De M. Kel-lock's Green Sprite (8st. 6lbs.), Rosen .. 3	
Mr. E. Dees' Lussker (9st. 3lbs.) Northmore 4	
Won by 1 length; 1½ length; 1½ length. Time 1 min. 4 ½ secs.	

Bombay.

The Windsor Plate. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mrs. C. N. Wadia's Ulster All (8st 7lbs.), Bowley and Mr. Ardeshir	} Dead Heat	1
Cursctjee's Moss (8st.), J. W.		
Race		
H H the Maharaja of Mysore's Balmstone (8st. 10lbs.), S. J. Meekings		3
Messrs. Heath and M. Najmuddin's Stone Marten (8st. 12lbs.), Clarke		4
Dead heat; neck, neck. Time—1 min 35 secs.		

The Epsom Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Messrs. Heath and M. Najmuddin's Stone Marten (9st. 11b.), Clarke	1
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Balmstone (9st. 2lbs.), S. J. Meekings	2
Mr. Marquis' Husky (7st. 10lbs.), A. Beshman	8
Mr. Vivian's Eltonian (9st.), Burn	4
Won by ½ length; ¾ length; ½ length	
Time—1 min 12 3-5 secs.	

The Rajpipla Gold Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Messrs. D. S. Barve and M. C. Patel's Moss (8st. 7lbs.), Barnett	1
Mr. Eve's The Count (7st 9lbs), C. Hoyt .. 2	
Mr. P. B. Avasia's L.S.D. (3st. 3lbs.) A. T. Harrison	3
Mr. Pannick's Keep It Dark (7st. 9lbs carried 7st. 13lbs), Brown	4
Won by a neck; a head; a short head	
Time.—1 min. 37 3-5 secs.	

The Grand Western Handicap. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Pannick's Keep It Dark (8st. 2lbs.) L. Brown	1
Mr. Kelso's Ventose (8st. 4lbs.), Clarke .. 2	
Mr. Pannick's Harvest Star (7st. 7lbs.), C. Hoyt	3
H. H. the Aga Khan's Quincy (9st, 4lbs) Easton	4
Won by neck, ¾ length; ½ length. Time—2 mins 6 1-5 secs.	

The Gough Memorial Plate. (Div. I). Distance 7 furlongs.—

H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Salome (7st. 9lbs.), R. Stokes	1
Mrs. F. A. Rayneau's Amara (8st. 10lbs.) Howell	"
Mr. F. A. Banaji's Ferdinand (8st. 9lbs.) S J Meekings	3
Mr. A. M. A. Bebeermal (8st 3lbs) Bowley	4

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Time—1 min. 3-6 secs.

The Innovation Plate. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. P. B. Arasia's L.S.D. (7st. 11lbs.), A. T. Harrison	1
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Madame Seguin (8st. 12lbs.), Archibald	2
Mr. Pannick's Hühling Moin (7st. 9lbs.), McQuade	3
Mrs. C. N. Wadla's Ulster Ally (8st. 12lbs.), Bowley	4

Won by ½ length; head; ½ length. Time.—1 min. 2½ 3-5 secs.

The Tom Le Mesurier Plate (Div. I.) Distance 6 furlongs.—

Mr. Marles' Kummeruzzaman (8st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker	1
Mr. Nasak bin Jassim's Sanatogen (8st. 6lbs.), S. J. Meekings	2
Mr. Heath's Mayiah (7st. 9lbs.), Clarke	3
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Amin (8st. 12lbs.), J. W. Brace	4

Won by head; 2 lengths; short head. Time.—1 min. 19 4-5 secs.

The Importers' Plate. Distance about 1½ miles.—

Mr. G. E. D. Langley's Candle Hill (9st.), Burn	1
Mr. G. D. Shuttleworth's Tycho (8st. 6lbs.), Archibald	2
Mr. Eve's Aldergrove (8st. 21lbs.), C. Hoyt	3
Mr. Eve's Katerfeito (8st. 5lbs.), Ritchie	4

Won by neck, 5 lengths; 2½ lengths. Time.—2 mins. 40 secs.

H. H. Aga Khan's Quiney (9st. 8lbs.), A. C. Walker	1
Mr. Kelso's Ventose (9st. 11lb.), Townsend	2
Mr. Eve's Red Hawk (9st. 7lbs.), Ritchie	3
H. H. Maharaja of Kolhapur's Sajjan (9st.), Herbert	4

Won by 2 lengths; 3 lengths; 1 length. Time.—2 mins. 6 secs.

Mr. Eve's Pekin (8st. 9lbs.), C. Hoyt	1
Mr. S. Dhunibhoy's Red Flag (7st. 11lbs.), Herbert	2
Mr. F. A. Banaji's Ferdinand (8st. 7lbs.), S. J. Meekings	3

Messrs. D. S. Barve and M. C. Patel's Noorimulk (8st. 9lbs.), Barnett

Won by short head; short head; neck. Time. 1 min. 20 3-5 secs.

The Bombay City Plate. Distance 1 mile

Messrs. D. S. Barve and M. C. Patel's Moss (8st. 6lbs.), Barnett	1
H. H. Aga Khan's Frater (9st.), A. C. Walker	2
H. H. Maharaja of Rajpipla's Melesigenes (9st. 7lbs.), Townsend	3
Mr. C. N. Wadla's Cap-a-Pie (9st. 12lbs.), Bowley	4

Won by neck, neck; 4 lengths. Time.—2 mins. 3 4-5 secs.

The Fort Plate (Div. I.) Distance 1 mile.—

H. H. Maharaja of Mysore's Lembas (7st. 13lbs.), S. J. Meekings	1
Mr. Heath's Jovial (7st. 9lbs.), Clarke	2
H. H. Aga Khan's Tristan (8st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker	3
Mr. Eve's Pride of Priestown (8st. 12lbs.), J. Collins	4

Won by ½ length; head; 1 length. Time.—1 min. 39 secs.

The Fort Plate (Div. II.) Distance 1 mile.—

H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's True Grace (8st. 18lbs.), S. J. Meekings	1
Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Pom Pom (9st.), T. Bonee	2
Mr. Eve's The Typhoon (9st.), J. W. Brace	3
Mr. Heath's Silverine (8st. 16lbs.), Clarke	4

Won by neck, ½ length; ½ length. Time.—1 min. 39 secs.

The Dealers' Plate. Distance 1 mile.—Arabs in Classes I and II.

Mr. H. M. Mahomed's HJaluzzaman (8st. 6lbs.), McQuade	1
Mr. Heath's Mansoor Beg (9st. 8lbs.), Clarke	2
Mr. Heath's Silver Thrush (9st. 8lbs.), T. Hill	3
Mr. Shantidas Askuran's Jodi (9st. 7lbs.), Burn	4

Won by 3 lengths; neck; ½ length. Time.—1 min. 48 secs.

The Turf Club Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. E. L. F. De Souza's Tiger King (8st. 5 lbs.), W. G. Thompson	1
Mr. Hussain Tamavi's Dilawar (9st. 6lbs.), Barnett	2
Mr. Heath's Mansoor Beg (9st. 7lbs.), T. Hill	3
Mr. Eve's Khundil (8st. 11lb.), J. W. Brace	4

Won by head; 1 length; ½ length. Time—3 mins 31 3-5 secs.

The Byculla Club Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. M. Dhalla's Fun of the Fayre (7st. 6lbs) Howell	1
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Mr C. N. Wadia's Coed Canlas (7st. 11lbs.),	
F. Black	2
Mr. Bundally Mahomed's Jan (7st. 11lbs.),	
A. T. Harrison	3
Mr G.E.D. Langley's Candle Hill (8st. 7lbs.),	
Burn	4

Won by 3 lengths; neck; 2½ lengths. Time—
3 mins. 36 secs.

The C. N. Wadia Cup. Distance 1 mile 5 furlongs.—

Mr Kelso's Ventose (9st. 1lb.), Townsend.	1
Mr C. N. Wadia's Cap-a-Pic (9st. 10lbs.),	
Bowley	2
H. H. Aga Khan's Quincy (9st. 8lbs.), J. W.	
Brace	3
H. H. Maharaja of Kolhapur's Sajjan (8st. 12lbs.), Herbert	4

Won by 2½ lengths; 4 lengths; 6 lengths. Time—2 mins. 48 secs.

The Colaba Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

H. H. Maharaja of Rajpipla's Gift O' The Glen (7st. 6lbs.), Townsend	1
Messrs. M.H. Ahmedbhai and A.J. Calcuttawalla's Murmansk (7st. 12lbs.), Burn	2
Mr T. M. Thaddeus' Woodstock II (8st. 12lbs.), Archibald	3
Mr Marquis' Starboard (8st. 12lbs.), Howell	4

Won by 5 lengths; neck; neck. Time 1 min. 38 3-5 secs.

The Irwin Cup. Distance 1½ miles.

H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shivaji Prasad (7st 5lbs.), H. McQuade	1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Sham Soonder (7st 5lbs.), Herbert	2
Mr Rainey's Belan (7st 8lbs.), F. Black	3
Mr H. M. Mahomed's Hilaluzzaman (10st 2lbs.), Easton	4

Won by ½ length, head, 1 length. Time—2 mins. 20 2-5 secs.

Mr Eve's Portsoy (8st 12lbs.), Herbert	1
Mr V. Rosenthal's Wooser (9st 2lbs.), Townsend	2
Mr M. C. Patel's Heera Mahal (8st 8lbs.), Barnett	3
Mr Shantidas Askuran's Vestington Planet (8st 4lbs.) Burn	4

Won by 1½ lengths; ½ length; 1 length. Time—1 min. 12 4-5 secs.

Sir Leslie Wilson Hospital Gold Cup.—Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. M. C. Patel's Restoration (7st. 11 lbs. carried 8st.) Barnett	1
Mr. Ormonde's Vestington Planet (7st 8lbs. carried 7st. 6 lbs.) S. Black	2
Mr M. C. Patel's Heera Mahal (7st. 13 lbs.) A. C. Walker	3
Mr. Eve's Penetrate (7st. 11lb.) Japheth	4

Won by 2 lengths; 1½ lengths; ½ length. Time—1 min. 26 2-5 secs.

The Aga Khan's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. M. Dhalla's Fun of the Fayre (7st. 13½ lbs.) Howell	1
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Dark Orient (7st. 10lbs. carried 7st. 11 lbs.) T. Hill	2
Mr. G. E. D. Langley's Trajanus (8st. 2lbs.) Burn	3
Mr. Kelso's Ventose (9st. 6 lbs.) Townsend	4

Won by head; ½ length, head. Time—2 mins. 4-5 secs.

Poona.

The Dealers' New Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr T. D. Sheth's Savage (8st.), Barnett,	1
Mr. E. H. Ghazala's Rubdan (9st. 3lbs.) Easton	2
Mr. A. C. Ardesheer's Sarsam (8st.), Morris	3
Mr. N. Ardesheer and Aga Cumberally's Saifulzaman (9st.), H. McQuade	4

Won by a head; one and a half lengths; three quarter length. Time—2 mins. 26 1-5 secs.

The Trial Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. M. C. Patel's Moss (9st 1lb.), Barnett	1
Mr. R. H. Gaghaan's Wild Argosy (8st. 3lbs.) Bowley	2
H. H. the Aga Khan's Darial II (8st. (13lbs.) A. C. Walker	3
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Madame Seguin (9st 2lbs.), Riley	4

Won. by head, head; neck. Time—1 min. 43 1-5 secs.

The Poona Arab Derby. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. M. Najmuddin's Humorous (7st. 11 lbs.) Burn	1
Mr M. C. Patel's Amai (8st. 7lbs.) Barnett	2
S.S. Akkasahab Maharnaj's Roman (8st.), Morris	3
M. A. B. Faba's White Cross (8st.) T. Hill	4

Won by a neck two lengths three lengths. Time—2 mins. 56 2-5 secs.

The St. Leger Plate. Distance B.C. and Dist.—

H. H. the Aga Khan's Astro D'Or (7st. 11lbs.)
A. C. Walker 1
Messrs. Heath and W. Bird's Trustan (7st. 11bs., Hardings) 2
Mr. J. N. Desouza's My Realm (7st. 21bs.), Townsend 3
Mr. Eve's Portney (9st. 41bs.), Brace .. 4
Won by 1 length; $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; 3 lengths. Time—2 mins. 57 1-5 secs.

The Governor's Cup. Distance B.C. and Dist.—

H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Anubhai Star (7st.), Rankin 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shivaji Prasad (7st.), Ashwood 2
Mr. H. M. Mahomed's Bilaluzzaman (9st. 8lbs.) H. McQuade 3
Mr. Heath's Silver Thrush (8st. 8lbs.), Hardings .. 4
Won by five lengths; one length; one and a half lengths. Time—3 mins. 9 secs.

The Western India Stakes. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Mr. G. E. D. Langley's Candle Hill (7st. 9lbs.), Burn 1
H. H. the Aga Khan's Darial II (8st.), Walker .. 2
Mr. Eve's Fordney (8st. 6lbs.), Brace 3
Mr. M. C. Patel's Moss (9st. 5lbs.), Barnett .. 4
Won by one length; a neck; half a length. Time—2 mins. 16 3-5 secs.

The Newmarket Plate. Distance 6 furlongs—

Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Golden Quest (8st. 5lbs.), Spackman 1
Mr. C. N. Wadia's Leinster Wonder (8st. 6lbs.), Morris 2
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Madame Seguin (8st. 12lbs.), Riley 3
Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Woodstock II (8st. 6lbs.), Bowley 4
Won by a head; neck; 7 lengths. Time 1 min. 28-3 secs.

The Atlantic Stakes. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Mr. C. N. Wadia's Good Canals (8st. 12lbs.), Morris 1
H. H. the Aga Khan's Darial II (9st. 5lbs.), A. C. Walker 2
Mr. M. C. Patel's Moss (9st. 5lbs.), Barnett .. 3
Mr. Eve's Hotstuff (7st. 13lbs.), Ritchie .. 4
Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; head. 4 lengths. Time—2 mins. 16 4-5 secs.

The Aga Shamshudin Plate. Distance 7 furlongs—

Mr. Eve's Portney (7st., 11lbs.), C. Hoyt .. 1
Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Woodstock II (8st.), Bowley 2

Mr. C. N. Wadia's Ulster Ally (8st. 5lbs.),

Morris 3
Messrs. N. Begumabomed and H. Ismail's French Brer (8st.), Ashwood 4
Won by half length; $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; 3 lengths. Time—1 min. 32 4-5 secs.

The Turf Club Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Mr. Ahmed Hazamy's Anwar (7st.), Wright .. 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Rarity, (8st. 10lbs.) Townsend 2
Mr. M. C. Patel's Kadir Hajaz (7st. 10lbs.), Clarke 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shivaji Prasad (7st. 11bs.), Ashwood 4
Won by 8 lengths; 1 length $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths. Time—3 mins. 50 secs.

The Poona Cesarawalla. Distance $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Mr. Eve's Aldergrove (8st. 5lbs.) C. Hoyt .. 1
Mr. P. B. Avasthi's Crab Apple (7st. 10lbs.), Howell 2
Mr. C. Howarth's Bonnie Lad (9st. 10lbs.), Hutchins 3
Mr. G. E. D. Langley's Dickybird (6st. 7lbs.), Japeth 4
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length; $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; neck. Time—1 min.—22 2-5 secs.

Bangalore.

Desaraj Urs Memorial Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Messrs. G. Essaji and Bird's Our Laddie (8st. 3lbs.), H. Black 1
Mr. E. C. Kent's Osbourne (8st.), E. J. Howell .. 2
Mr. G. H. Essaji's Zara (8st. 3lbs.), A. Clarke .. 3
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; 1 length. Time 1 min. 56 1-5 secs.

Bangalore Cup—Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Capt. Sir Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Recompense (7st. 13lbs.), S. Black 1
Major J. A. Shorten and M. Johnstone's Sea Chariot (9st. 6lbs.), Barnett 2
Mr. J. P. Mackenzie's Harlequin (7st. 6lbs.), E. J. Howell 3
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length; $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths. Time—2 mins. 25 4-5 secs.

Bobbili Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Messrs. Akbar Ali and Sheth Chhatrai's Lucky Star (7st. Akbar Ali 1

Mr. F. M. Xavier's Luxmi Prasad II (7st. 11lbs.), Thompson 2

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Bhagawazenda II (7st. 11lbs.), B. Rankin 3

Won by 1 length; head. Time—2 min. 43 secs.

Southern India Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs—

Messrs. G. Essaji and W. Bird's Our Laddle (8st.), H. Black 1

Mr. J. J. Murphy's Drummer Boy (10st.) J. T. Harding 2

Mr. G. Essaji's Zaru (9st. 8lbs.), A. Clarke .. 3

Won by 1½ lengths: 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 40 3-5 secs.

Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup. Distance about 1 mile—

Mr. J. P. Mackenzie's Queen's Dream (9st. 3 lbs.), T. Burn 1

Mr. Roscoe's Cornerman (8st 6lbs.), Reynolds 2

Capt. Str Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Red-cockade (9st.), S. Black 3

Won by 1½ lengths; 1½ length. Time—1 min. 55 1-5 secs.

Gaunt Cup. Distance 1 mile—

Mr. Suleman Mahallah's Timurling (8st. 10lbs.), T. Burn 1

Mr. Elias H. Ghazala's Mijrin (9st. 12lbs.), H. McQuade 2

Mr. A. R. Khadir's Balkeos (7st.) B. Rankin 3

Won by 2½ lengths; ¾ lengths. Time—2 min. 5 2-5 secs. ..

Hajee Sir Ismail Sait's Cup. Distance 6 furlongs—

Mr. W. Leslie's Arran Rose (8st. 10lbs), G. Hutchins 1

The Raja of Bobbili's Minthill (7st. 10lbs.), J. Flynn 2

Mr. S. F. P. Pearson's Lady Marigold (8st. 7lbs.) J. McQuade 3

Won by 2½ lengths; 1½ length. Time—1 min. 23 secs

Maharaja of Mysore's Gold Cup. Distance 1 mile—

H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Adour (7st. 13lbs.), A. Clarke 1

Messrs. A. J. Shorten and A. H. Johnson's Sea Charlot (9st 3lbs), Barnett 2

Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Recompense (7st., 13lbs.) S. Black 3

Won by 3 lengths ½ length 1 length 1 min. 56 2-5 secs.

Apollo Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Akbar Ali's Ahyid (8st, 7lbs.), H Walker.

Maharajah of Kolhapur's Mabrook (8st. 11lb) T. Burn

Messrs. G. H. Essaji and W. Bird's Halfa (7st. 3lbs.), Rankin

Won by 3 lengths; neck between second and third. Time—2 mins. 46 3-5 secs.

Ootacamund.

Governor's Cup. Distance 1½ miles—

Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Red Cockade (7st. 3lbs.), S. Black 1

Mr. McElligott and Major Guild's Gylvern (8st. 12lbs.), J. McQuade 2

Mr. Vankata Narayana Rao's Floral Dance (7st. 10lbs.), C. Hoyt 3

Mr. J. J. Murphy's Brave Queen (8st. 4lbs) Harding 4

Won by 1 length; 1½ lengths, second and third; 6 lengths, third and fourth. Time—2 mins. 15 3-4 secs.

Poona Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Hawad (8st) Stokes 1

Mr. Goculdas's Solidity, Rankin 2

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shahzaman Time—1 min. 25 2-3 secs. 3

Deomar Cup. Distance 7 furlongs—

Mr. F. M. Xavier's Samarnad (7st. 12lbs) C. Hoyt 1

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shivaji Prasad (8st. 10lbs), Rylands 2

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Harrier (7st. 10lbs) Stokes 3

Mr. Anwar Ali's Beg's Blackberry (7st) Shaukat Ali 4

Won by a short head; 1½ lengths, second and third; 2 lengths, third and fourth. Time—1 min. 42 sec.

Vendayar Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Messrs. Pogose and Bose's Prosperous (8st) Rylands 1

Mr. Gegg's Gallopeur Olivier (7st. 3lbs.), car 7st. 5lbs.), C. Hoyt 2

Messrs. Maurice and Wright's Bachante (7st. 3lbs.), S. Black 3

Mr. J. J. Murphy's Power (8st) Harding 4

Won by 1½ lengths 1 length 1 min. 33 secs.

Savagan Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shirtaj (8st. 9lbs.),
Stokes 1
Mr E.C. Kent's Osbourne (7st. 8lbs.), Howell 2
Captain F. M. Kirwan's Lilac (9st. 7lbs.),
J. McQuade 3
Won by a neck; $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths. Time.—1 min.
18 1-5 secs.

Rawalpindi.

The Wills Gold Flak Chase. Distance.—

Capt. Newill's Little Rover (12st. 7lbs.),
Owner 1
Capt. Newill's Sammy (10st. 9lbs.), Capt.
Cox 2
Mr. Weber's Prim (12st. 7lbs.), Mr. Freer .. 3
Capt. Birne's The Lure (10st. 8lbs.), Owner. 4
Won by $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; neck: distance. Time
—5 24 4-5 secs.

Rawalpindi Gold Cup. Distance about
7 furlongs.—

Major Exham's Brenock (8st. 4lbs.), Bona.. 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Lady
Avidity (8st. 3lbs.), Fownes 2
Col Pusch and Mr. Thompson's La Mienne
(8st 4lbs.), Roxburgh 3
Major White's Dynasty (8st. 11lbs.), Aldridge 4
Won by a head; $\frac{1}{2}$ length; $\frac{1}{2}$ length.
Time.—1 min. 32 secs.

Patron's Cup. Distance 1 mile—

Major Vanrenen's Prince Michael (10st.
12lbs.) Riley 1
Major Davies' Rambler (7st. 12lbs.), Balfour 2
Mrs. Thorne Poole's Perception (9st. 10lbs.),
Jones 3
Col. Mathew's Yankee Love (8st. 2lbs.).
Corkill 4
Won by a head; $\frac{1}{2}$ length; $\frac{1}{2}$ length. Time.—
1 min. 47 3-5 secs.

The Eve Cup. Distance about 11 furlongs.—

Mr. Bahadur Khan's Come Along (20 yards)
Miss Wadia 1
Capt. Beatty's Eve (85 yards) Mrs. Beatty 2
Mr. Aziz Ahmed Shah's Mung (70 yards)
Mrs. Dunlop 3
Won by a short head: 5 lengths. Time—
1 min 12 secs.

Renala Cup. Distance about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Capt. Marrott's Radiograph (10st. 10lbs.),
Capt. Newill 1
Col. McCudden's Queen's Bay (10st. 10lbs.),
Owner 2
Won by distance. Time.—5 mins. 20 secs.

The Northern Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—

Capt. ——— Young Tara (7st. 13lbs.), Bal-
four 1
Mr. Bhargava's Sicab (9st. 5lbs.), Raley.. 2
Mr. Gheba's Hizam Minuwa (9st. 9lbs.),
Edwards 3
Capt. Kerr's Kohinoor (9st. 4lbs.), Ald-
ridge 4
Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; $\frac{1}{2}$ length; $\frac{1}{2}$ length.
Time.—1 min 56 2-5 secs.

Eve Cup. Distance 4 furlongs—

Captain Deatty's Eve (45 yards) Mrs. Deatty 1
Mrs McCraith's Lella (28 yards) Mrs. Deas 2
Mrs. Feroze Khan's Come Along (25 yards)
Miss Wadia 3
Won by a short head: 2 lengths. Time—57
secs.

Secunderabad.

Fakhr-ul-Mulk Cup Distance 1 mile—

Messrs. H. A. Ally and Murtaza's Black Rock
(7st.), H. McQuade 1
Mrs. Harrison's Polianthes (8st. 11 lbs.), W.
Ashwood 2
Mr. S.M. Hussain's Footstep (7st.), E. Fownes 3
Won by 6 lengths; 4 lengths. Time—2 mins.
1 3-5 secs.

Tomalne Cup. Distance 5 furlongs—

Nawab M. M. Ali Khan's Lucy Carmer (9st.
12lbs.), W.G. Thompson 1
Lt.-Col. J. S. Mowat's Maline (8st. 11lbs.), Mr.
F. Roberts 2
Col. Clomdt. H. R. Headlam's Trafina (7st.), W.
Ashwood 3
Won by 16 lengths; 6 lengths. Time—
1 min. 13 2-5 secs.

Quetta.

Baleli Stakes. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Capt. Frank H. Richard's One Guinea (9st.
9lbs.), Capt. Bernard 1
Sir W. S. J. Wilson's and Mr. M. Dowson's
Battle Call (8st. 10lbs.), E. Roxburgh .. 2
H. H. the Khan of Kelat's Golden } Dead
Heat (9st. 4lbs.), E. Fownes } heat 3
Swift Lady (9st. 4lbs.) Feroze Khan }
Won by 3 lengths: a head: dead heat;
min. 15

Tradesmen's Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

H. H. the Khan of Kelat's Nigel (7st. 4lbs.),	
R. Bona	1
Major H. Exham's Brenock (9st.), E. Rox-	
burgh	2
Mrs. G. Dudley Matthew's Myrtle-Berry	
(10st.), Bernard	3
Major K. G. Bittleston's Donna "Q" (7st.),	
Tymon	4
Won by 3 lengths; 6 lengths; 2 lengths.	
Time—1min. 16 secs.	

Robot Stakes. Distance 5 furlongs.—

H. H. the Khan of Kelat's Poli (9st 7lbs.),	
Capt. Bernard	1
Mr. Mehrab Khan's Scattercash (7st.),	
J. Tymon	2
H. H. the Khan of Kelat's Shams (8st.	
10lbs.), Mr. H. Vyse	3
Nawab Sir Shams Shah's Marwarid (8st.),	
Feroze Khan	4
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length; 12 lengths; 2 lengths.	
Time.—1 min. 5 3-5 secs.	

Whin Chase. Distance about 2 miles over the steeplechase course.—

Mr. N. Carbutt's Ajax (11st.), Mr. H. C.	
Phillips	1
Mr. J. R. Wilson's Pruneface (9st.), Mr.	
Vyse	2
Won by 6 lengths. Time.—4 mins. 27 secs.	

Mysore.

Royal Calcutta Turf Club Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—

Raja of Parlakimidi's Roltol (7st.), H. Black.	1
Mr. Pogose's Cill Gobann (11st), Rylands..	2
Mr. Mackenzie's Harlem (7st. 11lbs), Flynn.	3
Won by a neck; two lengths. Time.—1 min. 31 secs.	

Sobbi Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Mr. Pogose's Catchup (7st. 5lbs.), Rylands..	1
Mr. W. Hayhoe's Not Long (8st. 1lb.),	
Barnett	2
Nawabzada Abdulkarim Khan's Elkie	
(7st. 13lbs), Harding	3
Won by $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; neck. Time.—2 mins. 14 secs.	

Mushtary Cup. Distance about 3 furlongs.—

Mr. Elias Gazala's Hamoud (8st.), H.	
McQuade	1

Maharaja of Kolhapur's	at 12lbs.
Clarke	2

Messrs. Shaffee and Kazrani's Mahfouz (8st 3lbs.), Howell

Messrs. Fatha and Wachaf's Red Lips (7st 11lbs.), Rankin

Won by $3\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, head; $\frac{1}{2}$ length. Time—1min. 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ secs.

Col. Desaraj Urs Memorial Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Messrs. Pogose and Bosa's Prosperous (8st 10lbs.), Rylands

Messrs. Maurice and Wright's Bacchante (8st. 4lbs.), S. Black

Rajah of Bobbili's Sortance (7st. 2lbs) Rankin

Won by a neck, 2 lengths.

Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—

Mr. E. C. Kent's Osbourne (8st. 2lbs) Howell

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shewanti (7st) Stokes

Mr. J. J. Murphy's Drummer Boy (9st 12lbs.), Harding

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, neck. Time.—1 min 47 secs.

Maharaja of Mysore's Cup. Distance about $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Adour (7st. carried 7st. 4lbs.), Stokes

Raja of Parlakimedi's Roltol (7st. 9lbs) H. Black

Mr. Roscoe's Prince Wahed (7st. 13lbs), Barnett

Maharaja of Mysore's Purser (9st. 1lb), T. Hill

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, 2 lengths. Time—2mins. 10secs.

Hajee Sir Ismail Salt's Cup. Distance about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Mr. Venkatanarayan Rao's Mamcluke (7st 11lbs.), H. Black and } Dead
Maharaja of Kolhapur's Mabrook (7st. } heat
8lbs.), Stokes

Mr. S. H. Masbal's Cherio (8st. 9lbs) H. McQuade

Won by a short head; $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, second third; 2 lengths, third and fourth. Time—1 min. 42 secs.

Sirdar Lakshmitkantharaj Urs Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—

Mr. Suliman Mahalla's Tajmurlung (8st 10lbs), Burn

Mr. Elias Gazala's Mijrin (10st. 4lbs), H. McQuade

Mr. V (8st. 1 lbs. H. Black

Maharaja's Cup. Distance 1 mile.
Stokes 4

Won by a head; $\frac{1}{2}$ length; neck. Time—
1 min. 3 secs.

Rajkumar's Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—

Mr. J. J. Murphy's Primer (8st. 10lbs.),
Hardings 1

Mr. Roscoe's Cornerman (8st. 15lbs.),
Reynold 2

Mr. Pogose's Catchup (8st. 11lbs.), Howell .. 3

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths. Time—
1 min. 30 2-3secs.

Kolhapur.

Turf Club Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. C. N. Wadia's Swanshot (7st. 8lbs.),
S. Black 1

Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan Bahadur's
San Fay (8st. 12lbs.) Japeth 2

Mr. R. E. Darnison's Kilaloo (7st. 13lbs.),
Burn 3

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ length; $1\frac{1}{2}$ length. Time—1
min 13 1-5 secs.

Shri Akkasahab Maharaj Cup. Distance
 $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

His Highness the Maharaja of Rajppla's
Hazel (8st. 8lbs.). Burn 1

Mr. S. H. Mashal's Choerio (8st. 4lbs.),
C. Hoyt 2

His Highness the Maharaja of Kolhapur's
Shivaji Prasad (7st. 12lbs.), Stokes .. 3

Aga Cumberally's Terror (7st. 8lbs.), Hill .. 4

Won by three-quarter length; a neck;
half a length. Time.—2 mins. 24 secs.

Maharajah Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Mr. R. B. Dawson's Kilaloo (7st. 12lbs.),
Burn 1

Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan Bahadur's San
Fay (7st.), Ashwood 2

Mr. C. N. Wadia's Swanshot (8st. 8lbs.),
Black 3

Mr. R. Bence's Peculiar (8st.) M. Hoyt .. 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths; six
eights five lengths. Time 2 mins 4

0 2-5 secs.

S S Ak a a cb Ma araj Cup. Dist. $1\frac{1}{2}$
miles.—

H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Prayag
(7st. 6lbs. carried 7st. 8lbs.) Clarke .. 1

Mr. Kamte's Medina (7st. 9lbs. carried 7st.
10lbs.) Howell 2

H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shewanti
(7st. 11lbs.) Herbert 3

Won by neck, 1 length. Time.—2 mins
17 secs.

Meerut.

B. N. Bhargava Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

F. Lts. J. J. Clarke and Q. W. Gore's Cock
Robin (8st. 6 lbs.) Roxburgh 1

Messrs. Macmohan and R. L. Kapoor's Grey-
cotton (9st. 12lbs) Bond 2

Lt.-Col. A. G. Pusch and Mr. J. Thompson's
Arabian Knight (9st. 11lb.) Fownes .. 3

Mr. S. Gurbakh Singh's Ayala (7st. 4 lbs.
carried 7st. 6 lbs.) Corkhill 4

Won by 1 length, 3 lengths, $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths. Time—
2 mins. 21 2-5 secs.

Governor's-General's Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

A cup value £50 presented by His Excellency
the Viceroy and Rs. 4,500 to the winner,

Rs. 1,500 to the second, Rs. 500 to the third

Col. H. Hildyard's Reflection (9st. 4lbs.) Bond 1

Mr. S. Woodward's The Knut (9st. 10lbs.)
Captain Bernard 2

Major F. Davis's Rambler (8st. 6lbs.) Roxburg 3

Mrs. Thornepool's Perception (9st. 4lbs) Bona 4

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ length; 3 lengths; $\frac{1}{2}$ length.
Time—2 mins. 13 4-5 sec.

Governor's Cup. Distance about two miles.—

Capt. Turner's Llyn Elgion (10st. 10lbs.) Capt.
Atherton 1

Mr. Weber's Prim (12st. 10lbs.) Owner .. 2

Mr. Adye's Johore (11st. 8lbs.) Mr. Patterson
Knight 3

Capt. Newill's Little Rover (11st. 10lbs).
Owner 4

Won by 15 lengths; 20 lengths, a distance.

Madras.

Venkatagiri Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr. T. M. Goculdas's China (7st. 9lbs. carried
8st. 10lbs) Bosley 1

Mr. Kanales 7st. 11lbs H. Black.

Mr A. Hoyt's Baktavar (9st. 2lbs), Akey .. 3
 H H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Durbar
 (7st. 11lbs), Hoyt 4
 Won by 1 length. head, 1 length. Time—
 1 min. 25 secs.

Deylon Cup Distance 1 mile—

Sir Ismail Salt's Ardfern (9st 2lbs), Babajan 1
 Raja of Bobbili's Minthill (7st. 13lbs),
 Dounelly 2
 Mr McEligot's and Major Guild's Cylvern
 (9st. 3lbs.), S. Black 3
 Mr Galstaun's Sharp Warrior (8st. 5lbs.),
 Harrison 4
 Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths.
 Time—1 min. 45 1-5 secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance racecourse.—

Mr Murphy's Brave Colleen (7st 5lbs),
 H Black 1
 Sir Ismail Salt's Ardfern (7st. 11lbs),
 Brown 2
 Mr Khairaz's Slovakia (8st. 9lbs), Burgess 3
 Sir Wilson's and Dawson's Battle Call (7st.
 2lbs), Robertson 4
 Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ length; short head; 1 length.
 Time.—2 mins. 41 secs.

Kirampuddi Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr Nicoll's Nicaragua (8st. 2lbs), Brown .. 1
 Mr Murphy's Platinum (8st), Harding .. 2
 Maharaja of Mysore's Brandonia (8st. 7lbs),
 Babajan 3
 Mr Galstaun's Dinnetto's Daughter (7st.
 7lbs), Robertson 4
 Won by a neck; a head, and a neck. Time.
 —1 min. 2secs.

Mysore Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Messrs. Essajee and Bird's Naughty Girl
 (7st). H. Black 1
 Mr Chenai's Legal Fender (7st 8lbs), Ro-
 bertson 2
 Mr Mahomed's Postern (10st.) Burgess .. 3
 The Maharaja of Mysore's Osbourne (7st.
 carried 7st. 7lbs.), Harding 4
 Won by three-quarter length; half a length;
 half a length. Time.—1 min. 45 secs.

Bobbili Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr Khairaz's Kurdistan (7st. 8lbs), S.
 Black 1
 Maharaja of Kolhapur's Rami (8st. 9lbs),
 Harrison 2
 Mr Venkatanarayana Rao's Mameluke
 (8st 5lbs Babajan 3
 Mr. Ram a Hoogas 8st.) 4

Won by a head; three-quarter length
 two and a half lengths. Time.—1 min
 52 2-5 secs.

Deomar Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. Khairaz's Kurdistan (8st. 2lbs) S
 Black
 Mr Venkatanarayana Rao's Mameluke
 (8st. 7lbs.), Babajar
 Mr. Kadir's Balkees (7st. 7lbs.), Robertson
 Mr Essajee's Sagob (7st. 11lbs.), Harding
 Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ length. 1 length. $\frac{1}{2}$ length Time—
 1 min. 52 2-5 secs.

Jetprole Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Sir Darcy Lindsay's Righteous (71st. 2lbs)
 Harding
 Nawahzada Abdul Kareem Khan's Elkie
 (7st. 12lbs), Brown
 Mr. McEligot and Major Guild's Cylvern
 (9st. 12lbs.), Harrison
 Lt.-Col. White's Rock (7st. 11lbs),
 McPherson
 Won by a neck; $1\frac{1}{2}$ length; $\frac{1}{2}$ length. Time—
 2 mins. 39 secs.

Cochin Cup. Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Mr. Xavier's Laxmi Prasad II, (7st. 13lbs),
 Robertson
 H H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Durbar
 (8st. 11b.), McPherson
 Mr. Kadir's Balkees (7st, 12lbs), Hoyt
 Mr. Venkatanarayana Rao's Mameluke
 (9st.) Burgess
 Won by a neck, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, Time
 not taken.

Merchant's Cup. Distance 1 mile, 1 furlong—

H H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Poet's
 Dream (8st. 2lbs.), Bensley
 Mr. Khairaz's Toss up (8st. 2lbs.), S. Black
 Sir Wilson and Dowson's Battle Call (7st
 3lbs), Robertson
 Bay Hy's Burham Beeches (8st. 8lbs),
 Harding
 Won by 1 length, $\frac{1}{2}$ length and $\frac{1}{2}$ length
 Time—1 min. 54 2-5 secs.

Venkatagiri Cup. Distance 6 furlongs—

Mr. J. K. Irani's Doldol (8st 8lbs.), Burgess
 Maharaja of Kolhapur's Benares (8st 7lbs),
 Harrison
 Mr. Ardeshir's Red Flag (9st 3lbs),
 Raymond
 Mr. Abdulla Mana's Sannam (8st 10lbs),
 Barber

Won by a head $\frac{1}{2}$ short head.
 1 min. 24secs.

H Maharani Regent's Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr J. J. Murphy's Last Word (8st 13lbs.), Harding 1

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Hobbs (9st.), Clarke 2

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Indian Imp (8st 8lbs.), Duckenfield 3

Haji Sir Ismail Sait's Peg Anthony (7st 8lbs.) Baiber 4

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, short head. Time—1min. 16 secs.

Indian Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Indian Imp (8st.) Sibly 1

Mrs Macenochie and Mrs. Cruden's Birkenhead (8st 3lbs.), Burgess 2

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Hobbs (9st 1lb.), Clarke 3

Mr Murphy's Merrilegs (7st 12lbs) Walker .. 4

Won by 1 length, short head, head, Time—1min. 16secs.

Jesse Sir Ismail Sait Cup. Distance 1 mile —

Mr Coleman's Quick Silver (8st 13lbs.), S Black 1

Mr Kelso's Vari (8st 11lbs.), Harrison .. 2

Mr Syed Rashid's Josimos (7st 6lbs, car. 7st 11lbs.), Burgess 3

Won by neck, neck, neck. Time—1min. 16secs.

Stewards Cup. Distance 6 furlongs —

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Poet's Dream (8st 9lbs.), Buckfield 1

Haji Sir Ismail Sait's Flintham (7st 13lbs.) Sibly 2

Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Recompense (8st 3lbs.), S Black 3

Mr Hearson's Lady Marigold (7st 1lb.), Burgess 4

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, neck. Time—1min. 16 1 5secs.

Srinaganga Cup. Distance 6 furlongs —

Maharaja of Mysore's Sible (10st.), Hill .. 1

Maharaja of Kolhapur's Prayag (7st 9lbs), Clarke 2

Mr Pogose's Jayakumar (7st 1lb.), Brownlee 3

Major Kirwan's Lilac (8st 7lbs.), Burgess .. 4

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths. Time—1min. 18 3-5secs.

Lucknow.

Fewnes Cup. Distance 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—

Major T. Burridge's Work of Art (7st. 5lbs. carried 7st. 7lbs.), Marland 1

Capt. T. F. Arnold's Greta Green (9st. 1lb.), Roxburgh 2

Mr Born and Holmes Johnston's Royalist (8st 6lbs.) H 3

Mr. Kashicharan's Rare Sport (8st. 13lbs.), H. Walker 4

Won by 2 lengths; $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths; 1 length Time—2 mins. 20 1-5 secs

Civil Service Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. J. Mein Austin's T. A. B. (8st. 11lbs), Parker 1

Mr H. G. Gregson's Louvarissa (8st. 5lbs. carried 8st. 6lbs.), O'Brien 2

Mrs J Mein Austin's Thundering Legion (8st. 6 lbs.), Cooper 3

Capt. B. George and M. Cox's Head First (7st. 12 lbs.), Aldridge 4

Won by 1 length; $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths Time—1 min. 27 3-5 secs.

Harcourt Butler Cup. Distance 5 furlongs —

Mr. J. K. Bose's Black Mist (9st. 13lbs), Hutchins 1

Major Vanrenen's Prince Michael (9st. 12lbs) Riley 2

Lt.-Col. Conder and Capt. M. Cox's Golden Realm (9st.) Aldridge 3

Lt.-Col. Mathew's Yankee Love (7st, carried 7st. 4 lbs.), Fownes 4

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length; $\frac{1}{2}$ length; and head. Time—1 min 3 4-5 secs.

Pragnalai Bhargava Cup. Distance 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ mile.—

Mr. R. H. Muir's Mulberry (9st. 5lbs) R. Barnett 1

Mr B. N. Bhargava's Cachalong (9st. 3 lbs) Partoosing 2

Mr. J. D. Scott's Cowry (8st. 12lbs.) Balfour 3

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths and $\frac{1}{2}$ length. Time not taken.

Stewards' Cup. Distance 2 mile 1 furlong.—

Capt. T. J. Egan's Dayspring (8st. 4lbs) H. Walker 1

Mrs. C. Dam Kellock's Mandarin (9st. 12lbs) Balfour 2

Mr. Titwillow's Queen's Bounty (7st. 2lbs) Japheth 3

Mr H K Dey's Rosmeen (8st. 12lbs) Ringstead 4

Won by a short head; $\frac{1}{2}$ length; 1 length Time—2 mins. 2 1-3 secs

Army Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Capt. J. A. Lislewood's Joe D (11st. 12lbs) Capt. Atherton 1

Capt. R. George and M. Cox's Middleton (9st. 12lbs) Capt. Cox 2

Major S. O'Donnell's Fillet (11st.) Capt. Wasborough Jones 3

Mr. Rescoe's Whitsun (9st. 7lbs.) Capt. Newill 4

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length $\frac{1}{2}$ length 1 length Time—2 mins 20 5 6secs

Arab Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Raja Sripal Singh's Sicab (9st. 6lbs.)	Purtoosingh	1
Mr. F. O. Roberts and A. J. Holmes' Cock Robin (9st. 12lbs.)	Roxburgh	2
Capt. W. H. Kerr's Kohinoor (8st. 13lbs.)	Aldridge	3
Mrs. A. J. Burns' Tamaran (8st. 10lbs.)	W. G. Thompson	4

Won by 1 length; 3 lengths, 1½ lengths.
Time.—1 min. 34 3-5 secs.

Lahore.

Shalimar Cup. Distance: 7 furlongs.—

Majors D. W. Bruce and C. Newton	David's Lantern (8st. 11lb.), E. Fownes	1
Captain W. H. Kerr's Jaunt (7st. 13lbs.)	Roxburgh	2
Mr. L. B. Ward's Revue (9st. 9lbs.)	J. Flynn	3
Major C. M. Stewart's Earmark (9st. 12lbs.)	Aldford	4

Won by ½ length, ¾ length, 1 length. Time.—1 min. 30 2-5 secs.

The C. and M. C. Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Capt K. Hatch's Irrigate (8st. 9lbs.)	Roxburgh	1
Mr. J. Morroch Bernard's Ma Honey (8st. 10lbs.)	Tymon	2
Lt.-Col G. Conder's Dawn of Freedom (8st. 10lbs.)	Aldridge	3
Mr. Roscoe's Whitsun (8st. 12lbs.)	Bona	4

Won by ¾ length, ½ length, neck. Time.—1 min. 18 4-5 secs.

The Woodward Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Col. Curndt. H. A. Thomkinson's Invincible (8st. 11lbs.)	Ram Chandra	1
Capt. J. Garrett's Muloob (7st. 8lbs.)	E. Fownes	2
Mr. S. Darbar Singh's Ayala (7st. 2lbs.)	Bona	3
Ft.-Lt. Clarke and F. O. Gore's Cock Robin (8st. 9 lbs.)	L. Jones	4

Won by 1 length, 3 lengths, 1 length. Time.—1 min. 57 secs.

The Punjab Commission Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. C. M. Stewart's Winston (7st.) ..	1
Mr. K. Lindsay Smith's Clear Sky (7st. 7lbs.) ..	2
E. Fownes ..	2
Mr. Man Mohan's Capheaton (9st. 1lb.) ..	3
Aldridge ..	3

Won by 3 lengths, 4 lengths, 6 lengths.
Time—2 mins. 15 2-5 secs.

The Merchants' Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Major D. Vanrenen and Mr. G. Wedd' Dart's Balkan Princess (8st.)	Bond	1
Mr. Titwillow's Red Devil (9st. 3lbs.)	Roxburgh	2

Mrs. R. Carpenter's Pamphylia (10st. 6lbs.)	J. Flynn	3
Captain C. West's Coritapa (7st. 3lbs.)	Tymon	4

Won by 1 length, ½ length, head. Time not taken.

Service Chase. Distance 2 miles.—

Capt. M. Cox and E. P. Creagh's Langargate (9st. 12lbs.)	Capt. Wandsborough Jones	1
Capt. W. M. Newills, Sammy (9st.)	Owner	2
Mr. J. P. Adye's Jahore (10st. 4lbs.)	Mr Tudor	3

Won by 8 lengths, 4 lengths, 12 lengths.
Time.—4 mins. 20 4-5 secs.

N. W. Railway Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. B. N. Bhargava's Nobbler (7st.)	Purtoo Singh	1
Capt J. A. Alderwood's Joe D (9st. 10lbs.)	Aldridge	2
Capt. C. B. Farwar's Poor Box (9st. 7lbs.)	Barrett	3
Capt. J. M. Bernard's Web of Fate (8st. 6lbs.)	Owner	4

Won by 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths, 2 lengths.
Time.—1 min. 45 secs.

Mamdot Cup. Distance round the course.—

Capt. W. H. Kerr's Kohinoor (9st.)	Aldridge	1
Raja Sripal Singh's Sicab (9st. 12 lbs.)	Purtoo Singh	2
Mr. A. J. Burn's Hudson (8st. 1lb.)	W. G. Thompson	3

Won by 4 lengths, 4 lengths. Time.—3 mins. 33 1-5 secs.

Jammu Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mrs. Sydney Smith's Philomel	Barrett	1
H. H. Khan of Kelat's Peerless (8st. 10lbs.)	Capt. Bernard	2
Capt. J. J. Chunes Mahabooob (7st. 4lbs.)	Bona	3

Won by 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths. Time.—1 min. 51 2-5 secs.

The Punjab Cup.—

Major R. D. Vanrenen's Prince Michael (9st. 8lbs.)	Barrett	1
H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala's Ingonaire (9st. 4lbs.)	E. Fownes	2
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Star Shell (9st. 11lbs.)	H. Walker	3

Won by 12 lengths, 20 lengths. Time.—3 mins. 21 secs.

Civil Service Cup. Distance 1½ miles, over 8 furlongs of hurdles.

Lt.-Col. W. B. White's Chinese White (11st. 13lbs.)	Mr. Wansborough Jones	1
Mr. H. N. Weber's Jaunt (9st. 5lbs.)	Capt. W. M. Howell	2
Mr. Roscoe's Achilles Pandy (9st.)	Mr. Weber	3

Won by 2 lengths; 5 lengths; 8 lengths.
Time.—4mins.

Patala Cup. Distance 5 furlongs:—

H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Millord
(8st 5lbs.), H. Walker 1
Mr. J. G. Moorugh Bernard's Hushabye
(9st 12lbs.), Capt. Bernard 2

K. H. the Maharaja Adhiraj of Patala's
Garib (8st 4lbs) (—) 3

Won by 1½ lengths, ¼ length. Time.—1min.
5 1-5secs.

Darjeeling.

'statesman' Cup (Div. I). Distance 3½
laps.—

Mrs. Dyer's Little Wonder (7st. 3lbs.) .. 1
Mr. Omrao Mian's Namgyal Wangdi
(8st 12lbs.) 2

Mr. Senam's Kingstown (7st. 2lbs.) .. 3
Time.—2mins. 17 secs.

'statesman' Cup (Div. II). Distance 3½
laps.—

Mr. Omrao Mian's Tiger (8st) 1
Mr. Dow, Norbu's Yandup (8st. 9lbs.) .. 2
H. E. the Governor's Staff's Grey Friar
(7st. 8lbs.) 3

Time.—1min. 5 secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance 4 laps.—

Mr. E. G. Kingsley's Ghipin (8st, 8lbs.) .. 1
Dr. J. C. Dyer's Gynasta (8st. 1lb.) .. 2
Mr. S. W. Ladenla's Longbu II (8st. 7lbs.) .. 3

Time.—2mins. 38secs.

Stewards' Cup. Distance 3½ laps.—

Mr. S. W. Ladenla's Konjbu II (8st. 9lbs.) .. 1
Mr. B. J. Kingsley's Puck (8st. 11lbs) .. 2
Dr. J. M. O. Dyer's Gyantse (8st. 10lbs.) .. 3

Time.—2mins. 19secs.

Labong Stakes. Distance 3½ laps.—

Mr. Pendorji's (10st. 1lb.) 1

Mr. Phutendu's Gay Oaugtok (7st. 6lbs.) .. 2
Mr. Topgay Sirdar's Lungdo (8st.) 3
Time.—2mins. 26 secs.

Ceylon.

Club Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. E. L. F. De Soysa's Johnclanchy (9st,
5lbs.) Spackman 1
Mr. Annaudale's Cloughane (9st. 7lbs.),
White 2

Mr. Annaudale's Nightjar (9st. 7lbs.),
Harrison 3

Won by a neck; 5 lengths Time.— 31
1-5 secs.

Closenberg Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. W. Mrajpake's Inqueston (8st 1lb.),
Marrs 1
Mr. A. E. De Silva's Burelays (8st 5lbs),
Corkhill 2

Mr. E. L. F. De Soysa's Consort (8st.), Hill 3

Won by a head, short head. Time.—2mins.
12 1-5 secs.

Ceylon Turf Club. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. A. E. De Silva's Louvello (9st.), Corkhill 1
Mr. D. C. Senanayake's Wont-be-long (8st
11lbs.), J. Flynn 2

Mr. W. B. Bartlett's Venzelt (8st 11lbs.),
A. Thomson 3

Won by a neck, neck. Time.—1min.
47 4-5secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance 1½ miles,

Mr. A. E. De Silva's Pippin (8st. 13lbs.),
Corkhill 1
Mr. Douglas's Crazy Bits (8st 1lb.), J. Flynn 2

Mr. Fred Absyesandere's Mrs. Murphy (6st
9lbs.), Blackburn 3

Won by 1½ lengths, 2 lengths. Time.—2mins.
6-4-5 secs. record for course

ATHLETICS.

Bengal Olympics—

Half Mile:—1. B. N. Ghosh. 2. V. D. Khadli-
kuar, 3. A. R. Mookerjee. Time—2 mins.
11 2-5 secs

100 Yards:—1. R. Burns. 2. J. Anthony, 3.
J. Russell Time—10 2-5 secs.

Putting 15 lbs. shot:—1. L. C. Tapsell, 2.
A. Lenthurn, 3. H. E. R. Tinsley. 34 ft. 7 in

One mile:—1. B. N. Ghosh, 2. A. R. Mookerjee,
3. Himadri Dutt. Time—5 mins. 15 4-5 secs.

220 Yards 1. R. J. S. Hall 3. A.
N. Mookerjee. Time—22 3-0 secs.

Long Jump:—1. C. E. Morganstern, 2. B. K.
Ray, 3. P. K. Chatterjee. 20 ft. 8½ ins.

440 Yards:—1. J. S. Hall, 2. B. N. Ghosh.
Time—54 mins. 1-10 secs.

120 Yards Hurdles:—1. W. Needham, 2.
H. K. Dutt. Time—not taken owing to
Tapsell having come first but disqualified
for knocking down 3 hurdles.

Running Rope-skip and jump:—1. F. W.
Needham, 2. C. E. Morganstern 38 ft.
2½ in.

High jump:—1. F. W. Needham.
2. Abu Yusuf 5 ft. 0½ in

Relay Race.—St. Xavier's, then the Indian Athletic Camp.

Calcutta: North Staffs annual sports—

Team Events—

100 Yards.—Sgt. Steele (H. Q.) 10 secs.

220 Yards.—L. Cpl. Owen (C. Coy.), Time—23 3-5 secs.

440 Yards.—Pte. Davenport (D. Coy) Time—56 3-5 secs.

Half mile.—Drummer Irwine (B. Coy.), Time—2 mins, 17 secs.

120 Yards Hurdles.—Drummer Jelfs (H. Q.)

One mile.—Cpl. Shaw (C. Coy.).

High Jump.—L. Cpl. Moffatt (H. Q.).

Putting the Shot.—Pte. Hancock (B. Coy).

Long Jump.—Bdsm. Brook (B. Q.).

Inter Company Relay Race.—C. Coy. (H. Q.)

Tug-of-War catch weights.—D. Coy.

Individual Events—

Throwing Cricket Ball.—Pte. Hancock & 100 yds.

High Jump.—L. Cpl. Moffatt, 5 ft. 12 ins.

Long Jump.—Pte. Deayle, 19 ft ½ in.

Putting the Shot.—Pte. Hancock, 34 ft, 3 ins.

One mile.—Pte. Lovett.

220 Yards (Indians).—Baker Khan

220 Yards (Sergeants).—Sgt. Steele, 26 secs.

220 Yards (Boys).—Boy Harrison.

220 Yards.—Pte. Chorlton.

Veterans' Race.—C. S. M. Keat.

100 Yards.—Pte. Chorlton.

Half mile.—Pte. Chorlton.

Hurdles.—Drummer Jelfs.

One mile.—Pte. Shaw.

Quarter mile.—Pte. Chorlton.

Platoon Relay Race.—No. 12 Platoon.

Cycles Race.—Pte. Griffiths.

Open Relay Race.—Xaverians.

Band Race.—Bdsm. Wilkinson (K. S. L. I.).

Officers' Race.—Major Stoney.

Calcutta: All India Olympics—

Five Miles.—1. D. B. Chavan (Bombay), Shalish Dawood (Madras), 3 Gurbacha (Punjab). Time—27 mins, 49 1-5 secs, 2.

Bombay Olympics—

Ten Miles Modified Marathon—

1 D. B. Chavan (Karachi) Time—60 mins, 5 secs.

2. Gunner Stevens (R. A. Kirkee) Time—81 mins, 5 secs.

3 Pte. South Staffs min. 30 secs.

4 D. H. Master (Bombay) Time—62 mins 47 secs.

5. P. Pte. Ridgeway (South Staffs) Time—63 mins, 45 secs.

6 S. L. Telgoo (Kirkee) Time—63 mins 50 secs.

100 Yards.—1. D. A. Speeddon, 2. Mr. Pinto, 3. P. A. D'Avoine. Time—10 seconds.

120 Yards Hurdle.—1. P. A. D'Avoine, 2. R. A. Speeddon, 3. G. D. Punewalla. Time—17 seconds.

880 Yards.—1. L. Goughly, 2. R. K. Deshpande, 3. Frederick Jusadian. Time—2 mins, 15 seconds.

220 Yards.—1. M. Pinto, 2. M. Powell, 3. W. Oliver. Time—24 seconds.

Half Mile Cycle Race.—1. M. Gerard, 2. M. J. Master, 3. A. Shellim. Time—1 min 24 2-5 seconds.

Five Miles.—1. M. C. Srinivas, 2. D. B. Chavan, 3. Shival Fardehi, 4. C. Ridgeway. Time—29 minutes 34 seconds.

High Jump.—1. P. B. Katrecha, 2. H. H. Engineer, 3. Gunner Gunpat Singh 5 ft 3 ins.

Putting the Shot.—1. J. A. Scott, 2. G. S. Richards, 3. P. A. D'Avoine, 37 ft. 8 ins.

Long Jump.—1. P. B. Katrecha, 2. P. A. D'Avoine, Length 19 ft. 10 ins.

440 Yards.—1. P. A. D'Avoine, 2. M. Pinto, 3. G. D. Punewalla. Time—56 1-5 secs.

Two Miles Cycle Race 1. M. J. Master, 2. A. Shellim, 3. G. A. Damie. Time—6 mins 10 1-5 secs.

One Mile.—1. D. B. Chavan, 2. B. K. Deshpande, 3. L. Cpl. G. King. Time—5 mins, 10 2-5 secs.

One Mile Relay Race.—1. V. M. C. A. Central Branch, Bombay, 2. B. B. and C. I. District Traffic Superintendent's Team, Bombay.

Cup Winners—

Championship Cup.—P. A. D'Avoine, 14 points.

Dhanjibhoj Bomanji Challenge Cup, (10 miles Marathon)—D. B. Chavan.

McKinnon McKenzie Challenge Cup, (100 Yards)—R. A. Speeddon.

Donald Munro Challenge Cup (Boys 16 and under)—C. Aberququerque.

B. B. and C. I. Challenge Cup (120 yards hurdles)—P. A. D'Avoine.

Metrath Challenge Cup (Half mile cycle race)—M. Gerard.

Mazagon Challenge Cup (440 yards).—P. A. D'Avoine.

Rosenthal Challenge Cup (One mile)—D. B. Chavan.

Inter Collegiate Sports.—

50 Yards D. G. Srinivas & Co. Xavier's J. A. D. St. Xavier's 3 Mano Wilcox Time, sec.

S P D G Sul an S Ka
2 F. J. Fernandez (St Xavier's); 3. S.
K. Mote (Sydenham). 29 ft. 9 in.

Half Mile.—1. L. D'Souza (St. Xavier's);
2. J. Solomon (Elphinstone); 3. Hira
Singh (Elphinstone). Time—2 mins. 23
secs.

Two Miles Cycle:—1. A. Shellim (Wilson);
2. M. J. Master (St. Xavier's); 3. D. R.
Billmorla (St. Xavier's). Time.—6 mins.
9 3-5 secs.

Throwing the Cricket Ball:—1. M. Shaw
(Sydenham); 2. N. C. Bhesadia (St.
Xavier's); 3. W. Green (St. Xavier's).
Distance 101 yards 1 ft. 3 ins.

440 Yards.—1. D. G. Sullivan (St.
Xavier's); 2. J. A. D'Costa (St. Xavier's);
3. L. J. D'Souza (St. Xavier's). Time.—
59 secs.

Long Jump.—1. J. T. Ferreira (St. Xavier's);
2. L. M. D'Avoine (Grant Medical); 3. N.
C. Bhesadia (St. Xavier's). 17 ft. 6 ins.

120 Yards Hurdles:—1. S. N. Shirodkar
(St. Xavier's); 2. J. T. Ferreira (St.
Xavier's); 3. J. A. D'Costa (St. Xavier's).
Time.—18 secs.

High Jump.—1. S. N. Shirodkar (St.
Xavier's); 2. F. X. Fernandez (St.
Xavier's); 3. R. K. Limbuvala (Elphinstone).
5 ft. 2 ins.

220 Yards.—1. J. A. D'Costa (St.
Xavier's); 2. D. G. Sullivan (St.
Xavier's); 3. L. J. D'Souza (St.
Xavier's). Time.—25 1-5 secs.

One Mile.—1. S. M. Joshi (Grant Medical);
2. Hira Singh (Elphinstone); 3. D. G.
Sullivan (St. Xavier's). Time.—3 mins. 45
secs.

Ladies' Relay:—1. Wilson College; 2. St.
Xavier's.

Relay Races.—1. St. Xavier's; 2. Wilson.
Time.—4 mins. 25 secs.

Individual Championship.—D. G. Sullivan;
(St. Xavier's).

Champion College.—St. Xavier's.

Madras Colleges Championships.—

The following are the results in the various
events:—

(1) 100 Yards.—1. Saldanha; 2. Solomon;
3. Fahey. Time.—10½ seconds.

(2) Putting the Shot.—1. Rocha Fernandez;
2. Saldanha; 3. Namavathy.
Distance: 25 feet, 1 inch.

(3) 880 Yards.—1. D'Mello; 2. Parakh;
3. D'Souza. Time.—2 mins. 22 3-5 secs

(4) Two miles Cycle Race.—1. Master; 2.
Shellim; 3. Shroff. Time.—6½ mins.
0 2-5 secs.

(5) 440 Yards.—1. Solomon; 2. Sal-
danha; 3. Fahey. Time.—56 1-5 secs.

(6) Long Jump Ball
3 17 ft 3½ inches.

10 Hurdles 1 DC sta 2 Ln
buvala; 3. Solomon. Time—19
2-5 secs.

(8) 75 Yards, Ladies.—1. Miss Dinshaw
2. Miss Dubash; 3. Miss Benjamin
Time.—10 3-5 secs.

(9) High Jump.—1. Rocha Fernandez
2. Limbuvala. Height. 5ft. 5 inches

(10) 220 Yards.—1. Saldanha; 2. Solo-
mon; 3. Fahey. Time.—23 1-5 secs

(11) One Mile.—1. Basur; 2. D'Mello
3. Abhyankar. Time.—5 mins. 23secs

(12) Relay Race (Ladies 4×76 yards)—
1. Wilson College; 2. St. Xavier's
College; 3. Elphinstone College.

(13) Relay Race (Men's One Mile)—1
Royal Institute of Science; 2. St
Xavier's College; 3. Willson College

Sir Dorab Tata Champion College Cup—
St. Xavier's College.

Bombay Gymkhana Meeting.—

100 Yards. Challenge Cup. 1. R. G. Hop-
kins; 2. L. H. Hodgson; 3. C. H.
Hardcastle. Time.—10 3-5 secs.

120 Yards Hurdles. 1. R. G. Hopkins
2. L. H. Hodgson; 3. S. W. K. Craw-
ford. Time.—19 secs.

100 Yards Open: 1. A. D'Avoine 2
M. Pinto; 3. M. Powell. Time.—10 4-5
secs.

Tug-of-War: Soccer beat Rugger by 2
pulls to 1.

One Mile Relay Race. Open: 1. South
Staffords "A"; 2. South Staffords
"B"; 3. B. B. & C. I. Railway. Time—
3 mins. 56 secs.

440 Yards. Open: 1. A. D'Avoine 2
W. Willis; 3. L. Cpl. Bowman. Time.—23
2-5 secs.

220 Yards Handicap: 1. R. G. Hopkins
2. C. H. Hardcastle; 3. C. W. H. P
Waud.

One Mile. Open: 1. Cpl. Golightly 2
Cpl. Hart; 3. Pte. Brough and Nambiar,
dead heat. Time 4 mins. 49 4-5 secs

Long Jump: 1. L. H. Hodgson, 20 ft. 1 in
2. R. G. Hopkins, 18 ft. 6 ins.; 3. S
W. K. Crawford, 17 ft. 9 ins.

Putting the Shot: 1. P. T. Harrison
30 ft. 2 ins.; 2. C. W. P. Waud, 30 ft. 1 in
in. 3. S. W. K. Crawford, 29 ft. 11½ ins

High Jump: L. H. Hodgson, 5 ft. 1 in.

Madras: Cross Country Race—

Madras Regiment beat 3-19th Hyderabad
Regiment.

Lahore: Punjab Olympics—

100 Yards (First heat)—1. G. W. Lal, 2. Bdr
Beadle, 3. L. N. Nadir Ali. Time—10 1-5
secs.; (second heat):—1. Abdul Hamid,
2. F. W. Whitter. Time—10 3-5 secs

Discus Throw Wundar Singh. Distance
67 ft. ½ inch.

Running High Jump:—1. L. D. Robin.
2. Mohd. Yusuf and L. N. Nadir Ali.
Height: 5 ft. 3 inches.

220 Yards: Final.—1. G. W. Lal, 2. Abdul
Hamid, 3. F. W. Whitter. Time—23 secs.

Javelin Throw:—L. N. Nadir Ali. Distance
107 ft. 10½ inches.

Walking.

Calcutta.—

50 miles Walking Race. (Burdwan to
Chandranagore) the first three were—

S. N. Mukerjee (Saraswat Samity) 11 hours
2 minutes, Barana Kumar Bose (Cal-
cutta City College) 11 hours 22 minutes,
M. E. Chalmers (Unattached Lucknow)
12 hours, 11 minutes.

Bombay.—

Zoroastrian Physical Culture League—10 Miles
Walking Race. 1. D. R. Master, 1 hr 28
mins. 54 secs.; 2. E. D. Chinoy, 1 hr. 33
mins. 29 1-5 secs.; 3. H. S. Marker, 1
hr. 41 mins. 9 secs.; 4. M. R. Wadia,
1 hr. 41 mins. 32 secs.; 5. N. J. Shroff,
1 hr. 51 mins. 46 secs.

Ten Miles Walking Race—

1. B. C. Chakravarty. Time—1 hour 38
mins. 2. 15 secs.

2. M. R. Aiyer. Time—1 hour 40 mins.
1 sec.

3. Corporal W. Rawlings. Time—1 hour
31 mins. secs.

4. P. G. Mahtre. Time—1 hour 41 mins
45 secs.

5. R. G. Naik. Time—1 hour 42 mins. 21
secs.

6. K. D. Chinoy. Time—1 hour 42 mins
43 secs.

5 Miles Walking Race:

The following were the first six to finish—

1. D. R. Master, Time 47 mins. 3 secs.;
2. M. R. Aiyer, Time 47 mins 33 secs.; 3
K. D. Chinoy, Time 47 mins. 39 secs
4. W. Rawlings, Time 47 mins. 41 secs
5. N. Daroowalla; 6. M. R. Wadia.

Running.

Bombay.—

10 miles.—Running Race. The first six men
home were:—

1. M. C. Srinivas, 59 minutes, 38 seconds
2. W. Elliot, 63 minutes, 51 2-5 seconds
3. D. R. Master, 63 minutes, 47 seconds
4. D. K. Nambiar, 66 minutes, 5,
seconds, 5. S. M. Engineer, 67 minutes
27 seconds, 6. D. H. Karathe, 67 minutes
57 seconds.

RACQUETS.

Rawalpindi: Northern India Tournament.—

Open Doubles—Sismey and Newton beat
Birnie and Blake 15-5, 15-0, 15-5, 15-1.

Handicap Singles—Johnstone (scratch) beat
Rendell (plus 2), 15-11, 7-15 10-15, 15-5,
15-11.

Handicap Doubles.—Littledale and Johnstone
(+3) beat Frizelle and Winsloe (+2), 15-11,
15-7, 15-5, 15-5.

Bombay Gymkhana Tournament.—

Representative Pairs:—Tonbridge (H. F. Milne
and J. G. Milne) beat R. E. (G. E. H.
Hawke, and Col. A. R. Winsloe) 9-15, 15-7,
15-9, 5-15 15-2, 15-1.

Open Singles:—R. J. O. Meyer beat J. G.
Milne, 15-4, 15-4, 18-15.

Open Doubles.—R. J. O. Meyer and R. Rich-
ardson Gardener beat H. F. and J. G.
Milne, 15-9, 17-14, 10-15, 15-6, 15-18, 5-8.

Jubbulpore—

6.

Col. Winsloe beat J. L. Spencer by 3 games
to nil.

Open Doubles: Final.—J. L. Spencer and Cap-
tain A. J. Harris beat J. C. Hudson and Y.
D. L. Talbot by 4 games to 2 (15-6, 15-2
15-7, 15-18, 15-17, 15-6).

Representative Pairs: Final.—R. E. (Captain
A. J. Harris and Colonel A. R. Winsloe)
beat Clifton (J. C. Hudson and J. L. Spen-
cer) by 4 games to nil, (15-6, 15-16, 15-8
15-4).

POLO.

Extra Polo Tournament, Calcutta.—

Royal Scots Greys 6 goals
H. E. Governor's Staff 4 goals

Carmichael Polo Tournament, Calcutta.—

R. E. The Governor's Team 5 goals
Calcutta Reds 3 goals

Cawnpore Challenge Cup—

A. S. O. Brijendra (Bharatpur). Lan-
cers 5 goals
4th B 1 goal

New Delhi Radha Mohan Handicap Tourna-
ment—

Royal Scots Greys 6 goals
Barris 4½ goals

Lahore: Indian Cavalry Tourney—

21st Lt. J. Horse 9 goals
11th P. A. V. O. Cavalry 3 goals

Lucknow: Lucknow Spring Tournament—

Royal Scots Greys 3½ goals
4 B Nil

Lucknow Autumn Tournament.—

Royal Dragoons Cup.—

Sorbo	6 goals
Fantasi	<i>Nil</i>

Meerut.—

6th Lancers, "A" 2½ goals

6th Lancers, "B" 2 goals

Meerut Autumn Tournament.—

Royal Decan Horse 11 goals

20th Lancers 5 goals

Regimental Tournament.—

Central India Horse 6 goals

Farbin's Horse 0 goal

Subaltern's Tournament.—Meerut

4-7th Dragoons 8 goals

4th Hussars 1 goal

Ootacamund : Mysore Cup.—

Bobbih Team 7 goals

Mysore Gymkhana 3½ goals

Simla : Viceroy's Staff Cup.—

2nd Patiala Lancers 5 goals

The Casters 4 goals

Simla : Beresford Cup.—

Viceroy's Staff 6 goals

2nd Patiala Lancers 3 goals

Simla American Handicap Tournament.—

"B" Team, 3 wins and 1½ goals.

"C" Team, 2 wins and 1½ goals.

"D" Team, 2 wins and 12 goals.

"E" Team, 2 wins and 10 goals.

"A" Team, 1 win and 9 goals.

Mysore : Birthday Tournament.—

Bobbih 3 goals

Madras Sappers and Miners 2 goals

Naini Tal : Payagpur Tournament.—

U. P. District 1 goal

Dinkhet Dues *Nil*

Subsidiary Tournament.

M A T. C. 7 goals

Magpies 2 goals.

Quetta American Tournament.—

14th Field Brigade, R. A. 3 goals.

K. E. O. Cavalry Z Team *Nil*.

Rawalpindi.—

Rawalpindi Tradesmen's Cup.—

5-6th Dragoons 6½ goals.

12th Cavalry "A" Team 2 goals.

Subsidiary Tournament.—

Hurricanes 0 goals

Rawalpindi Headquarters 2½ goals.

Kathiawar Tournament.—

Bhavnagar 5 goals

Junagadh 3 goals

Allahabad : Wallace Challenge Cup.—

Indore Army Team 8 goals.

Allahabad Gymkhana 3 goals.

Jubbulpore.—

Lancers "A" 4 goals.

Equitation School 1 goal.

Secunderabad : Chitney Cup.—

9th Q. R. Lancers "B" 4 goals

2nd Hyderabad Imperial Lancers "A" 3 goals

FOOTBALL.

Calcutta : Annual Soccer International.—

England *Nil*.Scotland *Nil*.

I. F. A. Shield, Calcutta.—

Sherwood Foresters 3 goals

Calcutta *Nil*.

Charity International, Calcutta.—

Europeans 2 goals

Indians *Nil*.

Calcutta.—

Calcutta League.

North Staffords.

Bombay : Charity Matches.—

South Staffords 3 goals.

Mohan Bagan *Nil*.

Cheshires 1 goal.

Bagan 1 goal.

Harwood League, Bombay.—

First Division : 1. Cheshires 2. South Staffords.

Second Division : 1. Attached Section 2. City Police.

Bombay : Rovers Cup.—

Cheshires 4 goals.

Lancashire Fusiliers 1 goal.

Bombay : Gossage Cup.—

Bombay Gymkhana 2 goals.

Derby Club 1 goal.

Poona Group Young Soldiers' Tournament.

Poona—Royal West Kents 8 goals

Middlesex *Nil*.

Southern Command Championship, Poona.—

South Staffords (Bombay) 2 goals

Middlesex (Ahm) *Nil*.

Durand Cup, Simla.—			
York and Lancs	2 goals		
E. I. Railway	<i>Nil</i> .		
Deolali : Inter-Company Tournament.—			
"C" Company	1 goal		
H. Q. Wing	<i>Nil</i> .		
Cawnpore : Northern India Challenge Cup.—			
Essex Regt.	3 goals		
Worcestershire Regt.	2 goals		
Ajmere : Datta Shield Tournament.—			
Loco Works	3 goals		
Carriage Works	2 goals		
Lahore European Trades Cup, Tournament, Lahore.—			
K. O. Y. Light Infantry	1 goal		
Black Watch	1 goal		

Season's Army Tournaments, Bangalore.—			
Highland Light Infantry 'C' Coy. ..	4 goals		
Loyal Tank Corps	2 goals		
Alexander Shield, Jamshedpur.—			
Coke Ovens	2 goals		
J. Y. M. A.	<i>Nil</i> .		
Tutwiler Cup, Jamshedpur.—			
Electrical Sporting	2 goals		
Sporting Union, Calcutta	<i>Nil</i> .		
Lucknow Challenge Shield, Lucknow.—			
4th Queen's Own Hussars	2 goals		
Bhowanipur 'Club, Calcutta	1 goal		
Poona District Young Soldiers' Tournament, Secunderabad.—			
Gordon Highlanders	3 goals		
Royal West Kents	1 goal		

CRICKET.

M. C. C. Team Matches in India.

Calcutta.—

All India XI 146 and 269, M. C. C. 233 and 185 for 6.

M. C. C. 223 for 2. (declared), Anglo-Indians and Indians 108

Rangoon.—

All Burma 144 and 137, M. C. C. 276 and 7 for 9 wks.

Bombay.—

Byculla Club 167, Bombay Gymkhana 245.

All India Cricket Tournament, Gwalior :—

Aligarh XI 202 and 233, Nagpur XI 190 and 38.

Madras.—

Indians 238, M. C. C. 344.

Europeans 201 for 9 wks., M. C. C. 155 for 8 wks.

M. C. C. 361 and 233 for 7 wks., Combined Madras 256 and 127.

Europeans 419 and 187, Indians 456 and 115 for 5 wks.

Colombo.—

Ceylon Europeans 154 and 194 for 4 wks., M. C. C. 419.

Ceylonese 165 and 190 for 3 wks., M. C. C. 423 for 8 wks.

Ceylon.—

M. C. C. 431 for 3 wks., All Ceylon 105 and 235

Ceylon : (Dikoya).—

M. C. C. 223 and 74 for 1 wkt., Upcountry 166

Aligarh.—

Aligarh XI 64 and 37 M. C. C. 157

New Delhi.—

M. C. C. 223 for 4 wks. (declared), Delhi and district 92 for 9 wks.

M. C. C. 369 for 9 wks. (declared), Northern India 185 and 260 for 1 wkt.

Patiala.—

Patiala 303 for 4 wks., M. C. C. 252 for 9 wks.

Jubbulpore : C P Quadrangular Tournament.—

Europeans 389 and 211 for 5 wks. (declared) Hindus 180 and 244 for 9 wks.

Calcutta.—

The Rest 210 for 5 wks., Lorb Schools, 158.

Calcutta C. C. 143, H. E. the Governor's XI, 138.

Madras C. C. 182 for 9 wks. Bhowanipore 46 Mohan Bagan, 169 for 12 wks. Madras C. C. 177 for 6 wks.

Madras C. C. 277 for 3 wks. (declared) Bel lyungoo 110.

Madras C. C. 190 for 8 wks. (declared) 133 for 4 wks.

Madras C. C. 141. Dalhousie C. C. 49.

Madras C. C. 239 for 8 wks. (declared) Calcutta C. C. 135 for 5 wks.

Aryans 150 for 6 wks. (declared) Madras C. C. 42 for 8 wks.

Delhi All India Tournament.—

Hawida C. C. Bhopal : 401 and 64 for 0 wks. Prince Pratap Singh Gymkhana, 183 and 330.

Bombay Quadrangular Tournament.—

Mahomedans 59 and 437, Europeans 217 and 280 for 6 wks.

Bombay Gymkhana 248, Persian Club 232.

Bombay: Harris Shield.—

Wilson High School, 104; Aryan Educational Society High School, 31 and 35.

Sind Pertangular Tournament.—

Europeans 208 and 352 for 9 wks. Hindus 214 and 269 for 9 wks.

Karachi—

Karachi Gymkhana, 274 for 7 wks., Royal Air Force, 122.

Secunderabad—

Nawab Bahram-ud-Dowlah's Challenge Cup.

Rashid Ghani XI, 134 and 192, Hyderabad C. C. 218 and 110 for 6 wks.

Deccan Quadrangular.—

Mahomedans 330, Parsis 98 and 174.

Lahore—

Punjab and N. W. F. Provinces: 253 and 236 for 8 wks. (declared.), Five Forsters, 321 and 165 for 3 wks.

Ajmere: Alwar Cup.—

All Rajpur XI, 329, Mahaana' XI, 115 100.

Poona—

H. E. The Governor's XI 152; Byculla Club XI, 194 for 4 wks

Cheshire Regiment Inter-Company Tourney.

H. Q. Wing, 94 and 68 for 6 wks, B Company 70 and 28.

Secunderabad Gymkhana, 440 for 8 wks Poona Gymkhana, 200 and 171.

Poona Gymkhana, 104; Byculla Club 78.

Ahmedabad—

Hindu Gymkhana (Bombay), 66 and 129 Ahmedabad, 67 and 61.

Quetta—

Baluchistan, 149; Karachi, 249 for 5 wks.

GOLF.

Calcutta.

Hurdle Bogey Competition —

Bett beat C. Williamson by 1 up against bogey.

Amateur Golf Championship of India—

W. C. Houston beat G. Downie by 2 and 1.

Hardinge Cup—1 P. Walker, 2 K. R. Miller,

Penang Medal—

J. B. Harvey . . . 73

E. C. Bruce . . . 77

H. D. McGregor. . . 79

LADIES' MONTHLY COMPETITION.

Mrs. T. F. Johnson . . . 71

Mrs. Hutchinson . . . 75

Mrs. May . . . 75

Mrs. Lendrum . . . 77

CHALLENGE SILVER BOWL HANDICAP:—

E. E. Howard . . . 70

A. J. Hosie . . . 77

R. B. Laird . . . 78

LADIES' SWEEP STAKE COMPETITION.

Mrs. Reid Kay . . . 73

Mrs. J. R. Miller . . . 73

DIV. II.

Mrs. Stanley . . . 70 (Winner)

Mrs. Gibson . . . 74

Asia Cup.—

T. R. Timperley 91 (—18) 73

G. W. Grant 90 (—15) 75.

A. Paton 90 15

Amateur Golf Championship:—

J. Anderson beat C. V. Hingston by 1 up.

Stevenson Challenge Bowl.—

Mrs. J. I. Ruthven (handicap 18) 140.

Mrs. J. W. Coe Donald (16) 142.

Tallygungue Mixed Foursomes —

Major and Mrs. W. R. P. Henry beat Mr. and Mrs. Kay by 3 and 2.

Lord Reading Medal—

W. C. Houston beat G. D. Forrester by 2 up.

Challenge Silver Bowl—

C. de M. Kellock and C. I. Roddick beat H. B. Hinkle and S. A. Roberts by 1 up.

Jodhpur Club Indian Daily News Cup, Calcutta: C. R. A. Goatly.

Gaul Bowl—

E. A. Hartley beat M. Webb by 2 and 1.

Merchants Cup—

Jardine, Skinner and Co. beat Gillanders, Arbuthnot and Co. by 2 strokes.

Bombay.

Bankers and Merchants' Cup.—

1. Messrs. Gill & Coy. Ltd. 222.

2. The Imperial Bank of India "A" Team 224.

3. Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Coy.'s "A" 234.

4. M. B. B. & Coy. 235

Mahableshwar.**GOVERNMENT HOUSE vs. SECRETARIAT.**

Browne beat Staveley-Hill 4 and 2.

Monteath beat Lyon 2 and 1.

Wilks tied with Major Vaux, all square.

Martin lost to H. E. the Governor 2 and 1.

ADIES vs. MEN

Mrs. Hatch beat Wiles 4 and 3.

Mrs. Thomas beat Crump 2 up and the bye

Miss Wiles tied with H. E. the Governor, all square.

Mrs. Gould tied with Staveley-Hill, all square

Mrs. Fitzherbert lost to Browne 3 and 1 and the bye.

Mrs. Dove lost to Hatch, 2 and 1.

Mrs. Attkin lost to Monteath 7 and 5.

His Excellency the Governor beat Staveley Hill, 7 and 6.

The Hon. Mr. Hosson beat Lt.-Col. Thomas on the nineteenth green.

Major Vaux beat Martin on the eighteenth by a short putt.

Dennis Browne beat Capt. Wilkinson on the eighteenth, one up.

Monteath beat Simmons 5 and 4.

The Hon. Justice Crump beat Capt. Stevanur 2 up and 2.

The handicaps were Brown (-6), Capt. Wilkinson (-14), Major Vaux (-6), Martin (-12), Capt. Staveley Hill (-16), H. E. the Governor (-16), Monteath (-7), Simmons (-20), the Hon. Justice Crump (-8), Stevanur (-16). The Hon. Mr. Hosson and Col. Thomas played level, being (-16).

Gulmarg.**Duncan Vase Competition —**

Flight-Lieut. Davidson (0) beat Major Colin Campbell (2) by 5 up and 3.

Civil Challenge Cup.—Sardar Prithpal Singh (Handicap 8) beat Capt. Conville (Handicap 17) by 3 up and 2.

Nedons Cup—Major and Mrs. Leslie Smith beat Miss N. Frizelle and Capt. Paterson by 7 up and 6.

Ladies' Foursomes.—Mrs. Wace and Mrs. Withamson beat Miss. Mackinnon and Mrs. Malet

Army Scratch Foursomes.—

Major Kennedy and Major Griffith beat Colonel Barton and Captain MacDonald by 2 up and 1.

Ladies' Amateur Championship of the lower course.

Miss M. Harding beat Mrs. Davison.

Men's Amateur Championship of the lower links.

J. G. Scott beat Major C. N. Brist.

Ajmere.**Rajputana Open Tournament—**

Wingate beat Capt. Talton by 4 and 3.

Panchgani.

Major Cook's Challenge Cup (18 holes, stroke handicap). 1 Mr. C. McCaskie (scr.) 87, 2 Mr. S. A. Irani (100-12=88).

The Rowan Cup for Ladies. (11 holes, stroke handicap).—1. Mrs. Walker (81-1=80) 2. Mrs. Brodie (70-6=64).

Mixed Foursomes, Club Prize. (11 holes stroke handicap) 1. Mrs. Brodie and Major Walker (81-10=51) 2. Mrs. Walker and Capt. Brodie (58-3=55).

Driving Competition Distance and Direction. 1st Lady: Mrs. Brodie, 1st Gentleman: Mr. Kanga.

Approaching and Putting. The Wilingdon Cup: 1 Mr. McCaskie, 2 Mrs. Walker.

Nasik.

Challenge Shield, Nasik—Captain W. M. Reed (Bombay) beat N. G. Irvine (Bombay) by 1 up.

Captain's Cup—Dooris (Nasik) beat Herbertson (Bombay).

Men's Consolation Cup—Griffith (Poona).

Peace Cup—N. S. Golfer (Bombay) beat Furton (Bombay).

Long Driving Competition—R. S. Paton (Bombay) 246 yards.

Ladies' Open Competition—Miss Owen.

Men's Foursomes—

Cunningham and Thow beat Kidron and Clayton by 2 and 1.

Ladies' Foursomes—Mrs. Andrews and Mrs. Herbertson beat Mrs. Clayton and Miss Nepean by 2 up and 1.

Bombay Bangle—Mrs. Clayton beat Mrs. Bailey.

Advani Cup (Best aggregate score in the 3 Medal Competitions) Rev. H. B. Scott (Sarat) 243.

President's Cup—Thow (Bombay).

Bombay Gymkhana Cup—

Col. J. L. Lunham (Dharwar) 73 Walker (Dharwar) 77.

WRESTLING.

Bombay.

Presidency Olympic Tournament—

Flyweight.—C. G. Godambe beat R. Dadaj in 57 secs

T. G. Chawan w.o. N. Mucadam for third prize the latter having an injured shoulder.

Bantamweights.—Sakaram Krishnaji beat D. F. Hathiram in 47 secs.

S. V. Damle beat N. R. Mehta in 3 mins. 31 secs. for third prize.

Featherweights.—S. B. Patil beat G. R. Jadev on points after fifteen minutes wrestling.

R. M. Jogekar beat B. Chowdari in 28 secs. for third prize.

Lightweights.—M. K. Kelkar beat Mahomud Hasan Shah in 1 min 47 secs.

Middleweights.—Sergeant J. Goulter (27th Battery, Royal Artillery) beat Sayed M Kazi in 1 min. 6 secs.

Kolhapur.

Gunga beat Gama.

YACHTING.

Bombay.

Bombay—Naini Tal Inter Club Race.—

1. Naini Tal Yacht Club.

2. Bombay Yacht Club.

Inter Club Invitation Race:—

1. Royal Bombay Yacht Club.

2. Naini Tal Yacht Club.

3. Royal Connaught Boat Club.

Race Round Elephanta:—

"A" CLASS

Yamma 6h. 29m. 32m. Mr. Gulliland.

Kelpie 6h. 33m. 0s. Mr. Durkin.

Fiona 6h. 33m. 12s. Mr. MacIvor.

SEA BIRDS.

Galveta 6h. 28m. 31s. Mr. Carron.

Skua 6h. 36m. 6s. Mr. McGovan.

Sea Gull 6h. 36m. 29s. Mr. Lane

Kittiwake 6h. 37m. 36s. Mr. Burford.

"TOMTITS."

Blue Bird 6h. 35m. 56s. Mr. Shand.

Dunty 6h. 35m. 58s. Mr. Gregson.

Connie 6h. 39m. 38s. Mr. Rasmussen.

Oiga 6h. 41m. 38s. Mr. Noel Paton.

Annual Regatta.—

Handicap Class: The President's Cup. Distance 10.8 miles. 1. Bint, 2. Chalgalee, 3. Sheila.

Seabird Class: Gordon Bennett Lysistrata Cup. Distance 9.5 miles.—

1st Loon (Mr. C. N. Rich). 2nd Phalarope (Mr. E. M. Lane). 3rd Osprey (Mr. J. MacGregor). 4th Galveta (J. Mr. Carron).

Tom Tit Class: Gordon Bennett Tom Tit Cup—

1st Bunt (Mr. T. S. Gregson) 2nd Curlew (Mr. C. Rose). 3rd Wendy (Mr. MacGregor).

Handicap Class: H. E. the Governor's Silver Salver Distance 18.28 miles.—

1st Mink (Mr. Seymour Williams and Mr. G. E. Bennett)

2nd Bint (Mr. H. O. B.) 3rd Sheila

(Major Watson and Mr. B. J. Whitby). Seabird Class. Cup presented by (Mr. G. C. Gulliland. Distance 9 miles.

1st Osprey (Mr. J. M. MacGregor), 2nd Loon (Mr. C. N. Rich), 3rd Penguin (Mr. Kingsmill and Mr. Barret), 4th Phalarope (Mr. E. M. Lane).

Handicap Race for Tom-Tits: Cup presented by Sir Amberson Marten. Distance 10.5 miles.

1st Wendy (Mr. MacGregor), 2nd Connie (Mr. Rasmussen).

Poona.

Col. Delap Handicap Cup:

Capt. Bailey beat W. I. C. Trench by 3 mins. 51 secs.

Sir Harold Walker Scratch Cup:—

Col. Delap beat Major Geary by 4 mins. 24 secs.

POONA BEAT BOMBAY.

1. Yellowhammer (Poona) 1 hour, 19 minutes, 15 seconds.

2. Bluejay (Poona) 1 hour, 34 minutes.

3. Redstart (Bombay) 1 hour, 37 minutes.

4. Coot (Bombay) 1 hour, 38 minutes, 10 seconds.

5. Greenshank (Bombay) 1 hour, 38 minutes, 11 seconds.

Osprey Disqualified.

Royal Connaught Boat Club (Poona) 32 points.

Royal Bombay Yacht Club (Bombay) 29 points.

Bhopal.

Obaidullah Trophy.—

1. "Nanshaba" (H. H. the Maharaja of Bhopal) 2. "Readbreast."

Commodore's Cup—

1. "Nanshaba" (Mrs. Rowan) 2. "Curlew" (Bombay).

Corinthian Cup.—1. "Curlew" (Bombay) 2. "Nanshaba."

Visitors' Cup.—1. "Nanshaba" 2. "Readbreast" (Poona).

BOXING.

Calcutta.

Bantamweight Championship of India—

Joe Attridge and Young Firpo drew in a fifteen round contest.

Military Tournament—

Open Welterweight: Dvr. Nash (R. H. A.) beat Pte Mathews (Dorsets) on points.

Open Bantamweight: Bdsmin, Davidson (R. S. Greys) beat Pte Brady (Dorsets) on points.

Novices Welterweight: Dvr. Anderson beat Tpr. Urquhart (R. S. Greys) on points.

L. Cpl. Hurd (R. S. Greys) beat Pte. Beecham (Dorsets) on points.

Tpr. Diemer (R. S. Greys) beat Pte. Leach (R. D. Signals) on points.

Tpr. Whalley (R. S. Greys) beat Sad/Cpl. Lee (R. S. Greys) on points.

Special Contest.—Tpr. Pharmetter (R. S. Greys) received the verdict Pte. Butler (Dorsets) being disqualified.

Middleweight: Tpr. Cameron (R. S. Greys) knocked out Pte. Baker (Dorsets) in the first round.

Novice Featherweight: Bds. Farmer (Dorsets) beat Tpr. Kelly (R. S. Greys) on points.

Presidency and Assam Team and Individual Championships:—Finals.

2nd Prince of Wales Volunteers Champions: Team Events.—

Featherweights:—Cpl. Coley (P. W. Vol.) beat Pte. Slatterly (Shropshires) on points in a five round bout.

Welterweights:—Pte. Phillips (Shropshires) beat Pte. Tomkinson (P. of W.) on points, and Pte. Degan (P. of W.) had a walk-over from L. C. Lyons (P. of W.)

Middleweights:—Pte. Bagnall (P. of W.) beat Pte. Seath (9th Armoured Cars), the referee stopping the fight. Pte. Mander (P. of W.) k. o. Gnr. Hoare (15th Med. Bty.).

Light Heavyweights:—Gnr. Baker (15th M. Bty.) beat Cpl. McGurk (P. of W.) in a five bout.

Heavyweights:—Pte. Leight (North Staff) k. o. Pte. Lodge (P. of W.)

Individual Events.—

Boys under 18.—Boy Chaney (15th Med. Bty.) k. o. Boy Butt (Stafford.)

Flyweights:—Drummer Boulton (Staffs) beat Pte. McCarthy.

Bantamweights:—L. O. Evans (P. of W.) beat L. C. Muir (P. of W.)

Featherweights:—Cpl. Coley (P. of W.) k. o. Pte. Turner (Staffs).

Lightweights:—Cpl. Rimmer (Shrops) beat Pte. Roberts (P. of W.) the referee stopping the fight.

Welterweights:—Pte. Phillips (Shrops) k. o. Pte. Logan (P. of W.)

Middleweights:—Bagnall (P. of W.) beat Mander (P. of W.)

Light Heavyweights:—Pte. Coley (Shrops) k. o. Gnr. Baker (15th Med. Bty.)

Four Round Special:—Pte. Flashed beat Pte. Martin.

Rifleman Caraduff (British Army Bantam Weight Champion) beat Edgar Brighte on points over 15 rounds.

Billimoria beat Sargent on points.

Dixie Kid and Al Rivers drew over 15 rounds

O. Driscoll beat Billimoria on points.

East India Amateur Championships —

Flyweight:—L. Cpl. Boulton beat Le Roy on points.

Bantamweight:—M. V. Gregory, Armenian College, beat S. T. Mackertich, Armenian College, on points

Featherweight:—Orton beat Dmr. Jacobs on points

Lightweight:—Fundly k. o. B. David in the third round.

Welterweight: Cpl. Shaw beat Wilson on points.

Middleweight: Carr beat A. J. Sanders on points.

Light Heavyweight:—Pte. Leigh beat G. Ogilvie on points.

Gunboat Jack beat Seaman Nobby Hall on points in a fifteen round contest.

Pte. Parish beat Edgar Brighte, the latter retiring in the fourteenth round.

Bombay.

Gunboat Jack beat Milton Kubas on points

Driver Coultas beat R. Oorniga on points.

Gunner Raine beat Baltazar, the latter being disqualified in the fourth round.

Driver Coultas beat Pat O'Hearn.

Edgar Brighte beat F. C. Billimoria on points

Centaurus Quina Belt and Lightweight Championship of Western India.

Fall Merchant beat Jack D'Souza on points.

Gunner Melvin k. o. Stoker Sheppard.

Milton Kubas beat Al Rivers on points over ten rounds.

Mody Belt.—

F. C. Billimoria k. o. Saddler Coultas in the fourth round.

Digger Pugh (Australia) beat Edgar Brighte, the latter being disqualified in the third round.

Tourney

Bombay beat Poona.

tullen an Carduff beat R. Ocmugar. the latter being disqualified in the seventh round.

Jack D'Souza knock out Pte. Mills in the third round.

Saddler Coultas beat H. Cutler, the latter retiring in the second round.

Fali Merchant beat Pte. West on points.

Hummer Melvin beat Sergeant Palmer on points.

Jack D'Souza beat Corporal Higgins, the latter retiring after the fifth round.

Poona.

Queen's Own Royal West Kent Tournament Belt Contests.—

Featherweight Belt Contest—Pte. Hazelmere beat Pte. Metzner on points.

Heavyweight Belt Contest.—L. Cpl. Anderson beat Pte. Skoet, the latter retiring in the first round with a damaged thumb.

Special 3-Round Contest—Pte. Gammell beat Cpl. Stone on points.

Poona District Military Tournament.—

Flyweight, Final.—Pte. Brown beat Pte. Metzner on points.

Bantamweight, Final.—Pte. Cook, (Middlesex) beat Tpr. McNeil (9th Lancers) on points.

Featherweight—Pte. Harding (Loyals) w. o. Dr. Lindgren (R.A.)

Lightweight, Final.—L. Cpl. Howlett beat Pte. Cook after a gruelling encounter.

Welterweight, Final—Pte Gammell beat Pte Wedge, the latter being disqualified in the third round.

Middleweight, Final.—L. Bom. McDonald (R. H. A.) beat Tpr Lloyd (9th Lancers) on points.

Light Heavyweight, Final.—C. Q. M. S. Heath (R. W. K.) k.o. Gnr. Tinkler (R.A.) in the second round.

Heavyweight—Gnr. Lee. (R.A.) beat Sgt. Collins (9th Lancers) on points after an extra round.

Nagpur.

Nagpur Volunteer Rifles and Wiltshires Tournament:

FINALS.

Lightweights, N.V.R.—G. Slaney beat W. McCue.

Cadets, Bantams, N.V.R.—A. Stacey beat A. Orpwood.

Bantams, British units.—Pte. Bailey (Wilts) beat Pte. Slade (Wilts).

Bantams, N.V.R.—J. Robinson beat D. Scott.

Welters, N.V.R.—Bastion beat Banerji.

Middles, British units.—Pte. Twinch (Wilts) beat Pte. Smith (Wilts).

Cadets, Feathers, N.V.R.—P. Rebelro beat C. George.

Welters, British units, Pte Moore (Wilts) beat Lee-Corpi Phloppan.

Belgaum

Battling Madurai beat George Arlikutti on points.

George Arlikutti beat Quiran on points

George Arlikutti beat Battling Madurai in a return contest.

Bangalore.

Arthur Soares k. o. Kid Charlie in the fifth round

Fireman Jarvis (Jalarpet) beat Battling Madurai, the latter retiring after the third round.

Rawalpindi.

The Rawalpindi District, Team and Individual Championships.—

1. East Surrey Regiment—21 points

2. Royal Sussex Regiment—17 points

3. King's Own Regiment—17 points

4. Royal Corps of Signals—16 points

Heavyweight Team Final.—Pte. Munday (Surrey Regiment) k. o. Pte. McKay (King's Own) in the first round.

Officers' Lightweight Individual Final.—Lt Halsey (Sussex Regt.) beat Lt Stevens (Sussex Regiment) on points.

Featherweight Individual Final.—Drummer Bowles (Surrey Regt.) beat Pte. Holcombe (Surrey Regt.) in the 2nd round.

Middleweight Individual Final.—Signalman Gray (Signals) beat Pte. Probleits (Surrey Regt.) on points.

Welterweight Individual Final.—Gunner Smith (Royal Artillery) beat Pte. Leake (Sussex Regt.) on points.

Lightweight Individual Final.—Pte. Leavy (Sussex Regt.) beat Sergt. Choules (Surrey Regt.) on points.

Flyweight Individual Final.—Pte. Dawson (Surrey Regt.) beat Pte. Sayers (Sussex Regt.) on points.

Bantamweight Individual Final.—Simpson (Surrey Regiment k. o. Gunner Murray (R.A.) in the first round.

Light Heavyweight Individual Final.—Corporal Helliwood (King's Own) k. o. Pte. McCleane (King's Own) in the second round.

Jubbulpore.

Hampshires Tournament:—

Lightweight—Cpl. Dawes, A Coy., beat Pte. Hebditch, C. Coy., on points.

Welterweight.—Pte. Hughes, C. Coy beat Pte Wake, A Coy., on points.

Featherweight.—Pte Collins A Coy k. o. Pte. Panther O Coy in 1st

Welterweight.—Pte. Holmes, A Coy., k. o. Cpl. Anzulucca, C Coy., in third round.

Lightweight.—L. C. Gardner, C Coy., beat Pte. Stutchbury, A Coy., on points after an extra round.

Middleweight.—L. Sgt. Hale, A Coy., beat Pte. Watkins, C Coy., on points.

Featherweight.—Pte. Lamb, A Coy., lost to Pte. Budden, C Coy., on points.

Catchweight.—L. C. Barrett, A Coy., k. o. Pte. Richards, C Coy., in third round.

Bantamweight.—L. C. Guerin, C Coy., beat Pte. Abbott, A Coy., on points.

Welterweight.—Pte. Jury, A Coy., k. o. Pte. Tolfrey, C Coy., in first round.

Lightweight.—Cpl. McGahan, A Coy., k. o. Pte. Preece, C Coy., in first round.

Middleweight.—Pte. Davies, C Coy., beat L. C. Atkins, A Coy., the referee stopping the fight.

Featherweight.—Pte. Bishop, C Coy., beat Pte. Thompson, A Coy., on points.

Middleweight.—Pte. Farey, C Coy., beat Pte. Jayes, A Coy., on points.

Featherweight.—L. C. Heighes, A Coy., beat Pte. Harvey, C Coy., on points.

Welterweight.—Pte. Cook, A Coy., k. o. Pte. Harrison, C Coy., in first round.

Bantamweight.—L. C. Burgess, C Coy., beat Pte. Harris, A Coy., on points after an extra round.

Lightweight.—Pte. Venny, A Coy., k. o. Pte. Cranham, C Coy., in second round.

Welterweight.—Cpl. Savager, A Coy., k. o. Pte. Horwell, C Coy., in first round.

SOUTHERN COMMAND TOURNAMENT—

Individual Championships.—

Flyweight.—Pte. Brown (Middlesex) beat L. Bdr. Jones (15th Bd. R. A.) by a narrow margin of points.

Middleweight.—Bdr. McDonald (1st Bn. R. H. A.) beat Pte. White (Hampshires) after a good fight on points.

Bantamweight.—Pte. Cook (Middlesex) won on points from L. C. Guerin (Hampshires) who damaged his wrist.

Welterweight.—Pte. Gammel (R. W. K.) beat Rtn. Maclier (R. U. K.) on points.

Featherweights.—Cpl. McKnight (R. U. R.) beat L. C. Huckfield (Hampshires) on points.

Lightweight.—Bdm. Farrelly (Hampshires) won on points from Fus. Balshaw (Lancs. Fus.)

Special A. F. I. Contest (four rounds).—Cadet Jackson (Nagpur Rifles) beat Cadet Rocque (Nagpur Rifles) on points, although Rocque shook his map badly in the first round.

Special Middleweight (four rounds).—Dr. Rhaymer (21st Field Bdr. R. A.) knocked out Pte. Cook

Special Flyweight (four rounds).—Pte. P. K. N. (Loyals) beat Pte. Moore (R. U. R.) on points.

Special Featherweight (four rounds).—Pte. Smith (Staffs) won on points from Cmr. Howe (14th Heavy Bd. R. A.) after having been cautioned twice for fouling.

Special Middleweight (four rounds).—Pte. Fitzgerald (Hampshires) beat Dr. Gough (21st Field Bd. R. A.) on points.

Special Heavyweight.—Pte. Huggins (Hampshires, 12st. 2 lbs.) knocked out Sgt. Bugler Bendy (H. L. I. 13st. 6 lbs.) Huggins started off with his usual rushes and gave Bendy terrible punishment in the first round. The second and third rounds were savagely fought.

TEAM FINALS:—

Heavy-weights.—Pte. Huggins (Hampshires) knocked out Pte. Counsell (Lancs) in the first round.

Light Heavy-weights.—Pte. Ireland (Hampshires) beat Pte. Conolly (Lancs) on points after a good scrap.

Middle-weights.—Pte. White (Hampshires) knocked out L. C. Barkhouse (Lancs) in the second round.

Welter-weights.—Pte. Holmes (Hampshires) knocked out Pte. Barry (Lancs) in the second round.

Pte. Styles.—(Hampshires) beat Pte. Walsh (Lancs) on points.

Light-weights.—L. C. Dixon (Lancs) won on points from Bdm. Farrelly (Hampshires)

Feather-weights.—L. C. Huckfield (Hampshires) beat Pte. Harding (Lancs) on points.

Bantamweights.—L. C. Guerin (Hampshires) beat Pte. Forshaw, (Lancs) on points

SOUTHERN COMMAND CHAMPIONSHIP AND WINDSOR DART CUP.

1st Batt. Hampshire Regiment.

Agar Khan Cup.—1st Batt. Loyal North Lancashire Regiment.

Public Schools Tournament.—

M. Shields won the Heavyweight Championship of India, F. Jackson, the Middleweight Championship of India, E. Gracious (welterweight) prize for special contest, and L. Otter (fly weight) prize for special contest. They also carried off the cup for the 2nd aggregate number of points for the whole of India. The following are the points obtained by the different schools and colleges that competed—St. Fidelis' School, Mussoorie, 120; Christ Church B. M. S. Jubbulpore, 75; St. George's Mussoorie, 0; Mount Abu, 0; Royal Military College Dehra Dun, 0.

Madras.

Kid Charlie knocked out Yardie in the second round.

Mussoorie.**Public Schools Competition.—Finals—**

Flyweight: P. Monier (St. Fidelis' High School) beat Jaswant Singh (R. I. M. College) on points.

Featherweight: M. Robbins (St. Fidelis' High School) beat M. Larking (St. George's College) on points.

Lightweight: F. Jack (Christ Church Boys' High School) beat E. Cullan (St. George's College) on points.

Welterweight: C. Barnett (St. Fidelis' High School) beat Yndister (R. I. M. College) on points.

Middleweight: W. Aitkins (St. Fidelis' High School) beat A. Mingail (the latter was disqualified in the second round for holding and leaning after repeated warnings).

Heavyweight: M. Shields (Christ Church Boys' High School) beat P. Robbins (St. Fidelis' High School) on points.

Army Competition—

Fair Higgins (1st Royal Fusiliers) beat Pte. Beaumont (1st Worcesters) on points.

Individual Finals—

Flyweight: Lce.-Cpl. Guerin (1st Hampshires) beat Fslr. Jenkins (2nd Royal Scots Fusiliers) on points.

Bantamweight: Lce.-Cpl. Alexander (2nd Royal Regt.) on points.

Featherweight: Cpl. McKnight (2nd Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Saddler Cpl. Jones (4th Q. O. Hussars) on points.

Lightweight: Pte. Benfield (52nd Light Infy) knocked out Fslr. Cross (2nd-5th Fusiliers) in the first round.

Welterweight: Pte. Holmes (1st Hampshires) beat Fslr. Murphy (2nd-5th Fusiliers) on points.

Middleweight: Sgmn. Gray (Royal Corps of Signals) knocked out Lce.-Cpl. McMillan (2nd Royal Ulster Rifles) in the first round.

Light Heavyweight: Pte. Higgins (1st Hampshires) knocked out Drmmr. Hayton (2nd-5th Fusiliers) in the first round.

Heavyweight: Fslr. Byman (2nd Royal Scots Fusiliers) knocked out Pte. Swallow (2nd Sherwood Foresters) in the first round.

Quetta.

Gunboat Jack beat Farrier Berwick on points.

Lance-Cpl. Craig beat Al Rivers on points.

PIG STICKING.**Muttra.****Muttra Cup.—**

Muttra Tent Club and Royal Artillery Training Centre, six kills in eight runs, equal first.

Runners-up: Scots Wreys B and the Ca Tent Club, five kills in eight runs. 1 cutt

Bhavnagar.**Guzerat Cup.—**

Capt. Catto beat A. Kirke Smith.

Salman Cup:—

Capt. Catto and Lieut. Rayubha Drew.

TENNIS.**Dalhousie Club Tournament, Calcutta.—**

Oakshott beat Woodward, 6-3, 8-6, 6-4.

Duvar Challenge Shield.—

Serampore India Jute (G. Lisk and J. Arthur) beat Bharneshwar Argus (F. B. Cooper and J. Clynes), 6-0, 7-5.

Bengal Lawn Tennis Championships, Calcutta.—

Mixed Doubles—Meyer and Miss Graham beat Veda and Mrs. B. Nil, 11-9, 6-4.

Men's Singles.—E. V. Bobb beat Raghubir Dayal, 9-7, 8-6, 6-2.

Bombay Presidency Hard Court Tournament, Bombay.—

Men's Singles.—Raja Iyer beat Rangaswami, 3-6, 6-3, 6-3.

Men's Doubles.—Gole and Vartak beat Raja Iyer and the Prince of Limkhdi, 5-7, 6-4, 15-13.

Mixed Doubles.—Mrs. Wright and Pitt beat Mrs. Lucas and Raja Iyer, 6-4, 6-4.

Ladies' Singles. Mrs. R. Row beat Miss Stobbing, 6-3 6-2.

Ladies' Doubles—Miss Chase and Mrs. Prophet beat Mrs. Race and Miss Talyarkhan, 6-4, 7-5.

Western India Tournament, Bombay.—

Men's Doubles: Final—England and Chesney beat Tomanaga and Taku, 6-2, 6-4.

Ladies' Doubles: Final—Mrs. Covell and Mrs. Lucas beat Mrs. Hughes and Mrs. Wright, 6-3, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles: Semi-Final.—Tomanaga and Miss Evans beat Pitt and Mrs. Wright, 6-3, 9-7.

Men's Singles:—a. m. Pitt beat Raja Iyer.

Bombay Gymkhana Tournament, Bombay.—

Mixed Doubles—Mr and Mrs Lilley—(3/6) beat Pitt and Mrs. Wright (—30 3/6), 7-5.

Veteran's Doubles.—Brough and Annett (Scr.) beat Totts and Williams (—1 6 6-0 6-2.

Y. M. C. A. T

4, Bombay

Men's Singles.—Mr. E. Shaw, winner; Mr. T. Baker, runner-up.

Men's Doubles.—Messrs. E. Shaw and A. D'Avonne, winners; Messrs. Rockley and Barday, runners-up.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Gallaher, winner; Miss Race, runner-up.

Mixed Doubles.—Mrs. Gallaher and Mr. Barday, winners; Miss Brown and Mr. T. Baker, runners-up.

Club Road Recreation Club Tournament, Bombay.—

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. L. Race (—40) beat Mrs. A. M. Gallagher (—30), (6—2), (6—2).

Ladies' Doubles.—Mrs. L. Race and Miss M. Brown (—40) beat Mrs. A. K. Acott and Miss E. Sutton (—30), (4—6), (6—2), (6—4).

Men's Singles.—O. Sutton (—40) beat T. Baker (—40), (6—2), (6—2).

Men's Doubles.—O. Sutton and A. K. Acott (—30) beat C. Cunningham and C. Barday (—30), (5—7), (6—4), (6—3).

Mixed Doubles.—Mrs. C. H. Malone and C. Cunningham (—30) beat Miss M. Brown and C. Barday (—30), (6—2), (6—4).

Poona and Kirkee Military Tournament, Poona.—

Men's Doubles: Final.—Marvey and Phillips beat Morley and Payne. 4-6, 3-6, 6-3, 6-4, 7-5.

Mixed Doubles: Final.—Miss Browne and V. Laxton beat Mr. and Mrs. Browne. 6-1, 12-10.

Inter Gym Tennis, Poona.—

Deccan Gymkhana, 60 games.

Poona Gymkhana, 57 games.

American Tournament, Mahabeshwar:—

The totals were:—

BATCH A.

Mrs. Gould and Martin, 19—8, 11.

Miss Wiles and Thomas, 11—1, 10.

Miss Wild and Hatch, 8—0, 8.

Mrs. Hatch and Hill, 14—6, 8.

Mrs. Aitken and Wiles, 13—14, 4.

BATCH B.

Mrs. Hill and Mirams, 17—2, 15.

Miss Grant and Staveley-Hill, 19—5, 14.

Mrs. Martin and Simmons, 11—0, 11.

Miss Hodgson and Wilkinson, 16—10, 6.

Miss Fradgley and Turner, 7—4, 3.

In the Final.—

Mrs. Hill and Mirams (scr) beat Mrs. Gould and Martin (—30). 5—7, 6—4, 6—4.

Mahabeshwar.—

Handicap Singles.—D. M. Khatau beat K. B. Atyulpurkar.

Handicap Doubles. 1.—N. Shah and K. B. Atyulpurkar beat B. C. Mehta and M. P. Amin.

Handicap Singles (under 18): Final.—C. M. Patwardhan beat V. M. D. Thakersey.

Handicap Doubles (under 18): Final.—R. M. Khatau and B. C. Mehta beat V. M. D. Thakersey and Jaysing Bhagwandas.

Open Singles: Final.—R. M. Khatau beat W. N. Shah.

Open Doubles: Final.—The Hon. Sir C. V. Mehta and D. M. Khatau beat L. M. Khatau and K. M. D. Thakersey.

Rawalpindi Club Tournament, Rawalpindi.—

Men's Singles (Open): Final.—Forman beat Arnett. 6—4, 3—6, 6—3, 6—3, 10—8.

Mixed Doubles (Handicap): Final.—Mrs. Meares and Black (+15) beat Mrs. Richard and Montague Bates (—2, 0) 6—1, 3—2.

Ladies' Singles (Open): Finals.—Mrs. Young beat Mrs. Churcher. 5—7, 7—5, 6—1.

Ladies' Doubles (Open).—Mrs. Turner and Mrs. Molesworth beat Mrs. Graham and Mrs. Martin. 6—3, 4—6, 6—3.

Regimental Doubles (Open).—Steward and Gompertz (I. A. S. C.) beat Urmon and Churcher (I. A. S. C.). 3—4, 6—4.

Championship Tournament, Karachi.—

Mr. W. F. Hudson, C.I.E., I.C.S., Commissioner in Sind, presented the prizes to the winners after an amusing speech. The proceedings closed with three cheers for the Commissioner.

The results were:—

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Turner beat Mrs. Demetriadis 6—4, 2—6, 6—2.

Mixed Doubles.—Mrs. Marshall and E. A. Rokeby beat Mrs. Curden and H. Curden 6—2, 6—2.

Men's Singles.—R. S. Hiranandani beat V. R. Shivdasani. 6—1, 6—4.

Men's Doubles.—R. S. Hiranandani and D. W. Bhojwani beat J. M. Dushaw and J. S. Olshaw. 6—3, 4—6, 6—0.

Simla Open Championships, Simla.—

Men's Singles: Final.—Jagat Mohan Lal beat Raghunirdyal 6—0, 10—8, 6—3.

Mixed Doubles: Final.—Mrs. Shepherd and Jagat Mohan Lal beat Miss Mackenna and Smith. 7—5, 6—1.

Ladies' Singles: Final.—Mrs. Harcourt beat Mrs. Shepherd (holder) 6—3, 2—6, 6—6.

Men's Doubles: Final.—Jagat Mohan Lal and Raghbir Dayal beat Scott and Smith 6—1, 6—4.

Mussoorie.—

Ladies' Doubles: Final.—Mrs. Gough and Mrs. Hunt beat Mrs. Vane Percy and Mrs. 6—4, 8—6, 6—1.

nnagar.—

Men's Open Singles.—Digby beat Heaney. 6-2, 3-6, 6-1, 6-2.

Men's Handicap Singles.—Heaney (—15.3) beat Man (—4). 3-1, 6-2.

Ladies' Open Singles.—Miss Chambers beat Mrs. Hughes. 3-6, 6-3, 6-4.

Ladies' Handicap Doubles.—Mrs. Seven Oaks and Miss Blaher (—3) beat Miss Parbury and Miss Chambers (—1). 4-6, 6-2, 6-6.

Mixed Handicap Doubles.—Spencer and Mrs. Stroven (—15) beat Heaney and Miss Sheridan (—15.4). 3-6, 6-6, 6-4.

harrison Club Tournament, Coonoor.—

Men's Open Doubles. Final.—A. P. Dall and Rev. Brother Donnes beat Hewitt and Roland Hill. 4-6, 6-2, 3-4, 8-6.

Men's Handicap Doubles. Final.—Rev. H. Edmunds and Ricketts (—15.3) beat Major Tolson and Major Slingsby (+15) 8-6, 6-8.

Ladies' Open Singles: Final.—Miss A. Butler beat Miss B. Downing (of Coonoor). 6-1, 6-3.

Open Mixed Doubles: Final.—Mrs. A. Butler and Hewitt beat Miss Downing and Weld Downing. 6-2, 6-4.

Men's Handicap Singles: Finals.—Capt. Neale (scr.) beat Arnold Thomas. (—15). 6-0, 9-7.

Cooch Behar Cup: Mixed Handicap Doubles: Final.—Miss Downing and Weld Downing (+3) beat Mrs. G. S. Butler and Butler of Cordite Factory (—15.3). 6-2, 6-1.

oonoor.—

Men's Open Doubles: Final.—Devasagayam and Viswanathan beat Dr. Subarayan and Balagopalani. 6-3, 6-1, 6-1.

Men's Handicap Singles: Final.—Col. Couchman (—15) beat U. Brito (—15). 6-3, 6-2.

Rajputana Tournament, Mount Abu.—

Ladies' Handicap Singles: Finals.—Miss Dunne beat Mrs. Wightwick. 6-0, 6-2.

Mixed Doubles Handicap: Finals.—Miss Webb and Amar Singh beat Miss Mayne and David. 6-6, 15-13, 6-2.

Men's Handicap Singles: Finals.—Ghanashyam Singh beat Hancock. 12-10, 6-0, 5-7, 6-3.

Men's Handicap Doubles: Finals.—Mr. Reynolds and Field beat Yuvraj of Limbdi and R. S. Raja Iyer. 4-6, 6-2, 6-4, 6-4.

Murreo.—

Men's Handicap Singles: Finals. Mockler (—40) beat Seaver (scr.). 6-0, 6-2.

Ladies' Handicap Singles: Finals.—Mrs. Nadim (—30) beat Miss Lane-Brown (—30). 4-6, 6-3, 7-4.

Men's Handicap Doubles: Finals.—Hatch and Whittall (—30) beat General Macmullen and Thompson (—30). 6-1, 2-6, 7-5.

Ladies' Handicap Doubles: Finals.—Mrs. Brandér and Mrs. Turner (—30) beat Mrs. Scott and Mrs. Churchler (—40). 0-6, 6-2, 6-1.

Mixed Handicap Doubles: Finals.—Mrs. Harold and Seaver (scr.) beat Mrs. Giamham and Mockler (—40). 4-6, 6-3, 6-2.

SOUTH INDIA CHAMPIONSHIPS, Madras.—

Men's Singles.—Balagopal beat Singaravelu. 6-4, 6-2, 6-1.

Men's Doubles.—Rachappa and R. S. Chandrasekharan beat K. Brammanand Rao and N. Venkatrao. 5-7, 6-3, 4-6, 6-4, 6-4.

Mixed Doubles.—Mrs. Ian Fraser and A. R. Wilson beat Mrs. Hall and T. G. Singaravelu. 9-11, 6-0, 6-1.

Ladies' Singles.—Mrs. Mullen beat Mrs. Pullen. 6-3, 6-4.

HOCKEY.

eighton Cup, Calcutta.—

Navarians 2 goals.

Customs 1 goal.

akshimibulas Cup, Calcutta.—

Mohamedan Sporting 1 goal.

Bhowanipore Nil.

epsen Cup, Bombay.—

Byculla Hockey Club 2 goals.

Crusaders Nil.

a Khan Charity Cup, Bombay.—

G I P. Jubbulpore 6 goals.

Times of India Nil.

Agá Khan Cup, Bombay.—

Christ Church Old Boys', Jubbulpore 1 goal

Ajmere Nil

District Tournament, Bombay.—

1-11th Sikhs, Mhow 5 goals

10-5th Mahratta Light Infantry .. 1 goal

Shamha Shield: (Indian Units), Bombay.—

"B" Coy., 3-16th Punjab Regt. .. 2 goals

"D" Coy., 3-16th Punjab Regt. .. 1 goal

Cummings Cup, Bombay.—

11th Battery, B. B. R. A. .. 3 goals

Bombay Battalion, A. F. I. .. Nil

Kirkee Islam Hockey Tourney, Poona.—			
Bombay Young Men's Club	..	4 goals	
Royal Bombay Sappers and Miners	2 goals.		
Cheshires Inter-Platoon Tournament, Poona.—			
Signal Platoon	..	4 goals.	
No. 10 Platoon	..	1 goal.	
Poona Aga Khan Tournament, Poona.—			
Poona Rifles A. F. I.	..	7 goals	
Queen's Own Royal West Kent Regt.	Nil.		
Poona Group British Military Tournament.—			
Middlesex Regt.	..	1 goal.	
22nd Cheshire Regt.	..	Nil.	
P. Y. C. Hindu Gymkhana Tourney, Poona.—			
Ammunition Factory, Kirkee	..	1 goal.	
Poona Police	..	Nil.	
Poona District Tournament, Poona.—			
Loyal Regiment	..	2 goals	
Middlesex	..	Nil.	
Union Jack War Memorial Tourney Karachi.—			
Sherwood Foresters, "A" Company	..	1 goal.	
Sherwood Foresters, "B" Company	..	Nil.	
Buchanan Tournament Lahore.—			
N. W. Railway Regt...	..	2 goals.	
Chiefs' College	..	Nil.	
Punjab Rifles Cup, Lahore—			
Government College "A"	..	3 goals.	
Punjab Police	..	1 goal.	
Hadow Shield, Lahore—			
N. W. Railway Apprentices	..	6 goals.	
St. Anthony's School	..	1 goal.	

Bombay.

Challenge Fours.—1. Royal Connaught Boat Club, Poona, (R. L. Bishop, Bow, D. S. Gibb, E. M. Blake, H. Wolferstan, Stroke, and Capt. D. F. Brown, Cox) 2. Bombay Gymkhana (D. Dawson, Bow, G. L. Slater, F. A. Richardson, A. W. Percy, Stroke and H. A. Moore, Cox).	
Challenge Pairs.—Bombay Gymkhana, F. A. Richardson, D. Dawson and H. A. Moore, Cox, beat Poona, the latter breaking an oar.	
Junior Pairs.—Cock and Cockram beat Bruce and de la Mare.	
Senior Sculls.—H. A. Moore beat W. G. Taylor.	
Double Sculls.—Tweed and Percy beat Elges and Slater.	
Club Fours.—1. Taylor's Crew beat Hobart-Hampton's Crew.	

Poona.

Rosherville Regatta.—	
Novices Fours $\frac{1}{2}$ Mile: Final: Army Signal School - A	
of Miven (Bow	

Madras Military Service Memorial Nagpur.			
City Sports, Betul	..	1 goal	
Naya Bazaar Club, Kamptee	..	Nil	
Bilimoria Cup, Panhagani.—			
Parsee High School	..	2 goals	
Boys' High School	..	2 goal	
All India Tournament, New Delhi.—			
Ghaziabad Sports Club	..	2 goals	
Nondescripts	..	0 goal	
Dumwaril Tournament, Lucknow.—			
Lucknow University	..	2 goals	
E. I. R. Cawnpore	..	Nil.	
Scindia Trophy, Gwalior.—			
Agra Telegraph	..	1 goal	
Jubbulpore Battalion	..	Nil	
Bangalore—Madras District Indian Army Tournament—			
Madras Pioneers	..	3 goal	
Madras Sappers and Miners	..	1 goal	
Murree—			
Punjab Rifles	..	1 goal	
Lawrence School	..	Nil	
Lintatt Shield, Murree—			
Royal Army Service Corps	..	1 goal	
Seaforth Highlanders	..	Nil	
Purga Cup Tournament, Secunderabad—			
N. G. S. Railway "A"	..	2 goals	
Trojans	..	1 goal	
Willington Cup, Madras.—			
Telegraph Recreation Club	..	3 goals	
Young Men's Indian Association	..	1 goal	

ROWING.

Crain, Butcher, Buchanan (Stroke) and Hooper (Cox), beat Army Signal School B consisting of Beckett (Bow), Bartholomew Keogh, Tyascott (Stroke) and Cuedon (Cox). Won easily. Time—3 mins. 29 secs	
Sailing Race: (1) Bluejay with Rice and Gaskell (2) Yellowhammer with Bailey and Harry (3) Reestart with Geary and Kennedy	
Senior Sculls: Final: $\frac{1}{2}$ mile. Lister beat Groves. Won by $\frac{1}{4}$ lengths. Time—3 mins. 15 secs.	
Gretna Green Race: (1) Miss Hay and Groves, 2 Mrs. White and Cousins. Mr. and Mrs. Walters.	
Challenge Eights Final: 1 mile. Royal Engineers beat Army Signal School. The crews were: R. E. Clements (Bow), Horsfield, Reed, Brown, Bishop, Philbrick, Blake, Wolferstan (Stroke) and Buckley (Cox). Army Signal School: Keane (Bow) Crum, Churchill, Gelson, Lewis, Carey, Rushton, Block (Stroke) and Hooper (Cox).	
* Won by $\frac{1}{4}$ length. Time—6 mins. 53 secs	
Relay Race: Final (1) Royal Engineers, (2) Royal Tank Corps.	

BADMINTON.

Friends' Association Tournament, Tanj.—

Pinto Villa Team, Dadar, beat Friends' Association Team, 21—10; 21—12.

SWIMMING.

Calcutta.

23 miles Bhattacharya to Kumartuk Chat.—

The first four competitors were Mr. Juan
(Chandra Chatterji) (Kathkora Club) 1;
Mr. Robin Ghose 2; Mr. M. S. Ghose 3;
Mr. Sukumar (United Club) 4. Time 3 hrs. 45 mins.

Calcutta Water Polo.—

Calcutta 4 goals.
Rangoon 3 goals.

All India 30 Mile Race.—

1. Juan (Chandra Chatterji) (Kathkora City College) 6 hrs. 55 mins.
2. Bhendra Nath Pal (National Swimming Association) 8 hrs. 12 mins.
3. Monoranjan Bose (Ananda Sporting Club) 6 hrs. 30 mins.
4. Dalal Chander Mullick (Shashanagar Sporting Club).
5. Dharendra Nath Das (Shashanagar S. C.)
6. Sudhar Kumar Ghosh (Ahantolla S. C.)

Poona

Relay Race, 800 yds.—

Kirkce.—B. Brewin, 1 min. 10 sec.; O'Brien,
1 min. 18 sec.; Taylor, 1 min. 22 sec.;

Van Ingen, 1 min. 29 sec.; H. Brewin,
1 min. 27 sec.; Passfield, 1 min. 31-5
secs; Total 7 mins. 40 1-5 sec.

Poona.—Fisher, 1 min. 12 sec.; Jacques, 1
min. 25 sec.; Blatchley, 1 min. 30 sec.
Baker, 1 min. 25 sec.; MacKenzie, 1 min.
25 sec.; Alexander, 1 min. 18 sec.
Total 8 mins. 10 sec.

Men's Race.—(Kirkce). R. Brewin, 37 sec.
O'Brien, 37 sec.; Taylor, 40 sec.; Pass-
field, 32 sec. (Poona) MacKenzie, 38 sec.;
Jacques, 40 sec.; Baker, 41; 4-3 sec.;
Fisher, 38 sec.

Mixed Race.—(Kirkce); R. Brewin, 41 sec.;
Miss Oakford, 44 sec.; Miss Rhodes,
40 sec.; Van Ingen, 45 sec.; Passfield,
38 sec.; Miss Emery, 30 sec. (Poona):
MacKenzie, 44 sec.; Miss P. Taylor, 40 sec.;
Mrs. Chatfield, 45 sec.; Baker, 45 sec.;
Fisher, 46 sec.; Miss M. Taylor, 39 sec.

Ordinance Club beat A. F. I. Club.—

Ordinance Boat Club: Miss Rhodes, 38 1-5
secs; Miss Oakford, 39 sec.; O'Brien,
25 sec.; Brewin, 24 4-5 sec.

A. F. I. Club: Miss M. Taylor, 34 sec.;
Miss V. Taylor, 32 seconds; MacKenzie, 28
3-5 sec.; Taylor, 30 sec.

Relay Race—I. A. S. C. beat Indian Corps of Clerks.

BILLIARDS.

Dubash Tournament, Poona.—

72nd Battery, R. A. 1,360 points.
27th Battery, R. A. 1,279 points.

Lahore Gymkhana Tournament, Lahore.—

Lt-Col. J. Graham (—200) beat W. N.
P. Jaukyo (—10) by 250 to 240.

RUGBY.

Calcutta Tourney.—

Gloucesters 3 points.
P. W. Volunteers Nil.

Calcutta International.—

Scotland 8 points.
England Nil.

Madras Cup, Jubbulpore.—

28th Field Brigade Jubbulpore 9 goals.
The Wiltshires, Kamptee Nil.

How Station Tournament.—

24th Field Battery, M.A. 3 points.
H. Q. Wing, West Works Nil.

Poona.—

Bombay 52 points.
Poona Nil.

Poona Gymkhana Tournament.—

Bombay Gymkhana 27 points.
Cheshires 5 points.

Bombay.—

Scotland 5 points.
England 3 points.

All India Rugby Cup, Bombay.—

Prince of Wales's Volunteers (1 try) 3 points.
Calcutta Nil.

West Cup Tournament, Allahabad.—

South Wales Borderers 3 points.
Cawnpore 7.

RIFLE SHOOTING.

Meerut.

ARMY CHAMPIONSHIPS.

THE WINNING UNITS.

Brooke Bond Cup.—1. 2nd Bn., The Seaforth Highlanders (913); 2. 2nd Bn., The Royal Wiltshire Rifles (881); 3. 1st Bn., The Hampshire Regiment (764).

Rougell Cup.—1. No. 15 Platoon, 2nd Bn., The Seaforth Highlanders (237); 2. No. 5 Platoon, 1st Bn., The Hampshire Regiment (234); 3. No. 15 Platoon, 1st Bn., The Rifle Brigade (312).

Aggregate Match.—1. 4-10th Baluch Regiment, (DCO), (6,811); 2. 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (6,498); 3. 1-10th Baluch Regiment, (DCO) (5,184).

88th Carnatic Infantry Gold Cup.—1. 4-10th Baluch Regiment, (DCO), (1,914); 2. 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (1,879); 3. 2-15th Punjab Regiment, (1,471).

Rawlinson Shield.—1. H. Q. Wing 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (1,337); 2. "A" Company, 4-10th Baluch Regiment, (DCO), (1,186); 3. "D" Company, 4-6th Rajputana Rifles (Outram's), (1,153); 4. Escort to the British Envoy, Nepal, (1,079).

Luckock Cup.—1. "A" Company, 4-10th Baluch Regiment, (DCO), (1,672); 2. H. Q. Wing, 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (1,451); 3. "A" Company, 5-7th Rajput Regiment, (1,348).

Cawnpore Woollen Mills Cup.—1. 12 Platoon, 4-6th Rajputana Rifles (Outram's), (817); 2. 3 Platoon, 4-10th Baluch Regiment, (DCO), (718); 3. 5 Platoon, 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (665).

Pr... 4 Platoon, 1 Platoon, 5 Platoon.

O'Moore Creagh Cup.—1. 4th Troop, "A" sqdn., 17th QVO Poona Horse, (133); 2. 4th Troop, "A" sqdn., 13th DCO Lancers, (117); 3. 4th Troop, "A" sqdn., 11th PAVO Cavalry Fl, (103).

Mother Country Cup.—1. 4-6th Rajputana Rifles, (DCO), (418); 2. No. 3 Team, 1-15th F. F. Rifles (Coke's), (406); 3. No. 1 Team, 1-15th F. F. Rifles (Coke's), (403).

Francis Memorial Cup.—1. 4-16th Punjab Regiment (Bhopal), (768); 2. 3-11th Sikh Regiment (Battray's Sikhs), (732); 3. 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (696).

Training Battalions Cup.—1. 10-12th Frontier Force Rifles, (883); 2. 10-10th Baluch Regiment, (821); 3. 16-2nd Punjab Regiment (812).

Gurkha Cup.—1. 10-11th Sikh Regiment, (489); 2. 1-4th Hazara Pioneers, (482); 3. 10-17th Dogra Regiment, (168).

A. F. I. Cup.—1. Cawnpore Auxiliary Force (988); 2. 1st Bn., Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Rifles, (793); 3. Lucknow Auxiliary Force, (775).

Reading Cup.—1. "B" Company, The Simla Rifles, A.F.I., (726); 2. "B" Company, 2nd B. B. and C. I. Railway Regiment, (649); 3. "A" Company, 2nd M. and S. M. Railway Rifles, (624).

B. P. R. A. Cup.—1. No. 5 Platoon Dehra Dun Contingent, A.F.I., (279); 2. No. 7 M.G.C. Lucknow Auxiliary Force, (274); 3. No. 1. Battery, R. A., Lucknow Auxiliary Force (269).

Simla Rifles' Cup.—1. "F" Company, Nilgiri Malabar Battalion, A.F.I., (289); 2. "A" Company, 2nd B. B. and C. I. Railway Regiment, (219); 3. "B" Company, Dehra Dun Contingent, A.F.I., (207).

Nazapa Cup.—1. No. 7. M.G.C. Lucknow Auxiliary Force (272); 2. V. G. Section Dehra Dun Contingent, A.F.I., (236); 3. Nos. 1 and 2 J. M. Patrols, Dehra Dun Contingent, A.F.I., (199).

Military Advisers Cup.—1. 4th M. B. Gwalior Battalion, (1,873); 2. Bikaner Ganga Risala, (1,813); 3. 1st Jayaji Gwalior Lancers (1,119).

Scindia Cup.—1. "B" Company, 3rd M. S.O. Gwalior Infantry, (1,070); 2. "R" Company, Satul Light Infantry, Bikaner (944); 3. "A" Company, 3rd Kashmir Rifles, (897).

The King's Medal.—Sergt. B. Cartwright.

Who's Who in India.

ABDUL HAMID, KHAN BAHADUR DIWAN, Bar at Law, C.I.E., O.B.E., Chief Minister, Kapurthala State. *b.* 15 October 1881. *m.* a daughter of Khan Sahib Sheikh Amir-ud-Din, retired Extra Asstt. Commissioner in the Punjab. *Educ.*: Government College, Lahore. 1909; Supdt. of Head of the Mashir Mal; Fellow of the Punjab University; Lately Member, Punjab Legislative Council; Chief Secretary, March 1915, Chief Minister. 1920 Received Coronation Darbar Medal (1911); Khan Bahadur (1915), O.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1923). *Address*: Kapurthala.

ABDUL KARIM, MAULAVI, B.A., Government pensioner and Member, Council of State. *b.* 20 Aug. 1868. *m.* Ayesha Khatun of Calcutta. *Educ.*: Sylhet and Calcutta. Started as a teacher in the Calcutta Madrasah; Assistant Inspector of Schools for Mahomedan education for about 15 years; Inspector of Schools, Chittagong Division, for about five years. *Publications*: History of India for Beginners in English, Bengali, Hindi and Urdu; Students' History of India; The Mahomedan Empire in India in Bengali, Hindi on Method of Teaching in Education in Bengal (English). *Address*: Peace Cottage, Morhabadi, Ranchi.

BRHDANANDA, HIS HOLINESS SREEMAT SWAMI, PH. D. (New York); President, Ramakrishna Vedanta Society, Calcutta, spiritual Teacher, Lecturer and Author. *b.* Oct 2 1848. *Educ.*: Calcutta University. Disciple of Sri Ramakrishna Paramahansa and a spiritual brother of Swami Vivekananda. Went to London, in 1896 to lecture on Hindu Philosophy (Vedanta). In 1897 went to New York, U. S. A. and organised the Vedanta Society of New York. Lectured before educational institutions, societies and universities for twenty-five years in England, America and Canada. Returned to Calcutta in 1921 and established the Ramakrishna Vedanta Society of which he has been President since and also of Ramakrishna Vedanta Ashrama at Darjeeling. *Publications*: Reincarnation; Spiritual Untoldment; Philosophy of Work; How to be a Yogi; Divine Heritage of Man, Self Knowledge; (Atma Jnan) India and her People Gospel of Ramakrishna; Sayings of Ramakrishna; Human Affection and Divine Love; Great Saviours of the World and a number of pamphlets. *Address*: 40, Beadon Street, Calcutta.

CHARYA, M. K., B.A., I.T., M.L.A., Public Worker and Journalist. *b.* 1876. *m.* Rukmani Amal, in 1901. Two sons, Master.

Standard", 1910; independent political worker since 1917. *Publications*: Portraits from Indian Classics, A Hand-Book of Moral, "Kumuda" a drama, "Dasaratha" a tragedy, "Shri-Krishna Karnamita," The Basic Blunder in the reconstruction of Indian Chronology by Orientalists, Cultural Swaraj, elected as a Member to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the Chinglepet *cum* S. Arcot Non-Mahomedan Constituency in 1923, a prominent Member of the Swaraj Party and the Congress. *Address*: 46, Lingha Chetti Street, Madras, E.

ADVANI, MOTIRAM SHOWKIRAM, Kaiser-I-Hind Gold Medal (1919); President, Hyderabad Educational Society. b. 12 October 1868. *m.* Margaret Annesley, *d.* of the late Rev. Charles Voysey. *Educ.*: The Albert School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Barrister (Inner Temple), 1892; Practised in Karachi 1892-1904, Assistant Judge, Hyderabad, 1904; Acted as District Judge, Hyderabad 1905, Permanent District Judge, 1911. Served in Thana, Surat District Judge, Broach 1917-1922 and District Judge, Nasik, until June 1924. *Address*: No. 6, Bungalow, Cantonment, Hyderabad, Sind.

AFSUR-UL-MULK, AFSTR-UD-DOWLA, AFSUR JUNG, MIRZA MAHOMED ALI BEG NAWAB, Lieut.-Col.; K.C.I.E. (1908), C.I.E., (1897); M. V. O. (1906); A.D.C. to Nizam of Hyderabad; Chief Commander, H.E.H. the Nizam's Regular Force 1916; b. Aurangabad (Deccan); o.s. of late Mirza Vilayet Ali Beg. Educ.: Aurangabad Alisaladar, Hyderabad Contingent; Commander, Golconda Brigade, since 1885; Hyderabad Imperial Service Troops, since 1898 (both of these he raised); Commander, Regular Troops, since 1897, Chief Commander since 1916, served in the Afghan War, 1879-1880, Black Mountain Expedition, 1888; China Expedition, 1900; received title of Afsur Jung, 1884; and of Afsur Dowla, 1895; raised to Afsur-ul-Mulk, 1903; Hon. Col., 20th Royal Decan Horse; on Staff, Imperial Service Cavalry Brigade, Indian Expeditionary Force, Egypt 1915; on Staff, Indian Cavalry Corps and A.D.C. to Sir John French, France, 1915-16. Appointed Major-General H. E. H. the Nizam's Regular Troops in 1927. *Address*: Rahut Munzil, Hyderabad (Deccan).

AGA KHAN, AGA SUITAN MAHOMED SHAH G.C.I.E. (1902); G.O.S.I. (1911); G.C.V.O. (1923); K.C.I.E. (1898); LL.D., Hon. Camb. b. 1875; Brilliant Star of Zanzibar, 1890, 1st Class; has many religious followers in East Africa, Central Asia and India; head of Ismail Mahomedans; granted rank and status of first class chief with salute of 21 guns in recognition of loyal services during European War. *Publication*: India in Transition. *Address*: Aga Hall, Bombay.

AGARWALA, LALA GYRDHARILAL, B.A., Vakil. High Court, Allahabad, and Member, Legis. Assembly. b. 16th Feb. 1878. m. sister of Lala Banwari Lal Gupta, B.A., LL.B. Vakil, High Court (Muttra). *Educ.*: *Agra College*, B.S.M. London. Moved resolution in Legislative Assembly re Indian Governors, Chief Justices, etc. 27-9-1921 at Simla and Bill to remove inequalities between Vakils and Barristers. Was Director, Moradabad Spinning and Weaving Mills for 10 yrs., and of Babrala Cotton Gin and Press Co., Ltd., for 8 years; original member, U.P. Chamber of Commerce; Secy., U.P. Hindu Sabha. Elected Member of the Royal Society for encouragement of Arts, Manufacture and Commerce, and of the Royal Asiatic Society, London, in 1909. President Agarwal Seva Samiti (Social Service and Scouting). *Publications*: An Article re use of aircraft during war in "Legitime de la Guerre Aerienne," "Proposed legislation for protection of Cows and improvement of Cattle in India," and *Hindu Homes and Temple in London*. *Address*: 83, George Town, Allahabad.

GA SHAHROOKH SHAH, Nawab Shah Rook Yaq Jung Bahadur (1923). b. 1874, eldest s. of Aga Akbar Shah; g.s. of H. H. the First Aga Khan m. e. d. of Aga Shahabuddin Shah (1897). *Educ.*: English and Persian. Hon. A.D.C. to H. H. the Nizam of Hyderabad 1918; Hon. Private Secretary to H. H. the Aga Khan 1906; President, Poona Suburban Municipality 1925; Chairman, School Board, Poona Suburban Municipality 1927; Founder and President, Servants of Islam Society, Poona 1926; Founder and President, Faiz-ul-Islam Club, Poona, 1926; Vice-President, Faiz-ul-Islam Anjuman, Poona, 1926; Vice-President, Maharashtra Relief Fund for Gujarat and Kathiawar Flood Fund, Poona 1927; Director, Queen's Mary's Technical School for Disabled Indian Soldiers, Kirkee 1923; Member of Committee, Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, Poona, 1926; Hon. Secretary, Lloyd Polo Club Poona, 1928, Member of Committee Released Prisoners, Aid Society, Poona, 1927. *Address*: 11, Connaught Road, Poona.

HMAD, DR. ZIA-UD-DIN, C.I.E., M.A., Ph.D., D.Sc., M.L.C., Pro. Vice-Chancellor. Muslim University, Aligarh. b. 1878. *Educ.*: Aligarh, Trin. Coll., Cambridge. (Sir Isaac Newton Scholar), Göttingen (Ph.D.) and Allahabad (D.Sc.), Member of Calcutta University Comm.; Pro-Vice-Chancellor. *Address*: Muslim University, Aligarh.

HMED HUSSAIN SIB, NAWAB AMIN JUNG BARUR, M.A., B.L., C.S.I. (1911). Nawab (1917); K.C.I.E., (1920); Minister-in-Waiting on H. E. H. the Nizam and Chief Secretary to H. E. H.'s Government. b. 11 Aug. 1868. m. Fatima, Lady Amin Jung. *Educ.*: Christian College and Presidency College, Madras, Governor's Scholar; High Court Vakil, 1890; Deputy Collr. and Magte., 1890-92 Asst. Secretary to the Nizam, 1893 P to Nizam, 896 Ch of to Nizam s. m. 1906

Minister-in-Waiting on Nizam since 1915. *Publications*: "Notes on Islam", articles in Periodicals. *Address*: Amin Munzil Sad bad, Hyderabad, Deccan.

AHMED, KANERUD-DIN, M.L.A., Bar-at-Law and Advocate, Calcutta High Court Landholder. b. 1886. *Educ.*: at the Maida Govt. High English School and at Magdalene College, Cambridge Called to the Bar in 1910; Founder of Bengal Jotedars and Baiyats' Association and its Hon. Secretary takes great interest in agriculture; was elected Presdt., Bengal Agricultural Confee in 1917; Director, Darjeeling Himalayan Tea Co., Ltd., Calcutta; Organiser, Founder and President, Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta elected member, Bengal Legislative Council in 1930; elected member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; 1924-28, re-elected again in 1927 for the Rajshahi Division; Founder of Parliamentary Muslim Party in Indian Legislative Assembly, 1926 and its whip Member, Central National Mahomedan Assoc Calcutta; Member Governing Body of Indian Nationalistic Society Calcutta; Member Democratic Party in Indian Legislature, 19-1 24, Vice-President, Anjuman-e Welaz Bangladesh. *Publications*: Handbook of Equity Roman Law, etc. *Address*: 7 Old Post Office Street, Calcutta; Bishwanathpur, Kumbant P.O. Maida (Bengal).

AHMED, KHAN BARIADUR KAZI AZIZUDDIN C.I.E., O.B.E., I.S.O., Chief Minister, Datta State b. 7 April 1861. Educ.: at Gonda High School Served in the P. C. S., U. P. for 34 years during which time acted as Magte and Collr., Bulandshahr and Asst Director of Agriculture and Commerce, U. P. was on deputation with His Majesty the late Amir of Kabul during his Indian tour, services lent to Bharatpur State in 1910 for employment as Rev. Member of Council of Regency; transferred to Dholpur, 1913 and retired from Govt Service in 1920 but continued to serve His Highness the Maharaja of Dholpur as Judicial Minister; appointed Chief Minister Datta, in 1922. Is Member of the Court of the Delhi University and Aligarh University and Trustee, Agra College and Member, Royal Asiatic Society, London. *Publications*: Author of about 10 books in English and Urdu including life of H. M. King George V. and H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, Commentaries on Criminal Procedure Code and U. P. Land Revenue Act; translated into Urdu at the request of Government of India proceedings of the War Confee., 1919 and History of Coronation Dur bar, 1911. *Address*: Datta.

AHMED, SAYID ASHREFUDDIN, KHAN BAHADUR NAWABZADA, C.I.E., (1925); Member Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council and Vice President, Bihar and Orissa Haj Committee. v 5 Jan. 1855. m. eldest d. of M. Fida Ali Khan of Bihar and Orissa Provincial Civil Service *Educ.*: Calcutta Madrasa and Doveton College Calcutta. Appointed A.D.C. to the last King of Oudh. 1874: Manager of Hooghly Jmambara, 18 5 from latter post in 1917 one of be life t of Aligarh University and Fellow of Calcutta U

Publications: Tuhfat Sukhan, Nauratan, Yadgar Durdana and Tabaqat Mohsinia and several other books in Persian and Urdu. **Address:** Nawab Kothi, Barh, E. I. R. Bly., Patna.

IKMAN, DAVID WANN, C.I.E. (1912), Consulting Engineer to the Cawnpore Improvement Trust, b. 8 December 1863. **Educ.:** Cooper's hill, m. Manon Drummond Stewart. Joined P. W. D., 1885. **Retd., 1918. Publication:** Roorkee treatise on water supply. Consulting Engineer for the Cawnpore Water-Work, etc. **Address:** Charlewile, 2, Simla; and 15, Clyde Road, Lucknow.

AINSCOUGH, THOMAS MARTLAND, C.B.E. (1925), M.Com., F.R.G.S. His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon. b. 1856, m. Mabel, d. of the late W. Lincoln of Ely, Cambs. **Educ.:** Manchester Gr. School, Manchester and Manchester University. In 1911-12, Commissioner of Customs, 4, Sec., 6; Sec., Empire Cotton Growing Committee, 1917; Expert Assnt. to Persian Tariff Revision Commission, 1920. Member of the Royal Asiatic Society, Central Asian Society and Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts. **Publications:** "Notes from a Frontier." **Address:** Beogal Club, Calcutta.

AIYANGAR, CHETTIURU DURAI SWAMI, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Chittoor and Member, Legislative Assembly, b. 1873. **Educ.:** Madras Christian College, and Law Colleges. Schoolmaster for two years, then Vakil from July 1899; occupied offices of President, District Congress Committee, Dist. Conference, etc., President, Taluk Board and Chairman, Municipal Council, Chittoor, for some years. **Publications:** Estates Land Act in Telugu; Sri Venkatesa or the First Archa; Gandhi Unveiled. **Address:** Chittoor.

ALI, A. F. M. ABDUL, M.A. b. 1884. Son of the Nawab Bahadur Abdul Latif Khan, C. I. E. **Educ.:** St. Xavier's, Dacca College, Calcutta. Founder of Moslem Institute, Calcutta, Founder and Editor of the Journal of the Muslim Institute. Joined Bengal Civil Service, 1906; placed on special duty, Political Department, Bengal, as Special Press Censor, Sept. 1918 to March 1919; Police Magte., Alipore, September 1921 to March 1922; Appt. Keeper of the Records of the Govt. of India and *Ex-Officio* Assistant Secretary to the Govt. of India, April 1922. Secretary to the India. Historical Records Commission, Trustee and Honorary Secretary of the Indian Museum; Fellow Calcutta University; Member of the Court of the Dacca University; Member, Executive Committee of the Countess Dufferin Fund. **Address:** 3 Turner Street, Calcutta.

ALI, KHAN BAHADUR MIR ASAD, Merchant Jagirdar and Member, Legis. Assembly, b. August 1876, m. to Leakut-Amba Begum, d. of Nawab Ali Yavar Jung, Bahadur of Hyderabad (Deccan) **Educ.** Coll. Hyderabad.

abad. Hon. Magte., Madras, 1912. Member, Imperial Legis. Council, 1913-20; President Elect., Dist. Political Confee. of Cuddapah, 1916; Presdt. Elect., Dist. Political Confee., Malabar, 1918; Presdt., Provincial Educational Confee., Poona, 1919; Presdt., Madras Presidency Muslim League, 1917-20; Presdt. Elect. of All-India Unani Confee., Delhi, 1917; Presidents. Unani-Ayurvedic Confee., Hyderabad, 1922. **Publications:** "Maasharat," Urdu translation of the *Uss of Life* by Lord Avebury. **Address:** Cosmopolitan Club, Mount Road, Madras.

ALI, MOHAMMAD, b. December 1873. Educ.: Rampur State School; Bareilly High School, M. A. O. Coll., Aligarh; and Lincoln Coll., Oxford, Chief Educational Officer, Rampur (State), (1902-08); H. H. the Gaekwar's Civil Service (1904-1910); Editor and Proprietor of the *Comrade*, weekly English newspaper (Calcutta 1911-12, Delhi 1912-1914) and of the *Hamdard*, Urdu daily newspaper (Delhi) 1913-1915; Interned under the Defence of India Act at Meerut, Lansdowne, and Chhindwara (1915-16); Confined in Betul (C. P.) Jail (June to December 1919) under Regulation III of 1818; Sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment, Nov. 1921, Head of the Indian Khilafat Delegation to Europe (Feb to Oct. 1920); Founded the All-India Muslim League in 1906; Khuddam-i-Kaaba Society in 1913 and the National Muslim University, Aligarh, 1920. **Publication:** "Thoughts on the Present Discontent" (1908). **Address:** Sultan Mansion, Dongri, Bombay.

ALI MAHOMED RAHIMTULLA MECKLAI, J. F., merchant, b. 10th Sept. 1894. First All India President of the Recreation Club Institute, Hon. Secretary to H. H. the Aga Khan, Hon. Major of H. H. the Aga Khan's volunteers Hon. President Magistrate. **Address:** Islam Club Building, Chowpatty, Bombay.

ALI, SHAUKAT. Educ.: M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh (Capt. Cricket XI). In Govt. Opium Dept. for 15 years. Sec. and Organizer, Aligarh Old Boys' Assoc. Trustee, M.A.O. Coll. Organized collection of funds for Aligarh University Interced during the war. Prominent leader of the Khilafat movement, 1919-20, and of Non-co-operation movement. Sec., Central Khilafat Committee. Founder and Secretary of Khuddam-i-Kaaba Society; **Address:** Sultan Mansion, Dongri, Bombay.

ALLEN, BASIL COPELSTON, B.A. (Oxon.); I.C.S. C.S.I. (1922); Commissioner, Assam, b. 12 July 1870. m. Mabel, J. of Sir William Erskine Ward, K.C.S.I. **Educ.:** Haileybury Coll. and C.C.C. Oxford, Ass. Commr. Assam, 1893, Census Superintendent, 1900 Collr. of Dacca, 1905-1907. Secy. to E.B. and Assam Govt., 1909; Chief Secy., Assam 1914; Commissioner, 1920. **Publications:** Report on the Census of Assam, 1901 - Assam G. Gauhati Assam

ALWAR, COLONEL G. H. RAJ RAJESHWAR SRI SHYAM MAHARAJ SIR JY SINGHJI VEERENDRA DEV, SRI MAHARAJ of. G.C.S.I. (1924) G.C.I.E. (1919); K.C.I.E. (1911); K.C.S.I. (1908); Colonel in the British Army 1919; General-in-Chief of the Alwar State Forces; maintains State Forces which served in operations for relief of Peking 1900 and in Great War represented India at the Imperial Conference, 1923 & 1882, Son of H. H. Shri Sewai Maharaj Sir Mangal Singhji Dev G.C.S.I. *Address:* The Palace, Alwar, Rajputana.

ANDERSON, SIR GEORGE, Kt. (1924), C.I.E. (1922), M.A. (Oxon.) Director of Public Instruction, 1920. b. 15 May 1872. *Educ.:* Winchester College, University College, Oxford. Transvaal Educational Department, 1902-1910 Indian Educational Service, Professor of History, Elphinstone College, Bombay; Asst. Secretary, Department of Education, Government of India; Secretary, Calcutta University Commission, 1918-19. *Publications:* The Expansion of British India; British Administration in India; Short History of the British Empire. *Address:* Grant Lodge, Simla.

ANDERSON, MAJOR-GENERAL SIR WARREN HASTINGS, O.B. (1918); K.C.B. (1922); 1st Class orders of Aviz and Christ (Portugal); 1st and 2nd class Order of St. Stanislaus (Russia) with swords, Officer Legion of Honor and Croix de Guerra with Palm (France), 2nd class Order of Sacred Treasure (Japan); G.O.C., Baluchistan, District Quetta, b. 9 Jan. 1872. m. Eileen d. of Hamilton Osborne. Lsq. of 55, Cadogan Place, London. *Educ.:* Marlborough and Sandhurst. Cheshire Regiment 1890; Captain 1899; Brevet Major 1910; Brevet Lt.-Col. 1915; Brevet Col. 1916; Major-General 1917; Commandant, Staff College, Camberley 1919-1922; Chief Staff Officer, Allied Forces in Turkey 1922-1923; D. Q. M. G., Army Headquarters, Simla, 1923-24. *Publications:* Outline of Development of British Army; History of Cheshire Regiment. *Address:* Headquarters House, Quetta.

ANDREWS, CHARLES FREDERICK, Professor in the International University of Rabindranath Tagore at Santiniketan, Bengal. b. 12 February 1871. Educ.: King Edward's School, Birmingham and Pembroke College, Cambridge. Fellow and Lecturer of Pembroke College, Cambridge. Professor of Economics, Fellow and some time member of Syndicate, Punjab University from 1904 to 1913; since that date at Santiniketan, Bengal. *Publications:* "Christianity and the Labour Problem," "North India," "The Renaissance in India," "Christ and Labour," "The Indian Problem," "Indians in South Africa," "To the Students," "The Drink and Drug Problem." *Correspondent, M. Cape Argus Natal* *Guardian Address* etan Bolpur Bengal

ANAGARICA DHARMAPALA, The Teacher and Preacher of Buddhist Ethics and Higher Psychology, General Secretary, Maha-Bodhi Society, Editor, Maha-Bodhi Director-General Buddhist Mission in England, b. Sept. 17 1864 Leading a Brahmachari life since his boyhood. Several private schools in Ceylon; under Christian missionaries and under Buddhist Bhikkhus. Renounced home in his 20th year to work for the welfare of humanity and the Religion of the Lord Buddha. Started the Maha Bodhi Society in May 1891. Head quarters at Buddhagaya, Gaya, Saranath Benares, Calcutta, Colombo, Rangoon, and London. Travelled four times round the world. Was Buddhist special Delegate at the Chicago Parliament of Religions in 1893. Elected the first Buddhist, Dharmasala at Buddhagaya and the first Buddhist Vihara in Calcutta, and is now engaged in the Buddhist Propaganda in London. Started the English Maha Bodhi and the Sinhalese weekly the Sinhala Baudhay a popular democratic paper. *Publications:* Life of the Lord Buddha. What did the Lord Buddha teach. Psychology of Progress. Repeating God of Home Relationship between the Arya Dharm Road, Baling, L. Square, Calcutta; and Alce Avenue, Colcutty Colombo.

ANGLIKER, JT-COL, AMIR-UL-UMRA SARDAR SIR APPAJIRAO SAHIB STOLHDESHMUKH, SHRI HARDOO, SAK-SHRI, K.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1913); Member of the Gwalior Government in Department of Revenue and Agriculture since 1918. b. 1874. *Educ.* Belgium. Pte. Secretary to the Maharajah of Gwalior, 1897. m. the youngest daughter of the late Maharajah Jayjirao Sahib Scindia of Gwalior. *Address:* Gwalior.

ANNESLEY, FRANCIS CHARLES, Merchant Partner, Killick Nixon & Co., Bombay b. 8 March 1879. Educ. at Birkenhead School (Cheshire). Joined firm of Killick Nixon of Bombay in 1906 after being engaged in various firms in Liverpool and London from 1896 to 1902 when came out to Bombay to the firm of James MacIntosh & Co. *Address:* Park Hill, Bandra, Bombay.

ANSTEAD, RUDOLPH-DAVID, M.A. (Cambridge) C.I.E. (1927), Director of Agriculture Madras Presidency, b. 1875. m. Louisa Loring. *Educ.:* Giggleswick School and Christ's College, Cambridge. In 1901 joined the Imperial Department of Agriculture in the West Indies as Research; Chemist, 1907-5, Sugar Chemist Barbados, 1905-9, Superintendent of Agriculture, Grenada 1909 transferred to Indian Service as Scientific Adviser to the United Planters' Association of South India. In 1922 became Director of Agriculture. *Publications:* Various in Scientific and other Journals. *Address:* 21, Nungumbankam High Road, Madras.

AROOT PRINCE OF, SIR CHULAN MA PALI MAHARAJ G.C.I.E. (1917) K.C.I.E. (1909) b. 22 Feb 1882. Address

1903. Premier Mahomedan nobleman of Southern India, being descended from the former Mussulman dynasty of the Nawabs of the Karnatik. *Educ.*: Newington Court of Waris Institution, Madras. Member of Madras Legislative Council. 1898-1903. Member of the Madras Legislative Council by nomination, 1918; President, All-India Muslim Association, Lahore; President, South India Islamiah League, Madras. *Address*: Amir Mahal, Madras.

AROGYASWAMI MOGALIAR, The Hon. Diwan BAHADUR BAYAPURAM MAILAYETIRAN, B.A., B.C.E., Rao Bahadur, (1915) and Diwan Bahadur (1925); Minister for Public Health and Excise, b. 18 April 1870. *Educ.*: Madras Christian College and College of Engineering, Madras. Entered service under Madras Government as Asstt. Engineer in 1896 and retired as Superintending Engineer in 1925. *Address*: Leith Castle, San Thome, Mylapore.

ASH, HERBERT DUDLEY, A.M.I.E.E., Director, Turner Hoare & Co., Ltd., b. 1879 m. Madeline Edith Ash. *Educ.*: Haileybury College. Attached 29th Lancers 1914-17; Staff Captain Indian Cav. Brigade, 1917-19. Twice mentioned in despatches. *Address*: Lyo Turner Horse and Co., Ltd., Bombay.

ASTBURY ARTHUR RAPER, C.I.E. (1925). Chief Engineer Buildings and Roads Branch, Punjab P. W. D., and Secretary to Government Buildings and Roads and Hydro-Electric Branches, b. 5th June 1880 m. b. Minister and the Royal College, Lahore and Forentium Cottage, Simla, E.

ASTON, ARTHUR HENRY SOUTHCOTE, M.A. (Oxon). Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind, b. 4 July 1874. m. to Lilian, d. of the late Col. A. R. Savile. *Educ.*: Harrow School, Balliol College, Oxford. Joined Lincoln's Inn; called to the Bar; read in Chambers with H. Tindal Atkinson, Esq., and G. B. Lowndes, Esq., practised as a Barrister, Bombay High Court, 1902; Public Prosecutor in Sind, 1906; Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay, 1908; Acting Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind, 1920-22. *Publications*: Joint Editor, *Stratton's Indian Criminal Law* (8th Edition); Editor (9th Edition). *Address*: The Ridge, Bath Islands, Karachi.

THINSON, LIEUT. GENERAL SIR EDWIN HENRY DE VEE, K.B.E. (1921); C.B. (1918); C.M.G. (1917); C.I.E. (1913); Belgian Order of the Crown, 3rd Class; Belgian War Cross; Legion of Honour, 3rd Class; French War Cross; Military Order of Avis (Grand Officer); K. E. b. 18 Feb. 1867. d. of late E. F. T. Atkinson C.I.E., I.C.S. m. 1886, Mabel, d. of H. Steward, Winton House, Richmond, Surrey. one s. three d. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. Obtained commission in the Royal Engineers, 1885; Capt. 1895.

Major 1903; Lt.-Col. 1910; Col., 1914; Brig. Gen., 1916; Maj.-Gen., 1919; served in Lushai Expedition, 1889; Chin-Lushai Expedition, 1889-90; Kach Valley Expedition, 1890. Inspector in Portification at the R.M.A. Woolwich 1896-99, Principal, Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, 1901-15; European War (O.R.E. 33rd Division, France; Chief Engineer, 1st Army Corps, British Armies in France; (Chief Engineer, 1st Army, British Armies in France), 1915-19; Mesopotamia (Chief Engineer, G.H.Q.; G.O.C. 6th Division (temp.); Advisor to Minister of Communications and Works, Iraq Government) 1919-21. Director of Military Works, and Engineer-in-Chief, India, 1921-21, Master-General of Supply 1924. *Address*: Army Headquarters, India, Simla.

BABER, SHUW SHREY JANG BAHADOOR, Raja, General of the (Hon.Mil.) cr. 1819; K.C.I.E. (Hon.) cr. British Army (1927). b. 27 January 1858; 2nd s of Maharaja Sir Chandra of Nepal. m. 1903, Deva Vajita Lakshmi Devi; 2 s. 2 d. Director-General, Police Force, Katmandu, since 1903; was present at the Delhi Coronation Durbar, 1903; visited Europe, 1903; was in charge of shooting arrangements during King George's shoot in Nepal, Terai, 1911; attached to the Army Headquarters 1912 (March 1915 to February 1916) General of Nepalese during the Great War. b. 1916; thanks of Command K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., &c. received the 1st class Order of the Star of Nepal with the title of Supradipta Manyabara, 1918; the thanks of the Nepalese Government and a Sword of Honour; European War (Warranted Field Force, 1917) Despatches; special mention by Commander-in-Chief in India and Governor-General in Council; the Nepalese Military Decoration for bravery; the British War and Victory Medals; at Army Headquarters, Nepalese Con- (Despatches Medal with Clasp). Represented Nepal at the Northern Command Manoeuvres (Attack, Nov. 1925). In memory of his son Bale Shum Shere supplied (1921) Pokhara a hill-station in Nepal, with pipe drinking water at a cost of over Rs. 1,00,000. *Address*: Baber Mahal, Katmandu, Nepal, via India.

BAGCHI, SATISCHANDRA, B.A., LL.D., Bar-at-Law; Principal, University Law College, Calcutta, b. Jan. 1882. *Educ.*: Santipur Municipal School, Calcutta; St. John's College, Cambridge, B.A., Calcutta University, 1901; B.A., LL.B., Cambridge and Dublin; LL.D., Trinity College, Dublin, 1907; Fellow, Calcutta University, 1909; Tagore Professor of Law, 1915; called to Bar, Gray's Inn, 1907. *Address*: Principal's Quarters, Darbhanga Buildings, University Law College, Calcutta.

BAIG, SIR ABBAS ALI, K.C.I.E. (1917), C.S.I., (1912), B.A., LL.D., Fellow of the

Who's Who in India.

by University of Aligarh, of Shahkhalid of Wai (died), one s 2nd 1901, Aligarh, d. hakh Ali Abdullah & s. Educ.: Wilson College Bombay Presidency. 1882; an Janyia State. March 1896 to ch 1899; admitted to the Statutory Service 1899; Asstt. Coll. and Magte., 192 on special duty in the Junagadh e January to April 1893; offd. as 4th adency Magte., April 1893; appointed ntal Translator to Government, June 3; Reporter on the Native Press; istrar of Indian Publications; Secretary, and Mil. Examination Boards, 1894-1906, ointed Dewan of Junagadh State, July to 1910; Talukdari Settlement Officer, 7 1906; Member of the Council of a, June 1910-17; LL.D., Glasgow, 1912; missioner of Income-tax, 1915-17; Reprer- ted Bombay Univ. at the Congress of nstries of Empire, 1912; on Special tical duty in Egypt in connection with war, 1914-15; Vice-President, Council ndia 1916-17. Address: The Paragon, ton Bristol, England, and National Liberal b, London.

AI, GIRA SHANKAR, B.A. (Oxon); B.Sc. lahahad; O.D.E. (Ovib), 1922, O.J.D. 5 y 1926; I.C.S., Deputy Secretary to the vernment of India, Department of Edu- tion Health and Lands, b 3 April 1891. uc Muir Central College, Allahabad and rton College, Oxford. Appointed to the S in November 1915; Asstt. Magistrate i Collector, United Provinces, 1915-1919; nder Secretary to Government, United ovinces, 1920-21; Private Secretary to the Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri and Secretary India at Imperial Conference, 1921; and at nference for Limitation of Armaments, ashington, 1921-22; on deputation to the minions of Canada, Australia, and New aland to investigate the status of Indians adent in those territories, 1922; Under- cretary to the Government of India. Dept. Education, Health and Lands, 1923; officia- ng Deputy Secretary to the Government of idia Department of Education, Health and ands 1924; Secretary to the Indian depu- tion to South Africa, 1925-26; Deputy Secre- ry to the Government of India, June 1926. ddress: Pentland, Simla.

PAI, PANDIT SANKATA PRASADA, Ra- ahadur, B.A., Zemindar and Banker b. ov 18, 1888. m. Shrimati Sumitra Devi. duc, Canning College, Lucknow; Ewing ristian College, Allahabad and University hool of Law, Allahabad. Elected Member, nares Hindu University in 1917; Elected on Secy., Kheri Dist. Board, 1918; Ap- ointed Hon. Magistrate, 1915; Elected Chair- an Lakhimpur Municipality, 1919, and mber of the Imperial Legislative Assembly, 1920 Address: Lakhimpore, Kheri (Oudh).

LR, JOHN ALFRED, C.I.E., Chief Engineer W D Central Provinces b 4 May 1882. Doron y Auction Educ Roy's College, Cooper's Hill

Government Service since 1904. Address Nagpur, C.P.

RAIKRISHNA, DR., M.A., Ph. D., F.S.S. F.R.E.S., Principal and Prof. of Economics Bajaram College and Inspector of Secondary Education, Kolhapur, b 22nd December 1882 m. Miss Dayalmai Malsey, B. P. N. A Educ: Govt. High School, Multan, D. A. V College and Government College, Lahore School of Economics and Politics, London. Was Principal and Governor of Gurukula University, Hardwar, for one year; Vice-Principal for six years and Professor of History and Economics for 11 years. Became Princi- pal, Bajaram College, 1922. Director of Economic Bureau; President, Kolhapur Econ- Association; Director, Rent-Assessment Bureau; Chairman, Secondary Teachers Association; President, Technical School Col. Wodehouse Orphanage, A. V. Bree School Member, State Panchayat and Kolhapur Municipality. Publications (in English) Commercial Relations between India and England (1924); The Industrial Decline in India; Demands of Democracy (1925); (in Hindi) Seven books on History, Economics Politics and Religion. Address: Shahpur Kolhapur.

BALRAMPUR, MAHARAJA PATESHWARI FRA SAD SINGER SAHEB, minor under guardianship of the Court of Wards, United Provin- ces. b 2 Jan 1914. Address: Bulrampur.

BANATVALA, COL. SIR HORMASJEE "BOUTER" Kt. (1920); C.S.I., 1917; I.M.S. (ret'd.), b 20 Oct. 1860. First Commission, 1884; military duty until 1893; served Burma 1898-80 Medal with 2 clasps, Lushai Expedition, 1901-92; Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons, Assam, 1914-19. Address Mount Villas, Bandra, Bombay.

BANERJEE, MAHENDRANATH, C.I.E. (1921). B A (Cal.), M.B. C.S. (England), L.S.A. (London) Princ., Carmichael Medical Coll., Calcutta since 1916. b. Sept. 1856. Educ.: Presy. Coll St. Xavier's Coll., and Medical Coll., Calcutta Edinburgh Univ., and King's Coll. London Resident Medical Officer, R. Free Hospital London. 1883-85; Lecturer of Medicine, Calcutta Med. Sch., 1890-1915; Additional member, Imp. Leg. Council, 1916; Senior Physician, Albert Victor Hospital, 1900-19 Consulting Physician since 1919. Member of the State Med. Faculty of Bengal; Fellow and Member of Senate of Calcutta Univ. Member of Sanitary Conference, Simla, 1919, President, Ayurvedic Committee lately appointed by Government of Bengal Address: 32, Theatre Road, Calcutta.

BANERJI, SIR ALBION RAJKUMAR, Kt. (1925), I.C.S., C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. (1911), Senior and Foreign Minister to H. H. the Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir, March 1927. b. Bristol 10 Oct. 1871, m. 1898. d. of Sir Krishna Gupta. Educ.: Calcutta University, Balliol College Oxford M.A. 1892. Entered C.B. 89, served as district officer in the Madras Presidency. Divan to H. H. the

Maharaja of Cooch Behar 90-14. *td to* British service, 1915; Collector and District Magistrate, Cuddapah; services placed at the disposal of Government of India, Foreign Department, for employment as Member of the Executive Council of H.H. the Maharaja of Mysore, March 1916. Officiated as Dewan of Mysore, 1919. Retired from the I.C.S. Diwan of Mysore, 1922-26. Awarded I Class title "Rajamantradhurina" of Gandabherunda Order, with Khillats by H. H. The Maharaja in open Durbar, Oct. 1923. *Address:* Srinagar Club, Srinagar, Kashmir.

BANERJI, Sukumar, R.A., Assistant Commissioner of Police in charge of North Suburbs, Calcutta. *b.* 5 October 1880. *m.* to Sulmasi, eldest *d.* of late Kumar Satyewar Ghosal of Bhukailas Raj. *Educ:* St. Xavier's College, Calcutta. Law class, Government College, Krishnagar; Bengal Police Training School; obtained First Prize in Law in the Final Examination of the Police Training School. Joined Calcutta Police in 1902; has been on several occasions especially mentioned in the Annual Administration Reports of the Calcutta Police. *Address:* Police Headquarters, Lal Bazaar, Calcutta.

BATTISTA, JOSEPH, Bar-at-Law. *b.* 17 March 1864. *Educ:* St. Mary's School, Bombay, Coll. of Science, Poona; Cambridge University. L.C.E. (Bom.), B.A. and LL.B. (Cantab.); has taken a prominent part in the Indian Home Rule and labour movements. Delegate to the Labour Conference, Geneva, 1924. President, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1925. *Publications:* Lectures on Roman Law, Government Law School, Bombay; Commercial Laws of the World (Indian) Section. *Address:* Matharpacady, Bombay.

BARIA, CAPTAIN (HON.) HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI SIR RANGITSINGHJI, RAJA OF; K.C.S.I. (1922). *b.* 10 July 1886; two *s.* one *d.* *Educ:* Rajkumar College, Rajkot; Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra Dun, and in England. Served in European War, 1914-15 and in the Afghan War, 1919. Receives a salute of eleven guns. *Address:* Dergad, Barua, via Piprod (B. B. & C. I. Ry.)

BARNARDO, FREDERICK ADOLPHUS FLEMING, C.I.E., C.B.E., M.A., B.Sc., M.D., M.R.C.P., F.R.C.S. (Edinburgh), Colonel, Indian Medical Service. Principal, Medical College, Calcutta, and Professor of Medicine; Superintendent, Medical College Hospitals; Fellow of the Calcutta University. *b.* 4 June 1874. *s.* of the late George Charles Ferdinand Barnardo. *m.* 1910, Violet Kathleen Ann, *d.* of the late Henry Teviot Kerr, of Monteviot, Darjeeling. *Educ:* Edinburgh University (M.A., B.Sc.), M.B., 1899, F.R.C.S., 1912, M.R.C.P., 1913. Resident Surgeon, Simpson Memorial Hospital, Edinburgh, 1899, Resident Surgeon, Victoria Hospital for Children, Stepney, 1899. Rifle and Forfar Light Horse. Served S. Africa, 1900-2 and Civil Surgeon (Queen's Medal with three clasps; King's Medal with two clasps), late Surgeon Captain, 2nd Country of London Yeomanry, King's Coronation, 1902. Served Somaliland 1903-4 (medal with two clasps).

Fn d Indian M.d.a. Sci., I. u. 1900. Capt., 1905; Major, 1913; Brevet Lt. Col., 1915; and Col., 1917. Hon. Magte. and Justice of the Peace, Bombay, 1916, Ag Asstt. Commissioner and Dist. Surgeon, St. John Ambulance Brigade, 1916, Hon. Associate, St. John Ambulance Association, 1917. Assistant Director of Medical Services (Embarkation); Bombay, 1917; served Mesopotamia (1916); East Africa (1917); and Afghanistan (1918); mentioned in Despatches Assistant Director of Medical Services (Distribution), A. H. Q., Simla, 1918-19; Civil Surgeon, Simla, 1920-21. *Publications:* Many Contributions to Medical Literature. *Address:* Medical College, Calcutta.

BARNE, REV. GEORGE DUNSTON, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1923), O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1923); Principal, Lawrence Royal Military School, Sanawar; and Chaplain, Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment. *b.* May 6, 1879. *m.* Dorothy Kate Akerman. *Educ:* Clifton College and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Asstt. Master, Summerfields, Oxford, 1902-08. Curate of Christ Church, Simla, 1908-10, Chaplain of Sialkot, 1910; Chaplain of Hyderabad, Sind, 1911; and Asstt. Chaplain of Karachi, 1911-12. *Address:* Sanawar, Simla Hills.

BARNES, HERBERT CHARLES, C.I.E. (1919), Indian Civil Service. *b.* 30 May 1870. *Educ:* Westminster School, Christ Church, Oxford. M.A. *Address:* Gaubati, Assam.

BARODA, H.H. MAHARAJA GAEKWAR SIR SAYAJI RAO III., G.C.S.I. (1881); G.C.I.E. (1919), LL.D. *b.* 10 March 1863. *m.* 1st., 1881, Chinnabai Maharani of the house of Tanjore; 2nd 1885, Chinnabai Maharani II., O.I.; 3rd *s.* of Whom 1. *s.* 1 *d.* Surive. *Educ:* Maharaja's School, Baroda. Succeeded, 1875. Invested with powers, 1881. *Publications:* "Famine Notes" and "From Caesar to Sultan." *Address:* Baroda.

BARRON, CLAUD ALEXANDER, C.S.I. (1921); C.I.E. (1911); C.V.O. (1922); F.R.G.S., Financial Commissioner, Punjab, since 1924, *b.* 22 December 1871. *s.* of Col. W. Barron, B.S.C. *m.* 1912, Ida Mary *s.* *d.* of Major General Sir R. H. Ewart, K.C.M.G., O.B. one *s.* *Educ:* Grammar School and University, Aberdeen; Clare College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1890; Chief Secretary, Punjab Government, 1912-16; Chief Commissioner, Delhi, 1918-24. *Address:* Lahore.

BARROW, GENERAL SIR GEORGE de SYMONS, K. O.B., cr 1919 K.C.M.G., cr 1918; C.B., 1915, A.D.C. General to the King 1923. G.O.C. Eastern Command (1923). *b.* 25 October 1864. *m.* 1902, Sybil, *d.* of late Colonel G. Way, O.B. Entered Army, Connaught Rangers, 1884, Indian Staff Corps, 1886; D.A.Q.M.G., India, 1903; D.A.A.G., Staff College, 1908; General Staff Officer, 1914; served Waziristan, 1894-5, China, 1900 (medal with clasp); European War 1914-18 (despatches C.B., promoted Maj. General), including capture of Jerusalem (K.C.M.G., K.C.B.); Commander Legion of Honour, 1917. Order of the Nile, 1918. Afghan War

1919. G.O.C., Peshawar Dist. until 1922. A. G. in India (1922). *Address:* Eastern Command Headquarters, Naini Tal.
- BARTHE, RT. REV. JEAN MARIE;** Bishop of Patna since 1914. *b.* Lezignan, Tarbes, 1849. *Educ.:* St. Pe. Seminary, Bishop of Trichinopoly, 1890-1914. *Address:* Sacmaganur, Madras Presidency.
- BARTON, SIR WILLIAM FRET, Kt** (1927; C.I.E. (1914), G.S.I. (1920); I.O.S.; Resident in Hyderabad. *m.* Evelyn Agnes Hexter Smith, *d.* of J. H. T. Borker Smith, Esq., of Stads, Bedford, N. Devon. *Educ.:* Bedford, Worcester College, Oxford; Univ. Coll., London. Appointed to the I. C. S. in 1894; served in the Punjab and on the Afghan Frontier; Joined the Political Department in 1926. Held among other appointments those of Political Agent, Kurram and Malakand, Deputy Commissioner of Dera Ismail Khan and Kohat, Revenue Commissioner and Judicial Commissioner. Served during the Afghan War of 1919. Transferred to Baroda as Resident in Aug. 1919 and to Mysore as Resident in 1920. Became Resident of Hyderabad in July 1926. *Address:* The Residency, Hyderabad, Deccan.
- SARUA, RAJ BAHADUR DEVICHARAN, B.A., B.L., M.L.A.,** Tea Planter. *b.* 1864. *Educ.:* City College, Presidency College and the General Assembly's Institution, Calcutta. Joined the Bar in 1888 and taking to tea plantation and having acquired 3 tea gardens at Jorhat retired from the Bar in 1917; Secretary, Jorhat Sarva Janik Sabha for nearly 17 years since 1890. Elected member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921; Hon. Magistrate, Jorhat Bench. *Address:* Jorhat, Assam.
- BATLEY, CLAUDE, A.B.I.R.A.,** Professor of Architecture, Bombay School of Art, also Member of Messrs. Gregson, Batley and King, Chartered Architects. *b.* Oct. 1874. *Educ.:* at Queen Elizabeth's School, Ipswich. Articled in Ipswich. Practised in Kettering, Northants and in London up to 1913 and in Bombay thereafter. *Publications:* 'Sundry articles and papers both in England and India on architectural subjects. *Address:* School of Art, or Chartered Bank Building, Bombay.
- BAUGH, COLONEL CHARLES,** Territorial Commander, Northern Territory. Served in Great Britain and India. *Address:* Ferozepur Road, Lahore.
- BILDI RAJA, SIR BABA GURBUXSH SINGH, Kt.** *or* 1918; K.B.E. (1920) C.I.E., 1911; Hon. Extra Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab. *b.* 1861. A Fellow of the Punjab and Hindu Universities; was a delegate to the Indo-Afghan Peace Conference in 1919. *Address:* Kallar, Punjab.
- BILL ROBERT DUNCAN, C.I.E.** (1919), Secretary to Government of Bombay, Development Department. *b.* 8 May 1878. *Educ.:* Heriot's School, Edinburgh, and Edinburgh University. *m.* Jessie, *d.* of D. Spence, Esq. Ap. C.S. Bombay 90. Secretary Indian Industrial
- 1916-17, Controller, Industrial Intelligence 1917-18, Controller, Oils and Paints, 1918-19 Director of Industries, Bombay, 1919-24. *Address:* C/o Grindley & Co., Bombay.
- BETVALKAR, SHREPAD KRISHNA, M.A., Ph.D.** (Harvard Univ.), I.L.S., Professor of Sanskrit: Deccan College, Poona. *b.* 11 Dec. 1881. *Educ.:* Rajwade College, Kolhapur and Deccan College, Poona and at Harvard, USA. Joined Bombay Educational Department 1907. Prof., Deccan College since 1914; one of the principal founders of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute and at present its Hon. Secretary. Also Hon. Secretary, Poona Sanskrit College Working Committee. *Publications:* History of Systems of Sanskrit Grammar: Edition and translation of Bhavabhuti's "Later History of Rame" in the Harvard Oriental Series; English translation of Kavyadarsa; Critical edition of Brahmasut rahasya with Notes and translation; and several papers contributed to Oriental Journals or presented to the Oriental Conferences etc. *Address:* "Dhivakunja," Bhamburda Poona.
- BENARES, H. H. SIR PRABHU NARAYAN SINGH, MAHARAJA BAHADUR OF, LT.-COL. I.L.D., G.C.I.E. (1898), G.O.S.I. (1921)** *b.* 26 November 1855. *S.* until 1889. *Address:* Fort, Ramnagar, Benares State.
- BENJAMIN, Ven. T. Kuruvilla, B.A., Arch.** deacon of Kottayam since July 1922. Formerly Incumbent of Pro-Cathedral, Kottayam 1895-1922; Acting Principal, C.N.I., Kottayam, 1912-13, surrogate, 1922. Bishop's Commissary, 1923. *Publications:* (In Malayalam) Notes on the Epistles to the Hebrews. Notes on the Epistles to the Thessalonians. Devotional Study of the Bible. Editor of Treasury of Knowledge Family Friend. *Address:* Kottayam.
- BIANNETT, GEORGE ERNEST, M.Sc., M. Inst. C.E., M.I.M.E.,** Deputy Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust *est.* 1884. *m.* Frances Sophia Bennett. *Educ.:* Stockport Grammar School, Manchester University. Assistant Engineer (Bridges), G.I.P. 1910-1916. Port Engineer, Chittagong, 1916-1919; Lx Engineer, Calcutta Port Trust, 1919-24. Senior Executive Engineer, Calcutta Port Trust, 1924-26; Deputy Chief Engineer Bombay Port Trust, 1926. *Address:* Bombay Port Trust, Bombay.
- BENZIGER, RT. REV. ALOYSIUS MARY, O.C.D.,** Bishop of Quilon since 1906; *b.* Einsiedeln Switzerland, 1864. *Educ.:* Frankfurt, Brussels; Downsides. Came to India, 1890. Bishop of Tabac, 1900; *Address:* Bishop's House, Quilon, Travancore.
- BERKELEY-HILL, LT.-COL. OWEN ALFRED ROWLAND, M.A., M.D., Ch.B. (Oxon.), M.R. C.S. (Eng.), L.R.C.P. (London),** Medical Superintendent, European Mental Hospital, Ranchi. *b.* 22 Dec. 1879. *m.* Kathu many *d.* of Nellay Ramotti. *Educ.:* at Rugby School, Universities of Oxford and Göttingen and University College Hospital, London. *Entered Medical* in 1907. *Great War* East Africa

Campaign; Mentioned in Despatches. *Publications*: Numerous articles in scientific journals. *Address*: Kanke (P.O.), Ranchi, Bihar and Orissa.

ERFHOUD, EDWARD HENRY, B.A. (Oxon), 1898; Member, Council of State and Commissioner of Excise and Inspector-General of Registration, Bihar and Orissa. *b* 13 Sept. 1876 *m*. Phyllis Hamilton Cox. *Educ.* at Uppingham and New College, Oxford. *Asstt. Magte.*, Joint Magte. and Magte. and Collector in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa since 1900. *Address*: Patna.

BESANT, ANNIE; President, Theosophical Society and of National Home Rule League; author and lecturer on religious, philosophical, political, and scientific subjects. General Secretary, Indian National Convention, *b* 1 October 1847; *d.* of William Page Wood and Emily, *d.* of James Morris; *m.* 1867. Rev. Frank Besant (*d.* 1917), Vicar of Sibsey, Lincolnshire; legally separated from him, 1873; one's one *d. Educ.* privately in England, Germany, France; Joined the National Secular Society, 1874; worked in the Free Thought and Radical Movements led by Charles Bradlaugh, M.P.; was co-editor with him of the National Reformer, Member of the Fabian Society, Member of the London School Board, 1887-90; Joined the Theosophical Society in 1889; became a pupil of Mme. Blavatsky; elected its President in 1907, 1914 and 1921. Founded 1898 the Central Hindu College at Benares; 1904, the Central Hindu Girls' School Benares; is on Court Council and Senate of Benares Hindu Univ., and on Council and Senate of the National University; given Hon. D. L., Benares Hindu University, 1921. In recognition of unique services; Elected President of the Indian National Congress, 1917-18. Editor of *The Theosophist*, monthly; *The Adyar Bulletin*, monthly, and Editor of *New India*, daily and weekly. *Address*: Adyar, Madras.

SHABHA, HORMASJI JHANGOR, M.A., J.P., C.I.E., Hon. Pres. Magte., Director of Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co.; Member of Council of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. Member of Committee of David Sassoon Reformatory Institution, Fellow of the Bombay and Mysore Universities. Deputed as a delegate to the Congress of Imperial Universities 1926 by the Universities of Bombay and Mysore. *b* 27 June 1852. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College and in England. *Asstt. Professor*, Elphinstone College, 1874-76; *Vice-Principal* and *Professor* of Logic and Ethics, Central College, Bangalore. 1876; *Principal*, Maharaja's College, Mysore, 1884; *Education Secretary* to Government, Mysore, 1890; *Inspector-General*, Education, Mysore, 1895-1909; *Munir-ul-Talim* (Mysore) 1909. *Publications*: Special Report on Manual Training in Schools of General Education, Report on the Education of Parsi Boys, 1926, and a Visit to Australian Universities, 1923. *Address*: 39, Pedder Road, Bombay.

BHABHUN SINGHJI BAHADUR, COLONEL, MAHARAJA SRI SIVA K. S.I. Vice-P of Council of State. *b* 6th

September 1879. *Educ.* Mayo College Ajmer, Appointed Companion to H.H. the Maharaja 1895 and accompanied His Highness in his Indian Tour in 1896. Appointed Member of State Council, 1898 and was from time to time Personal Secretary to His Highness. Senior Member of Council and Secretary for Foreign and Political Department, Mahkma Khas, Foreign Member of Council, Political Member; Vice-President of State Council and the last Cabinet. Is Col. of the Sadul Light Infantry and Personal A. D. C. to the Maharaja. *Publications*: Bhairavbilas and Rasbinod. *Address*: Bikaner.

BHANDARI, SIR GOPAL DAS, Kt., RAI BAHADUR (1907); Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1915); M.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1921), M.L.C. (1924); Advocate, High Court; *b* June 1859. *Educ.* Government College, Lahore, Elected Member, Amritsar Municipal Committee, 1889-1902. Nominated member, 1902, to the present date. Chairman, Finance Committee for 30 years. First non-official President, Municipal Com., elected March 1921; elected second time June 1922. Member, Sanitary Board, Punjab, 11 years. Member, All-India Sanitary Conferences Punjab, Madras, and Lucknow. Special Commr. twice; Lahore Conspiracy cases, 1916-17. Member, Imperial Police Selection Board, October 1922. President, Hindu Sabha, Amritsar; His Majesty's Guest, Delhi Durbar 1911; Member, Executive Committee, D.A.V. College, Lahore, Chairman, Board of Directors Punjab National Bank; Member and Punjab representative, Imperial Malaria Conference, September 1908. President, Managing Council, Hindu College, Amritsar; Provincial Durbar, 1912-13; elected for the third time President, Municipal Committee, Amritsar, May 1925. *Publications*: Malaria Booklet, 1908; Town-planning; Milk; Sanitary Conditions in boys' and girls' schools in India, etc. *Address*: President, Municipal Committee, Amritsar.

BHARATPUR, MAHARAJA OF, Lt.-Col. H.H. SRI MAHARAJA BRIJENDRA SAWAI SRI KISHEN SINGH BAHADUR, BAHADUR JUNG, K.C.S.I., b 4 October 1849. *s.* of Maharaja Ram Singh, *m.* sis. of H. H. the Raja of Faridkot. *Educ.* Mayo College, Ajmer and Wellington. *Address*: Bharatpur, Rajputana.

BHARGAVA, RAI BAHADUR, PANDIT JAWAHAR LAL, B.A., LL.B., Advocate, High Court, Lahore *b* 1st Oct. 1870. *m.* *d.* of L. Madan Lal, Bhargava of Rewari. *Educ.* Sirsa M.B. School, Rewari M. B. School, Lahore Mission Coll., Lahore Government Coll. and Law School. President, Bar Assocn., Hissar; got Durbar Medal and War Loan Band, acted as Secretary, India War Relief Fund, The Aeroplane Fleet Fund, King Edward Memorial Fund, was elected member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1916-20; and Legislative Assembly, 1921-23. Life member, St. John Ambulance Association and Chairman, District Centre at Hissar. *Address*: Hissar (Punjab).

BHATE, GOVIND CHIMNAJI, M.A. (Bom.) Professor and Principal, Willingdon College. *b* 19 Sept. 1870. Widower. *Educ.*: Deccan College, Prof. in Y. College, Poona, from 88. *Publications*: Principles

of Economics, Distant Travels, Lectures on Sociology, Carlyle, Three Philosophers, Philosophy of the Fine Arts. (All in Marathi.) Address: Willington College, Sangli, Satara.

HAVERNAGAR, H. H. MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SINGHI, MAHARAJA OF; b. 19th May 1912, s. father Lt.-Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji Takhtasinhji, K.O.S.I., July 1919. Educ.: Harrow, England. Address: Bhavnagar, Kathiawar.

HOPAL, H. H. NAWAB SULTAN JEHAN BEGUM, BEGUM OF, C.I. cr. 1911; G.C.S.I., cr. 1910, G.C.I.E., cr. 1904; G.B.E., cr. 1918, b. 9 July 1858; s. mother, H. H. Nawab Shah Jehan Begum, G.C.S.I., C.I. 1901; m. 1874, Ahmed Ali Khan, two s. Eight in lineal descent from the famous Dost Mahomed Khan, founder of the dynasty. Address: Bhopal, C.I.

HORE, JOSEPH WILLIAM, C.B.E. (1920). C.I.E. (1923), I.C.S., Secretary to Govt. of India, Dept. of Education, Health and Land Records (on deputation with the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms, 1928) b. 6th April 1878 m. to Margaret Wilkie Stott, M.B., Ch. B. (St. Andrews), M.B.E. Educ.: Deccan College Poona and University College, London. Under Secretary, Government of Madras, 1910; Dewan of Cochin State, 1914-1919; Dy Director of Civil Supplies, 1919; Secretary to the High Commr. for India, London, 1920; Ag. High Commr. for India in the United Kingdom, 1922-1923; Secretary to Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1924; and Ag. Member, Viceroy's Executive Council, November. 1926 July 1927. Address: 8, Hastings Road, New Delhi, and C/o The National Bank of India, Madras.

IGGS, ALBERT ASHLEY, Member of Institution of Civil Engineers (Member of Council and Chairman of the Advisory Committee in India), Member of Institution of Engineers, India (Member of Council), b. 1872. m. Edith Helen Pollak. Educ.: Blundells, Tiverton, Devon; University College, Bristol; Technical Training, Stothert and Pitt, Bath. Assistant to Chief Engineer, London and India Docks Joint Committee; Asstt. Engineer, S. M. Railway; Executive Engineer, Madras Famine Feeder Lines; Resident Engineer and H. B. M. Consul, Mormugao, Portuguese India; Ch. Engineer, M. & S. M. Railway, Agent, M. & S. M. Railway. Address: Rostrevor, Teynampet, Madras.

IKANER, MAHARAJA OF, MAJOR-GENERAL H. H. MAHARAJADERAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR NARENDRA SHIBOMANI MAHARAJAH SRI SRI GANGA SINGHI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., cr. 1911; G.C.I.E., cr. 1907; K.O.S.I., cr. 1904; K.C.I.E. cr. 1901; G.C.V.O., cr. 1910, G.B.E. (Military Division), 1921; K.C.B., cr. 1918; A.D.-C.; Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, cr. 1918; Hon. LL.D., Cambridge and Edinburgh; Donat of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England; son of Maharaj Sri Lal Singhji Bahadur and adopted son of his own elder brother His Highness 12th Sri Singhji

born 2 October 1890 educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer m. 1897 is one of the Ruling

Princes of India (succeeded 31st August 1897) and is entitled to a salute of 19 guns. Two sons, one daughter, one grandson, one grand-daughter. Invested with full ruling powers, 1898, granted Hon. Commission of Major in the British Army, 1900 and attached to 2nd Bengal Lancers; promoted Lt.-Col., 1909; Col., 1910, Major-General, 1917 served with British Army in China in command of Bikaner Camel Corps, 1901, (medal, despatches, H.C.I.E.); Served European War 1914-15 in France and in Egypt (despatches France and Egypt, K.C.B.), Major-General 1914; Bronze Star Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile G.B.E. (Military Division). Awarded gold medal (1st Class) of Kaiser-i-Hind for public service in India during Great Famine of 1899-1900; attended the Coronation of King Edward VII, 1902, and of King George V, 1911; Hon. A.D.-C. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, 1902; A.D.-C. to H. I. M. the King Emperor since 1910. Was selected as one of the three Representatives of India at the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference 1917. Received the Freedom of the City of London, Edinburgh, Manchester and Bristol. Was selected again as one of the two Representatives of India at the Imperial War Cabinet and the Peace Conference 1919. Elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, 1921, and re-elected in 1922 and continued as such in 1923 and 1924. Represented the Ruling Princes of India for the third time at the Assembly of the League of Nations, 1924. Is a Patron of the Benares Hindu University and Sri Bharat Dharma Mahamandal, Benares, a Vice-President of the East India Association, London the Royal Colonial Institute, London, the Indian Gymkhana Club, London; the Indian Army Temperance Association, Simla a member of the General Council of the Mayo College, Ajmer, and of the Managing Committee, Mayo College; General Council Daily Coll., Indore; the first Member of the Indian Red Cross Society; the Benares Hindu University Court. Is a Freemason, Past Master of Lodge "Rajputana," Abu; a past Dy. Dist. Grand Master of the Dist. Grand Lodge Bombay; Founder and Scribe E of the Royal Arch Chapter "Sir Ganga Singh," Abu holds the rank of the Past District Grand Scribe Nehemiah in the Dist. Grand Chapter of Bombay; Mem. of Royal Arch Chapter Ajmer and the Phulkian Lodge, Patna. *Har-Apprent:* Captain Maharaj Kumar Sri Sadul Singhji Bahadur, C.V.O., b. 7 September 1902, second son Maharaj Sri Bijay Singhji Bahadur, b. 29 March 1908. Grandson Bhanwarji Sri Karni Singhji Bahadur, b. 21 April 1924. Address: Bikaner, Rajputana

BILIMORIA, ARDASHIR JAMSETJI, B.A. b. 18 September 1884. Educ.: Chandanwady High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Joined Messrs. Tata, in 1894. Retired 1921. Address: Tata, Ltd., London.

BILLIMORIA, SIR SHAPOORJEE BOMONTJEE K.T. (1928), M.B.E., J.P. Partner in the firm of S. B. Billimoria & Co., Accountants and Auditors b. 27 July 1877 m. Jorjia, d. of Bhaia N. b. 1906 Educ. St. Xavier's College Honorary Presidency Member A y

of the City of Bombay Improvement Trust Committee
Chamber of Commerce and Industry, an Merchants' Chamber, Government
ment of India Back Bay Inquiry Committee, 1926-27. *Residence*: 13, Cuffe Parade, Colaba, Bombay.

BINNING, SIR ARTHUR WILLIAM, Kt. (1916)
Merchant in Rangoon b. 5 August 1861, s. of Robert Binning, Glasgow; unmarried. *Educ*: Glasgow Academy. *Address*: Rangoon.

BINNING, DOUGLAS BLYTH, M.A., LL.D.
Barrister. b. 29 Nov. 1869. m. Miss Berne *Educ*: Glasgow Academy, Glasgow and Cambridge Universities. Practised in the Bombay High Court for 32 years. *Publications*: "The Little Hill Station" and numerous articles. *Address*: High Court, Bombay.

BIRDWOOD, FIELD-MARSHAL SIR WILLIAM RIDDELL, G.C.B., 1923: 1st Lt. *cr.* 1919: G.C.M.G., *cr.* 1919; K.C.B., *cr.* 1917; K.C.S.I., *cr.* 1915; K.C.M.G., *cr.* 1914; C.B., 1911; A.D.C. General; O.L.E., 1908; D.S.O., 1908; Commander-in-Chief, India, 1925; Member of the Executive Council of the Governor-General; and Member of the Council of State, 1925. b. 13 Sept. 1865; *c. sur.* s. of late H. M. Birdwood. O.S.I., J.P., M.A., LL.D. (Cantab.), late Judge of High Court and Member of Council, Bombay; I.C.S., m. 1894, Jeannette Hope Gonville, *s.d.* of Col. Sir B. F. Bromhead, C.B., 4th Bart., of Thimby Hall, Lincoln. *Educ*: Clifton College; R.M.C. Sandhurst. Lieut., 4th Batt. Royal Scots Fusiliers, 1883; 12th Lancers, 1885; 11th Bengal Lancers, 1886; Gen., 1917; Field-Marshal, 1925; Adjutant, Viceroy's Bodyguard, 1898; Brig. Major, S. Africa, 1899; D.A.A.G., S. Africa, 1900; Military Secretary to Com.-in-Chief, S. Africa (Lord Kitchener), 1902; A.M.S. and Persian Interpreter to Com.-in-Chief, India, 1902; A.A.G. Headquarters, India, 1904; Military Secretary to Com.-in-Chief, India, 1905; Brigade Commander, 1909; Quarter-Master General in India, 1912; Secy. to Govt. of India, Army Deptt. and Member of Governor General's Legislative Council, 1912-14; G.O.C. Australian Imperial Force, 1915-20; A.D.C. to the King, 1906-11; A.D.C. General to the King, 1917-22; served Hazara, 1891 (medal with clasp); Isazai, 1892; N.W. Frontier, India, 1897-98 (medal, two clasps); Tirah, 1897-98 (despatches, clasp), S. Africa, 1898-1902 (severely wounded, despatches 5 times, brevets of Major and Lieut.-Col., Queen's Medal, 6 clasps, King's medal, two clasps; Chief Staff Officer, Mohmand Expedition, 1908 (despatches, medal and clasp, D.S.O.); served in command of detached landing of Australian and New Zealand Army Corps above C. of India, 1914-18.

de Guerre, Belgium); commanded, 5th Army Colonel Probyn's Horse, 1924, France, 1918-19; Colonel, 12th Lancers, 1920; Colonel 6th Gurkhas, 1926; Colonel-in-Chief, 1st New Zealand Mounted Infantry (New Zealand Cavalry) 1926; wealth of Australia.

L.L.D., Melbourne (N.S.W.), 1920, Institute, Acting General Northern Christopher Bromhead, Birdwood, 5th Probyn's Horse. *Address*: Simla.

BLACKETT, SIR BASIL PHILLOTT, K.C.B., 1921; K.C.S.I. (1923) C.B., 1915; Finance Member, Government of India, Nov. 1922 b. 1882; s. of late Rev. William Russell Blackett, M.A., Vicar of Holy Trinity Church, Nottingham, 1885-91, m. 1920, Beatrice, d. of late Edward H. Bounor, New York. *Educ*: Maitland, University College, Oxford. M.A., 1st Class Litt. Hum., 1904; entered Treasury, 1901; Secretary to Indian Finance and Currency Commission, 1913-14, and to Capital Issues Committee, 1916; went on special mission to U.S.A. Government, October 1914 in connection with exchange problems arising out of the war; Member of Anglo-French Financial Mission to U.S.A. which raised the Anglo-French Loan of 500,000,000 dollars October 1916; Member of National War Saving Committee, 1916; Representative of British Treasury, in U.S.A., 1917-19; Controller of Finance Treasury, 1919-1922, Commander of the Order of the Crown of Italy Officer of the Legion of Honour. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

BISWAS, CHART CHANDRA, y.s. of late Asutosh Biswas, Public Prosecutor, 24 Parganas, M.A., B.L., Advocate, Calcutta High Court b. April 21, 1888. m. Sm. Subashini Biswas d. of Mr. S. C. Malik. *Educ*: Hindu School, Presidency College, Ripon Law College. Enrolled Vakil, High Court, April 15, 1910 Advocate, November, 1924; Ordinary Fellow Calcutta University, and Member of the Syndicate, 1917-22, again from 1926; member of Dacca Board of Secondary Education, 1921-22; Professor, University Law College, 1913-21; Commissioner Calcutta Corporation 1921-24, and again Councillor, Calcutta Corporation since 1925; member, Calcutta Improvement Trust, since 1926; Secretary Bhowanipore Ratepayers' Association. Secretary, South Suburban College, 1916-21 Secretary, South Suburban School, Main and Branch, and Sir Romesh Mitter Girls' School. Member of Committee of Indian Association was member of Council and for a short time Secretary National Liberal League, Bengal. *Address*: 58, Puddopukur Road, Bhowanipore, Calcutta.

BLAIR, ANDREW JAMES FRASER, Director, "The Statesman," Calcutta; Founded the Eastern Bureau, Limited, Calcutta, 1912. late Editor and Managing Director, The Empire, Commerce, The Empire Gazette (daily and weekly newspapers published in Calcutta); b. Dingwall, Ross-shire, 30 September, 1872; y.s. of late Andrew Blair

1916-18; G.C.M.G.; Rising Sun of Japan; Tower and Sword of Portugal's Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, Croix de Guerre; Grand Officer of the Crown, Belgium; Croix

- Rector, Dingwall Burgh School, and Mary Ann Campbell, d. of late Thomas Duff, Glasgow; m. 1900, Constance, d. of Thomas Ibbotson; one s. one d. *Educ.*: Glasgow High School. Engaged in journalism, since 1890; *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.
- HATTER, THE REV. ETHELBERT, S.J.,** Ph.D. (1923), b. 15 Dec 1877 *Educ.* in Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France, England. Joined the Society of Jesus in 1896; Professor of Botany, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, since 1903; Principal of the same College from 1919-1924; Fellow and Syndic of the Bombay University since 1919. *Publications*: Bibliography of Indian Botany; The Ferns of Bombay; Natural Orders in Botany; The Palms of British India and Ceylon; The Flora of Aden; The Flora of the Indian Desert; Flora Arabica; Flowering Season and Climate; Contributions to the Flora of Baluchistan. *Bionomie der Palmen der Alten Welt*; Revision of the Bombay Flora; Flora of the Indus Delta numerous botanical papers in English and German scientific Journals. *Address*: Panchgani.
- BLENKINSOP, EDWARD ROBERT KAYE, C.I.E.** (1911); Settlement Commissioner, Jaipur, 1928. b. 15 May 1871; s. of Col. Blenkinsop; m. Florence Edith, d. of late Sir Stanley Ismay, K.C.S.I., three s. *Educ.*, St. Paul's School; Christ's College, Cambridge; Entered I.C.S., 1890; Settlement Office, 1897; Deputy Commissioner, 1902; Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1908; Commissioner of Excise, 1906; Chief Secretary to Chief Commissioner, 1912-18. Commissioner, 1916. *Address*: Jaipur, Rajputana.
- BLUNT, LESLIE, Solicitor.** b. 29 Dec. 1876. m. Kathleen, 2nd d. of the late Dr. Thomson of Margate. *Educ.*: Rugby. Senior partner in Craigs Blunt and Caroe *Address*: 50 Pedder Road, Bombay.
- BOAG, GEORGE TOWNSEND, M.A.** (Cambridge). C.I.E. (1928). I.C.S. Additional Secretary to the Government of Madras. b. November 12, 1884. *Educ.*: Westminster (1897 to 1903) and Trinity College, Cambridge, (1903 to 1907). Passed into the I.C.S. in 1907 and joined the Service in Madras in 1908. *Address*: Gumbier's Gardens, Adyar, Madras.
- BOLLEAU, COLONEL COMMANDANT GUY HAMILTON, C.B. (1919), C.M.G. (1917); D.S.O. (1915),** Chief Engineer, Western Command, b. 27 Sep. 1870. m. Violet Mary (Fergusson). *Educ.*: Christ's Hospital, B.M.A., Woolwich. Active Service W. Africa, 1892; Neutral Relief, 1895. China, 1899; Great War France, 1914-19; Afghan War 1919. *Address*: Quetta.
- BOMBAY, BISHOP OF, since 1908; RT. REV. EDWIN JAMES PALMER; o. s. of late Archbishop Palmer of Oxford, and nephew of 1st Lord Selborne; b. 10 Jan. 1869, m. 1912, Hazel, y. d. of Col. E. H. Hanning-Lee, Brighton Manor, Ayrshire. *Educ.*: Winchester and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ordained, 1896; Fellow, Balliol College, 1897; Tutor, 1893; Chaplain, 1896; Examining Chaplain to Bishop of Southwell, 1899-1904; to Bishop of Rochester 1904-05; to Bishop of Southwark 1906-08**
The Great Awaken Lang Green
- & Co.). *Address*: Bishop's Lodge, Malabar Hill, Bombay.
- BOSE, SIR BIPIN KRISHNA, K.C.I.E. (1920)** Kt. cr. 1907; C.I.E., 1898; M.A.; Advocate in the Central Provinces and Vice-Chancellor of the Nagpur University Vice-Chancellor Nagpur University. b. 1851. *Address*: Nagpur, C. P.
- BOSE, SIR JAGADIS CHANDRA, Kt. cr. 1917** C.I.E., 1903; C.S.I., 1911; M.A. (Cantab) D. Sc. (Lond.); LL.D., F.R.S., Professor Emeritus of the Presidency College, Calcutta. Founder Director of Bose Research Institute. b. 30 Nov 1858; *Educ.*: Calcutta; Christ's College, Cambridge; Delegate to International Scientific Congress, Paris, 1900; scientific member of deputation to Europe and America 1907, 1914 and 1918. Published series of papers on Electric waves and other electric phenomena. (Proc. Roy. Society.) Member Committee of Intellectual Co-operation League of Nations *Publications*: Response in the Living and Non-living; Plant Response Electro-physiology of Plants, Irritability of Plants; Life Movements of Plants, Vols I and II; Life Movements in Plants, Vols III and IV; The Ascent of Sap; The Physiology of Photosynthesis. *Address*: Bose Institute, Calcutta.
- BOSE, SIR KAILAS CHUNDER, RAI BANADUR Kt. cr. 1916, C.I.E., 1910; Kaiser-i-Hind 1909; O.B.E. b. Dec. 26, 1850. *Educ.* Calcutta Training Academy, Calcutta University and Medical College, Fellow, Calcutta University; Vice-President, Indian Medical Congress; Fellow, R. Institute of Public Health; Member, British Medical Association, ex-Member of the Corporation of Calcutta and Hon. Presidency Magistrate; connected with many literary and scientific Societies of India and England and most of his contributions to the Medical Journals have been reproduced in the English and American Press. 2nd s. of late Babu Madhusan Basu *Address*: 1, Subeen Street, Calcutta.**
- BRADLEY-BIRT, FRANCIS BRADLEY, B.A. (Oxon.), I.C.S.,** Collector of Calcutta, and Member, Legislative Assembly. b. 25 June 1874. m. to Lady Norah Spencer Churchill d. of 8th Duke of Marlborough. *Educ.*: Brasenose Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1898, Inner Temple, 1899; Magte. and Collr. Hooghly, Midnapore, Kharua and Calcutta, Asst. Director, Local Resources, Mesopotamia with rank of Lt.-Col., 1918; attached to British Legation, Tcheran, 1918-19; mentioned in Despatches, 1919. *Publications*: "Chota Nagpore", "The Story of an Indian Upland", "The Romance of an Eastern Capital", "Syhet Thackeray", "Through Persia", "Twelve Men of Bengal", "Bengal Fairy Tales". *Address*: United Service Club, Calcutta.
- BRAV, SIR DENYS DE SAUMAREZ, C.S.I. (1922); C.B.E., 1919; C.I.E., 1917; K.C.I.E. (1925); I.C.S.; B.A.;** Gold Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1912; Foreign Secretary (1920), b. 28 Nov. 1875, m. Celestina, d. of Lt.-Col. H. P. P. Leigh, C.I.E. *Address*: Real Gymnasium, Stuttgart
School, Theterton Ballo College Taylorian

- Scholar, Oxford, 1898. Entered I.C.S., 1898; served in the Punjab, N.-W. F. Province, Baluchistan, and with the Govt. of India; Census Superintendent, Baluchistan, 1910, Dy. Secy., Foreign and Political Dept., 1916; offg. Private Secretary to the Viceroy 1918. Joint Foreign Secy., 1919. *Publications*: The Original Order of Shakespeare's Sonnets, Brahui Language, Life History of a Brahui. *Address*: The Secretariat, Simla or Delhi.
- RAY, SIR EDWARD HUGH, Kt., cr.** 1917, Senior Partner, Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.; President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Member of Imperial Legislative Council; Controller of Contracts, Army Headquarters. *b.* 15 Apr. 1874; *m.* 1912, Constance, *d.* of Sir John Graham. 1st Bt. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Trinity College, Cambridge. *Address*: Gillander House, Calcutta.
- RAYNE, ALBERT FREDERIC LUCAS, M.A.** (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. 1922, Indian Civil Service, Financial Adviser, Military Finance. *b.* 1 April 1884, *m.* 1909 Mary, *s. d.* of James Thomson, M.D. Irvine, Ayrshire. *Educ.*: Irvine, Royal Academy, Glasgow University, Oxford (Trinity College). Appointed I.C.S., Bombay, 1908; Assistant Collector, Satara, 1908-1913; Superintendent, Land Records, 1913-1916; Under Secretary and Deputy Secretary to Bombay Government, Revenue and Financial Departments 1916-20. Subsequently Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India and in 1922-23 attached to the Inchaape Committee on Retrenchment, Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs, 1923-24, Offg. Secretary, Finance Department 1925-27. *Address*: Finance Department, Government of India.
- RAYSHAY, MAURICE WILLIAM, M.Sc. (Leeds), A.B. Inst. C.E., b.** 7 March 1883. *Educ.*: Ripon Grammar School, 1895-1900, and Leeds University, 1900-1903. Training in Royal Dockyard Chatham, 1903-5; Apptd. Asst. Engineer Indian P.W.D. (Railways) 1905; Asst. Engineer, Eastern Bengal Railway, 1905-09, Assistant and Executive Engineer under Sir Robert Gales on the construction of the Sura Bridge over the Ganges 1909-15, Assistant Agent, North-Western Railway, 1915-17, Dy. Controller, Indian Munitions Board, 1917-18; Assistant, Secretary and Railway Director, Railway Board 1918-24; Dy. Agent B. B. & C. I. Railway, 1924. *Address*: B. B. & C. I. Railway, Bombay.
- BROWN, PERCY, A.R.C.A.** 1898; Indian Educational Service, 1899; Principal, Government School of Art, Calcutta, since 1909; *b.* Birmingham, 1871; *m.* 1908, *d.* of Lt.-Col. Sir Adalbert Talbot, K.C.I.E.; *Educ.*: Edward VI Grammar School and School of Art, Birmingham; Principal, Mayo School of Art and Curator, Museum, Lahore, 1899-1909; on deputation, Assistant Director, Art Exhibition, Delhi Durbar, 1902-03; Officer-in-charge Art Section and Trustee, Indian Museum, 1910. *Publications*: Picturesque Nepal, 1912; Indian Painting, 1917; Tours in Sikkim, 1917 (2nd Edition, 1922); Indian Paintings under the Mughals, 1924. *Address*: Calcutta.
- BROWN, THE REV. ARTHUR ERNEST, M.A.** (Cantab.), B.Sc. (London), C.I.E. (1926), Missionary (Wesleyan Methodist), *b.* 17 May 1882, *m.* E. Gertrude Parsons, M.A. *d.* of T. L. Parsons, Esq., Four Oaks, Warwickshire in 1903. *Educ.*: Stationer's Company's School, London; Kingwood School Bath (1895-1901), Trinity Hall, Cambridge (Scholar). Entered Wesleyan Methodist Ministry and joined Wesleyan College, Bankura in January 1905; became Principal in 1917; Nominated Fellow of Calcutta University, 1921; General Superintendent, Wesleyan Mission in Bengal. *Publication*: Translation from Bengali of "The Cane of Gold" by Sita Devi. *Address*: Wesleyan College, Bankura, B. N. Ry.
- BUCK, EDWARD JOHN, O.B.E. (1918); C.B.E. (1918)**; Reuter's Agent with Government of India and Director, Associated Press of India; late Vice-Chairman, Alliance Bank of India; Director, Associated Hotels of India, Peiman Institute (India), and Boroosa Timber Co. *b.* 1862; *m.* Annie Margaret, *d.* of late General Sir R. M. Jennings, K.C.B. *Educ.*: St. John's College, Hants. *Address*: Was in business in Australia, Assistant and Joint Secretary, Countess of Dufferin's Fund for 28 years. Hon. Sec., Executive Committee, "Our Day" in India, 1917-18. *Publication*: "Simla, Past and Present." *Address*: North bank, Simla.
- BUCKLAND, SIR PHILIP LINDSAY, Kt. cr.** 1926; The Hon. Mr. Justice Buckland, Judge High Court, Calcutta, since 1919. *Educ.*: Eton and New College, Oxford. *m.* Mary, *d.* of Livingstone Barday. Called to the Bar Inner Temple, 1896. Practised in High Court, Calcutta. *Publication*: Text Book on the Indian Companies Act, 1913. *Address*: Bengal Club Calcutta.
- BUNBURY, EVELYN JAMES, B.A. (Oxon), M.C., J.P., Hon. Presidency Magistrate, General Manager, Messrs. Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd., Bombay.** *b.* 31 Oct. 1888. *Educ.*: The Oratory School, Queen's College, Oxford and Caen Univ., France. Joined Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd. and came to Bombay in 1912; served with Grenadier Guards in 1917 and 1918 in France ending up as Captain. *Address*: Mount Ida, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.
- BUNDI, H. H. MAHARAO RAJA, SIR RASHTUBI SINGHI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., 1919; K.C.S.I. cr. 1897. G.C.I.E. cr. 1900, G.C.V.O. cr. 1911; b.** 28 Sept. 1869. *S.* 1889. *Address*: Bundi, Rajputana.
- BURDWAN, HON. SIR BIJAY CHAND MAHTAB, MAHARAJADHIRAJA BAHADUR of G.C.I.E., cr. 1924. K.C.S.I., cr. 1911; E.C.I.E., cr. 1909, I.O.M., cr. 1909; F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.N.B.A., M.R.A.S.; Hon. LL.D. Camb and Edin 1926.** *b.* 19 Oct. 1881. A Member of 3rd Class in Civil Division of Indian Order of Merit for conspicuous courage displayed by him in the Overtoun Hall, Calcutta, 7 Nov. 1908; adopted by late Maharajadhiraja and succeeded him, 1837, being in independent charge of zamindari, 1903 in intervening years.

carried on by his father, the late Raja Bun Bihari Kapur; two s. two d. Burdwan (the Senior Hindu House in Bengal) ranks first in wealth and importance among the great Bengal zamindaris. Has travelled much in India; made a tour through Central Europe, and visited British Isles in 1908, when he was received by King Edward; a Member of the Council, 1909-12, Bengal. Member of the Council, 1918-24; Vice-President, Bengal Executive Council from March 1922 to April 1924; Member of the Indian Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924; Member of the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee, 1924-25; a nominated member of the Council of State, 1926; Delegate from India to the Imperial Conference, London 1926, when he was received by King George V; Received the Freedom of the Cities of Manchester, Edinburgh and Stoke-on-Trent, 1926. Trustee of the Indian Museum, 1908. President, Agri-Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, 1911 and 1912; President of the British Indian Association, Calcutta, 1911-18; again since 1925; Trustee of the Victoria Memorial Calcutta since 1914; Chairman, Calcutta Imperial (King-Emperor George V. and Queen Empress Mary) Reception Fund Committee, 1911-12. President of the Bengal Volunteer Ambulance Corps and of the Bengalee Regiment Committees during the War. Publications: *Vijaya Gita*, and various other Bengali poetical works and dramas. Studies Impressions (the Diary of a European Tour); *Meditations*; etc. *See*: Maharajadhiraj Kumar Sahab Uday Chand Maitab, B.A. b. 14 July 1905. Address: The Palace, Burdwan, Bihar. Manzil, Alipore, Calcutta; The Retreat, Kurseong, Bengal; Rosebank, Darjeeling; Mosspher Manzil, Agre, U.P., etc.

BURFOOT, HENRY FRANÇOIS, (Dayasagar) b. March 1887 (Hastings). Became a Salvation Army Officer in 1888. Secretary for the Salvation Army's Publicity and Vernacular Literary work in the Western India Territory. Arrived in Bombay from England in January 1887. Has India, Telegu.

Salvation Army periodicals for the past 10 years. Author and translator of many Salvation Army songs and compiler of several song books in Gujarati, Hindi and Punjabi. Translator of "The Doctrines of the Salvation Army" and "Orders and Regulations for Salvation Army Soldiers" and "Orders and Regulations for Salvation Army Officers" into Gujarati. Address: The Salvation Army Headquarters, Morland Road, Bombay.

BURLEY, GEORGE WILLIAM, Wh. Ex., 1906; B.Sc. (Engineering) (London), 1921, M.I. Mech. E., 1923; M.I.E., 1923, M.A.S. Mech. E. 1926; Professor of Mechanical Engineering, Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Matunga, Bombay b. 1885, m. Ella Elizabeth, d. Harry Burton. Un College and Shelded. University Science.

Asstt. Engineer, Yorkshire Electric Power Co., Engineering Research Student, Sheffield University; Lecturer in Engineering and Head of Machine Tool and Cutting Tool Research Departments; Technical Manager Guy Motors, Wolverhampton; and Lecturer in Electrical Engineering, Wolverhampton Technical College. Publications: (Books) *Lathes: their Construction and Operation*; *The Testing of Machine Tools*; *Machine and Fitting Shop Practice: Principles and Practice of Toothed Gear Wheel Cutting*. (Papers) On Machine Tool Design before the Sheffield Society of Engineers and Metallurgists and on Cutting Tools before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers. Technical Articles Upwards of 200 on various Engineering subjects in the Technical Press of England, America and India. Address: V. J. T. Institute, Matunga, Bombay.

BURT, BRYCE CRADLEIGH, M.B.E., B.Sc. (London), I.A.S., Secretary Indian Central Cotton Committee, b. April 29, 1881. Educ. Univ. Coll., London, Assistant Lecturer Liverpool University, 1902-4, Trinidad, British West Indies, 1904-7. Entered the Indian Agricultural Service, January 1908; Dy. Director of Agriculture, United Provinces, 1908-21; Director of Industries, United Provinces (in addition) 1912-15. Address 25, Woodhouse Road, Fort, Bombay.

BURRELL, PERCY SAVILE, M.A., C.I.E. Indian Educational Service, Prof. of Philosophy, Allahabad University, b. 11 Dec, 1871 m. Ethel Marion Jane Bilton. Educ.: Leeds Grammar School and Queen's College Oxford, Assistant Master in various English schools. Appointed to the Indian Educational Service in 1904 and held the posts of Headmaster, Inspector of Schools, Principal of Queen's College, Benares, Asstt. Director of Public Instruction, U. P. Prof. of Philosophy, University of Allahabad. Publications: Articles on Plato's Republic in *Mind*. Address: C/o Messrs. Thos. Cook and Son, Berkeley Street, W. 1.

BUTLER, HIS EXCELLENCY SIR MONTAGU, K.C. S.I., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., M.A., I.O.S. Governor of Central Provinces (1925). b. 19 May 1873. m. Anna, d. of the late Dr George Smith, C.I.E. Educ. at Haileybury and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge, Fellow 1895 Hon. Fellow 1925. Served in the Punjab as Asstt. Commr. 1896, junr. sec. to Fin. Commr. Nov. 1900, Asstt. Sett. Officer, 1902; Sett. Officer, Kotah State, 1904; special duty under For. Dept., 1908; ditto under Financial Dept., 1909; Deputy Commr. Lahore district, 1909; Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India (Home Dept.), 1911; special duty as Jr. Sec. to Royal Comm. on the Public Services in India, 1912-15; Deputy Commr. Attock District, 1916-19; ditto Lahore District, 1919. President, Punjab Legis. Council, 1921; Sec. to Govt. of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1922. President, Council of State, 1924. Address: Governor's Camp, C.P.

BUTLER, SIR (SPENCER) HARCOURT, G.C.I.E. (1923); K.C.S.I., b. 1911; C.S.I., 1909. C.I.E., 1901. I.O.S., d. M.A., LL.D. * R.G.S. P.Z.S. F.R.S.A. Hon. Life Member of the American of Natural History Soc.

York Chairman, Indian States Reforms Inquiry Committee. *b.* 1 Aug. 1869 *m.* 1894. Florence, *d.* of F. Nelson Wright, *1 inc.* Harrow; Balliol College, Oxford. Served as Secretary to Famine Commissioner; Financial Secretary to Government; Director of Agriculture; Judicial Secretary to Government; Deputy Commissioner, Lucknow; Foreign Secretary to the Government of India; Member of the Executive Council of the Governor-General; Lieut.-Governor of Burma, 1915-17, Lieut.-Governor and Governor of the U.P., 1918-1932. Governor of Burma, 1925-1927. *Address:* Government of India, Delhi.

BYRAMJEE JEEJEEBHAY, Sir, Kt (1928)
ELDEST SON OF RUSTOMJEE BYRAMJEE JEEJEEBHAY Landlord and Merchant large landed proprietor owning 9,000 acres in Salsetta, Sheriff of Bombay for 1927. *b.* 28th Feb. 1881 *m.* Jirbai Jamssetjee Cursetjee, Grand Daughter of Sir Jamssetjee Jeejeebhoy, 2nd Bart. *Educ.* St Xavier's School and College, Bombay. J. P. (1908), Hon. Pres. Magt. 1908-1915, Delegate Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1909-1925), Chairman. Standing Committee of Bombay Municipal Corporation (1924), Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation from 1914. Member, Board of Film Censors from 1924, Member, Govt of India Committee for Conditional Release of Prisoners 1921; Chairman, Byramjee Jeejeebhoy Parsi Charitable Institution and 32nd Bombay Parsi Pioneers Boy Scouts and Hon. Treasurer, Bombay Presidency Released Prisoners' Aid Society. Donated a sum of Rs. 2,00,000 for the foundation of an Hospital for Children, it being the first of its kind in India. *Address:* The Cliff, Ridge Road Bombay.

JAIRVS. JAMES, O.B.E. (1919); J.P., M.A., M.D., Ch.B. (Glas.), D.P.H. (Camb.); Chief Medical Officer, North Western Railway. *b.* 12th July 1855 *Educ.* University of Glasgow. House Surgeon, House Physician, Glasgow Royal Infirmary and Victoria Infirmary Glasgow; Asst. to Professor of Anatomy, Glasgow University; Resident Physician, Russell and Knightwood Hospitals, Glasgow; Sanitary Officer, 34th General Hospital; Major R.A.M.C. (Temp.); Dy. Assistant Director, Medical Services (Sanitary), 8th Lucknow Division; Senior Assistant Health Officer, Bombay Municipality; Principal Medical and Health Officer, G.I.P. Railway and Major, Auxiliary Force Medical Corps. *Address:* C/o The Agent, North-Western Railway, Headquarters Office, Empress Road, Lahore.

CALCUTTA, BISHOP OF, MOST REV. FOSS WEST COTT, D.D. *b.* 23 October 1863. *s.* of the Rt Rev. B. F. Westcott (late Bishop of Durham), *Educ.*: Cheltenham and Peterhouse, Cambridge. Joined the S. P. G. Mission, Cawnpore, 1889. Bishop of Chota Nagpore, 1905, Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan in India, 1919. *Address:* Calcutta.

SALVART, HUBERT, B.Sc. (Lond.), C.I.E. (1925); Member, Royal Commission on Agriculture; I.C.S., Commissioner, Rawalpindi Division. *b.* 30 Nov. 1875. *m.* Gladys, *d.* of late Edward O'Brien, I.C.S. *Educ.* Univ. Coll. and St. Thomas' Hospital, London and King's Coll., Entered I.C.S.

1897; arrived India 1898; Asstt. Commr and Deputy Commr. Special Duty in Western Tibet, 1906; Registrar, Co-operative Societies 1916 to 1925; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923-26; Fellow, Punjab University. *Publications:* Laws and Principles of Co-operation (2nd Ed 1921), The Wealth and Welfare of the Punjab (1922); Co-operative Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Agric Jour. of India), Progress in the Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Trans. Indian Economic Assn.), The Punjab in India and The Punjab in Agricultural Co-operat. Review of Agricultural Economics; Agricultural Co-operation in the Punjab; The Reconstruction of the Punjab; The Size and Distribution of Agricultural Holdings in the Punjab, pamphlets and various articles on economic subjects in the Bengal Economic Journal, Indian Journal of Economics, Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, etc. *Address:* Civil Secretariat, Lahore, Punjab.

CAMPBELL, THE HON MR. JUSTICE ARCHIBALD, B.A., Puisne Judge, High Court, Lahore *b.* 18 Jan. 1877. *m.* to Violet, youngest *d.* of the late Sir Cecil Beadon, K.C.S.I., Lt.-Governor of Bengal. *Educ.* Harrow and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. (Punjab) 1901; Asstt. Commr., Registrar, Chief Court, 1912; Offg. Dist. and Sessions Judge, 1918; Addl. Judge, High Court, 1921; Permanent Judge, 1925. *Address:* Lahore.

CAMPBELL, HENRY, Bar-at-Law (King's Inn Dublin). *b.* 29 March 1879. *m.* Miss Katherine Kippen, Honour man at the John Brooke Scholarship Examination: Ex-Chief Presidency Magistrate (Ag.) Bombay; Ex-Clerk of the Crown, Bombay; late Prof. Govt. Law School Bombay. *Publication:* The Law of Land Acquisition in British India (Tripathi and Co.). Trading with the Enemy (Butterworth) The Law of War and Contract (Oxford University Press). *Address:* Datoobhoy Mansions, Mayo Road, Bombay.

CAREY, SIR WILKINSON LANGER, KT. (1924); Senior Partner, Carey and Daniel formerly Senior Resident Partner, Bird & Co. and F. W. Heiglers & Co. *b.* 12 Oct. 1875 *m.* Elizabeth Georgina Nott (née Blackie), *Educ.* Wellington College. Came to India 1901: Vice-President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce, 1922; President, 1923; Bengal Legis. Council, 1920-24; Panel of Dy. Presidents, 1923-24; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1924; Director, Imperial Bank of India, 1922-24, President, 1924; Calcutta, Trustee of Victoria Memorial; and Racial Distinctions Committee, 1922. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1925. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

CAROE, CROU NIKES, B.A. (Oxon.), Solicitor *b.* 23 Aug. 1878. *Educ.*: Private and Univ. College, Oxford. *Address:* Pedder Road, Bombay.

CARR, SIR HUBERT WINCH, KT. (1925), Managing Director, Balmer Lawrie & Co., Ltd. *b.* 1877. *m.* to Evelyn Margaret Bruce, elder *d.* of Herbert Johnston, Esq., W. S. 1884. *Educ.* : Westminster Abbey, Beckenham. *Address:* Asiam, 4598-1901, Lawrie & Co., Calcutta became senior resident partner 1914.

es. of European Association 1922-25; Address: 7, Alipore Park, Calcutta.

TROLL, C. Agent, Bengal-Nagpur Railway. b. 1877. Joined Bengal Nagpur Ry. Asstt. Traffic Superintendent, 1901; Dist. Traffic Superintendent from 1904-7; Personal Asstt. to Asstt., 1907; Superintendent Goods, 1909; Dist. Traffic Supdt., Kharagpur, 1910. Supdt. of Goods, 1911; represented B.N. Ry. on several occasions on Goods Classification Committee of Indian Ry. Conf. Association; was Chairman of Rates sub-Committee, 1920; attached to Agent's office as Rates Revision Officer, 1919; Commanded Supdt. Rates and Development, 1920; y. Genl. Traffic Manager, 1922; Commercial Traffic Manager 1925; apptd. Agent, 1927. Address: Calcutta.

SELS, MAJ.-GENERAL SIR ROBERT AROHIALD, K.C.B. (1927) O.S.I., D.S.O., Adjutant General, Army Department (1928) b. 15 March 1876, m. Miss F. E. Jackson (1904) served in the European war, including Egypt and Mesopotamia. Commanded Peshawar District, 1923-1928. Address: Army Headquarters, Delhi and Simla.

UMONT, RT. REV. MGR. FORTUNATUS FERRY, D.D., O.S.E.C.; 1st B.G. Bishop of Lyons, since 1913; b. Tours, 10 Dec 1871. Educ.; Tours. Took his vows, 1890; priest, 1894; joined Mission of Rajputana, 1897; Military Chaplain of Neemuch, 1900, and of Mhow, 1901; Prefect Apostolic of the same Mission, 1908. Address: Bishop's House, Aimer.

LAMAN LALL, DIWAN, M.L.A. Member, Legislative Assembly, since 1923 b. 1892. Educ. at Convent of the Sacred Heart, Murree; Gordon Mission College, Rawalpindi; Private Tutors at Folkestone, London and Paris. Joined the Middle Temple in 1910; finished his Bar Final in 1914, took Honours Degree, in Jurisprudence from Jesus College, Oxford, 1917; spent 1915-1917 touring England in connection with the Home Rule Deputation headed by Mr. Tilak; was appointed General Editor of *Coterie*, a London quarterly of Art and Literature; returned to India in 1920; joined the staff of the *Bombay Chronicle* as Asstt. Editor; founded the All-India Trade Union Congress in 1920. Address: Lahore (Punjab).

HAMNEY, LT.-COL. HENRY, C.M.G. 1900; Principal, Police Training College, Surdah; b. Shillong, co. Wicklow; m. 1st, 1907, Hon. Cecilia Mary Barnewall (d. 1908); sister of 18th Lord Trimlestone; 2nd, 1918, Alice, d. of Col. W. E. Bellingham of Castle Bellingham, co. London. Educ.: Monaghan Diocesan School. Served South Africa, 1900, first as Major Commanding Lumsden's Horse, and later with South African Constabulary; joined Indian Police, 1909; accompanied the relief column to Manipur in 1891. Address: Police Training College, Surdah, Rajshahi, Bengal.

HANDA KAMINI KUMAR, M.A. (1888). B.L. M.L.A., Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. b. Sept. 1864, m. (Chandramabha) Chaudhuri. Educ.: Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Formerly a member of the Assam Council and Gov. Follow Calcutta University

Publications: Presidential Address, 1st Burma Conference, 1906; Presidential Address, Bengal Provincial Presidential Address, R. M. S. Conference

1924. Address: Silchar, Assam.

CHARANJIT SINGH, SIRDAR; Chief of the Punjab; Fellow, R. G. S.; Member, Royal Society of Arts, member of Kapurthala ruling family; b. 1853; s. of Kanawa Sobhet Singh; Educ.: Jullunder, Chief College Government College, Lahore. Member Council of State, 1924. Address: Charanjit Castle, Jullunder City; Chadwick, Simla W.

CHARKHARI, H. H. MAHARAJA-DHARAJA, ARIMARJAN b. 1903, S. 1920. Invested with full Ruling Powers on December 6th, 1924. Address: Charkhari State, Bundelkhand.

CHATTERJEE, SIR ATUL CHANDRA, K.C.I.E (1925). High Commissioner for India (1925) b. 24 Nov. 1873. Educ.: Hare School and Presidency Coll., Calcutta, and King's Coll. Cambridge; m. (1) Vina Mookerjee (deceased) (2) Gladys M. Broughton, O.B.E., D. Sc. Entered I.C. S., 1897. Served in U. P. Special Inquiry into Industries in U. P. 1907-08. Registrar, Co-operative Societies, U. P. 1912-18; Revenue Sec., U. P. Govt., 1917-18; Ch. Sec., U. P. Govt., 1919; Govt. of India delegate to International Labour Conference, Washington, 1919 and Geneva, 1921, 1924, 1925 and 1930; President, International Labour Conference, 1927 and to League of Nations Assembly, 1927; Representative of India on Governing Body, International Labour Office, has been Member of Economic Committee since 1925. Member, Munitions and Industries Board, 1920; Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries, 1921; Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in Charge of Industries and Labour, Member of the Legislative Assembly 1921-24. Publications: Note on the Industries of the United Provinces (1909). Address: 42, Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W. 1.

CHAUBAI, SIR MANADIV BEASKAR, K.C.I.E cr. 1917; O.S.I., 1911; B. A., LL.B., b. 6 Sept. 1857; m. Anandibai, only s. of Parashram S. Gupta, 1870. Educ.: Government High School, Poona; Deccan College, Poona; Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School Bombay, 1879-83; Vakil, High Court, Bombay, 1883; Govt. Pleader, High Court, Bombay, 1906; Acting Public Judge, High Court Bombay, 1908; Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bombay, 1910-12 and 1915-17; Member of the Public Services Commn., 1913-15; Chancellor, Indian Women's University, 1920. Vice-Chairman, and now Chairman, Deccan Education Society President of Commission to try Election petitions at Belgaum and Dhargwar, 1924 to try election petitions at Sholapur and Ahmednagar, 1927. Address: 6, Prince Office Road, Poona.

CHAUDHARI, JAGES CHANDRA, B.A. (Oxon) M.A. (Ox.), Bar-at-Law, b. 28 June 1861 m. Saralabai s. of d. of 8th Marwar. Banerjee. Address: Banerjee College, Calcutta, 84

Xavier's College, Calcutta and New College, Oxford. For some time Lecturer of Physics and Chemistry at Vidyasagar College, Calcutta; Editor, Calcutta Weekly Notes since 1896, Organising Secy., Indian Industrial Exhibitions in Calcutta in 1901-1902 and 1906-7; Member, Bengal Council, 1904-7, Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-1928. *Publications:* Calcutta Weekly Notes. *Address:* 3, Hastings Street, and "Devadwar," 24, Bahgunge, Circular Road, Calcutta.

HAUDHIL LAL CHAND, HON. LIEUTENANT THE HON. RAO BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., O.B.E., b. 1882. *m.* Shrimati Sushila Devi. belonging to a Sikh Jat. Family of Ferozepur Dist. *Educ.:* St. Stephen's College, Delhi. Joined Revenue Department, 1904; took LL.B. degree 1912 and practised as lawyer at Rohank, elected Vice-Chairman, District Board, 1911-17 elected Punjab Council, 1926, nominated Council of State, 1922. *Presdt.,* All-India Jat Maha Sabha, 1918 (elected). *Manager* of High School for Sons of Soldiers; *hon.* recruiting officer during War. *Minister,* Punjab Government (resigned in 1924); *Revenue Member,* Bharatpur State, 1924, and *President,* State Council, 1926-1927. *Address:* Bharatpur, Rajputana.

HETIAB, THE HON. DEWAN BAHADUR SIR S. R. M., SIR ANNAMALAI CHETTY, Banker and Member of the Council of State, b. 1881. Has been a member of Madras Legislative Council, Member of the Local Board of the Imperial Bank of India; *Manager* and founder of the Sri Meenakshi group of institutions at Chidambaram: Sri Minakshi College (2) Sri Minakshi Sanskrit College, (3) Sri Minakshi Tamil College, and (4) Sri Minakshi Oriental Training College, is a life member of the Senate of the University of Madras; is a member of the Nattukkottai Chetty Community. *Address:* Natana Vilas, 38, Police Commr.'s Rd., Vepery, Madras.

HITTY, R. K. SHANMUKHAM, D.A., B.L. Lawyer and Member, Legislative Assembly, b. 17 Oct. 1892. *Educ.:* The Madras Christian College. Elected as a member of the Madras Legis. Council in 1920; was appointed Council Secretary to the Development Minister in 1922; in Oct. 1922 was deputed by the Madras Govt. to report about measures of Temperance Reform in Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces. Elected in 1923 as member, Legislative Assembly. Visited England in May 1924 as one of the members of the Deputation sent by the National Convention of India, visited Australia as Indian representative on the Delegation of the Empire Parliamentary Association in September 1926; was re-elected uncontested to Legis. Assembly in the General Election of 1926; *Chief Whip* of the Congress Party in Legislative Assembly. *Address:* "Hawarden," Race Course, Coimbatore.

HINOY, SULTAN MEHRAJLY J.P., and Hon. Magistrate, Merchant, Managing Partner in the firm of F. M. Chinooy & Co. b. 16th February 1885, *m.* Miss Sherbanoo Jyothambay Ebrahim. *Educ.:* Bharda New High School and Tiphinstone College. Founded the well-known firm of Automobile Distributors and Engi-

neers, the Bombay Garage, now situated at Meher Buildings, Bandstand, Chowpatty. Mainly responsible for the Wireless Industry in India; *Director* of the Indian Radio Telegraph Co. and the Indian Broadcasting Co., Ltd. *Address:* Meher Manzil, Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

CHINTAMANI, CHIRRAVOORI YAJNESWARA Chief Editor of *The Leader* of Allahabad b. 10 April 1880, *m.* Srimati Krishnavenema, *Educ.:* Maharaja's College, Vizianagram Editor of *The Leader*, Allahabad, 1909-30 Member. U. P. Legislative Council, 1916-1923 Delegate of the Liberal Party to England 1919, General Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India; *President*, ibid, 1920 Minister of Education and Industries, U.P. 1921-23; Editor of the *Indian Daily Mail* for a short time in 1925. *Publications:* Indian Social Reform, 1901; Speeches and Writings of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, 1905 *Address:* Gauri Nivas, 18, George Town Allahabad.

CHITNAVIS, SIR GANGADHAR MADHAV K.C.I.E., C.I.E., b. 1862; selected to represent Central Provinces on Impl. Legislative Council, 1898-1899, 1898-99, King's guest at the Coronation of King Edward VII, 1902; *President* of C. P. and Berar Provincial Conference, 1908; additional member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1907; elected representative of landholders in the Imperial reformed Council, 1910-1916. Nominated Member of Imp. Legis. Council from 1918; landholder in C. P.; *President*, Nagpur District Council, 1883-1924. *President*, Central Provinces Legis. Council (1921-1925), *President*, Nagpur Municipality, 1896-1918. *Address:* Nagpur, Central Provinces.

CHITNAVIS, SIR SHANKAR MADHAV, KT. (1926), B.A., Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1901), Imperial Service Order (1914), *President*, C. P. Legislative Council, b. Dec 3 1863; *m.* Parvabai. *Educ.:* Free Church Mission School, Nagpur and then at Elphinstone College, Bombay. Appointed Probationer for Civil Service under the Statutory rules, 13 July 1885; confirmed as Assistant Commissioner, 5th Oct. 1887; appointed Deputy Commissioner, December 1896 a member of the Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08; officiated as Divisional Commissioner, 1909-10; retired from Service 1st March 1910; was Minister to C. P. Government from 18 Dec. 1920 to 27 March 1924. *Address:* Near Mental Hospital, Nagpur, C. P.

CHOKSY, DR. NUSSERAWANJEE HORMASJEE, C.I.E., 1922; Khan Bahadur (1897); Chevalier of the Crown of Italy (1899); Medallist des Epidences Republique Francaise (1906) M.D. (Hon. Causa), Freiburg, F.C.P.S. (Bombay), L.M. & S., (Bombay 1884) Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1912-27 Vice-President, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Hon. Secretary, Sir Leslie Wilson's Hospital Fund and the Viceroy's Leprosy Relief Fund b. 7 Oct. 1861; *m.* Serenbai Maneckjee Jhaveri. *Educ.:* Elphinstone High School and Grant Medical College

Med. S. p. e. n. d. e. n. t. A. w. o. r. t. h. L. e. p. e.
Assum. 1890-97; Medical Superintendent
of Arthur Road Plague and Infectious
Diseases Hospital (1888-1921) and Maratha
Plague Hospital (1902-1921). *Publications*:
Numerous publications on Plague, Cholera,
Relapsing Fever, Leprosy, Special reports
connected with these subjects, etc. *Address*:
Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill.

IRISTOPHERS, LIEUT.-COL. S. A. M. U. E. L.
RICKARD, M.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.M.S.:
F.R.S., Director, Central Research Institute.
Address: Central Research Institute, Kasauli.

LARKE, MAJOR ROBERT WILLIAM, A.M.
Inst. C.E., M.I.M.E., H.M. Trade Commis-
sioner, Bombay. b. 20 Jan. 1872. m. Dorothy
Ann St. Aubyn, d. of late Major W. J. St.
Aubyn, Durham. Educ. at Mal-
vern College and ... Mines.
North West R. ... and
Bikaner State, from 1895-1901. Served as
Mining and Civil Engineer in Australia,
Canada, British North Borneo, Russia,
Roumania and Spain. Joined 6th Batt.
York and Lancaster Regiment, August 1914,
and served in France till March 1919.
Seconded to Foreign Office, March 1919 and
served on Railway Mission to Poland, Econo-
mic Mission in Central and Eastern Europe,
and as Economic Expert to the Interallied
Fleets Commission in Upper Silesia up to
September 1922. Was Member of the Economic
Experts Conference in Paris, 1921 and Foreign
Office delegate to the League of Nations on
the Upper Silesian question, 1921. Lectured
before the British Institute of International
Affairs, May 1923 on "The Influence of Fuel
on International Politics." *Address*: Ex-
change Buildings, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

CLARKE, WALTER DOUGLAS MONTGOMERY,
H. M. Trade Commissioner, Calcutta. Born
3rd March, 1890. *Educ.*: High School, Kelso and
Trinity College, Glenalmond. In business
in Burma and India, 1911-1921; joined Indian
Army Reserve of Officers, 1915; served with
28th Dogras, Mohmand campaign, 1915-16;
appointed Asstt. Cable Censor, Madras, 1916;
and Deputy Controller (Hides), Indian Muni-
cipal Board, Bombay, 1918-19; Hon. Secretary,
Cochin Chamber of Commerce and Member,
Cochin Harbour 'ad hoc' Committee, 1921.
Address: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

CLAYTON, HUGH BYARD, C.I.E. (1924); I.C.S.
Municipal Commr., Bombay. b. 24 Dec. 1877.
m. Annie Blanch Nepean. *Educ.*: St. Paul's
School, Wadham College, Oxford. 1st Class
Hon. Mods. 1st Class Lt. Hum. Came to India
1901; served in Bombay Presidency; employed
in Military Intelligence Branch of War
Office, 1914-19. *Address*: Mount Pleasant
Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

CLOW, ANDREW GUTHRIE, M.A., J.P., F.R.S.
C.I.E. (1928); Indian Civil Service, b. 29
April 1890. m. Annette Mavis Dunderdale,
1925. *Educ.*: Merchiston Castle School,
Edinburgh, St. John's College, Cambridge.
Served in U. P. as Asstt. Collector, Assistant
... Officer,
... Bureau,
... Seamen's

Under-Secretary to Government of India
1923-4, Adviser and delegate, International
Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921 and 1922,
Dy. Secretary to Government of India
Department of Industries and Labour, 1924-7
Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923, 1925-7.
Publications: Indian Factory Law Adminis-
tration (1921); The Indian Workmen's Com-
pensation Act (1924), Indian Factory Leg-
islation, a Historical Survey (1927), etc.
Address: 9, Hastings Road, New Delhi.

CLUTTERBUCK, SIR PETER HENRY, Kt.
(1924); C.I.E., 1918, C.B.E., 1919; V.D., 1912
F.R.G.S., F.Z.S., F.E.S.; Inspector-General of
Forests to the Government of India since 1921
b. 1863; s. of late Alexander Clutterbuck of
Red Hall, Watford. m. 1896, Rose Winifred,
d. of Alfred ... formerly
District ... Central
Provinces ...
College, Bloxham; Coopers Hill, Royal
Indian Engineering College, Indian Forest
Service, Central Provinces, 1889; trans-
ferred to the United Provinces, 1899
Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1899
Conservator of Forests, Eastern Circle,
U.P., 1913; Chief Conservator of Forests
U. P., 1915; Kaisar-i-Hind Medal (silver),
1911; served in Volunteer forces, 1887-1916
Hon. A.J.C. to the Lieut.-Governor of the U. P.
1916-18; Lt.-Col. in command of the (Northern)
U. P. Horse of the India Defence Force
1917-18; was Member of U. P. Legislative
Council, 1919-20. *Address*: Simla.

CODDEN-RANSAY, LOUIS EVELING BAY
TREE, J.P., C.I.E., I.C.S. Political Agent
Orissa Feudatory States, since 1905; b. 4
Oct. 1873. m. Dorothy Forster Grieve
d. of C. J. Grieve, J.P. Buxton Park
Educ.: Dulwich College, Sidney; Sussex
College, Cambridge. Arrived in India
1897; Under-Secretary to Govt. of Bengal
in Revenue and General Dpt., 1900
Registrar, Co-operative Credit Societies, 1906
Publication: Gazetteer, Orissa Feudatory
States. *Address*: Sambalpur, B. N. Railway

COLVIN, GEORGE LETHBRIDGE, O. B. (1916)
C.M.G. (1918); D.S.O. (1916); Commandant
of the Order of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus
(Italy), 1920; Agent, East Indian Railway
b. 27 March 1878. m. Katherine Mylne, d.
of James Mylne of Edinburgh *Educ.*
Westminster. Joined R. I. Railway, 1898
served in Army (France and Italy) during
war, 1914-1919; Hon. Brigadier General
in Army; Director of Development Ministry
of Transport, London, from 1919 to 1921
Rejoined R. I. Ry. in 1921 as Agent
Address: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

CONNOR, LIEUT.-COLONEL SIR FRANK POWELL
Kt. (1926), D.S.O., F.R.C.S., I. M. S. Pro-
fessor of Surgery, Medical College, Calcutta
1877. m. Grace Ellen Leach, d. of late R. I.
Hospital London
War service
Brevet Lieut
Colonel; Professor of Surgery, Medical College
Address: 2, Upper Wood Street, Calcutta

RACTOR, MISS NAVABAI DORADJI, B.A., Hon. Presidency Magistrate; Lady Assistant, Chanda Ranji High School, Ray Educ.: Wilson College, Bombay. Indian Lady Fellow in Arts in the Bombay University (1922); an extensive traveller throughout India, Burma and Ceylon; and China, Japan, United States of America and Europe. Publications: Contributions on topical national and social subjects in English and Marathi newspapers published in London, Harding House, London.

E, Major-General HERBERT FOTHERBY, K.B.E. (1924); C.B. (1919); C.S.I. (1911); D.S.O. (1917); I.A.; Commanding Rajputana District from April 1924. 8 Nov., 1871. m. 1923, Harriet Mary nby Educ.: AN Hallows School, Honiton; C. Sandhurst. First Commission, 1892; ed Indian Army, 1893; Captain, 1901; or, 1910; Brevet Lt.-Col., 1912; Sub-ave Lt.-Colonel, 1916; Bt.-Col., 1917; stantive Colonel, 1917; Temporary Major-eral (1918), Substantive Major-General 1), served Chitral, 1895 (medal and 1 p), Tirah, 1897 (2 clasps); Waziristan, 2 (clasp); Tibet Expedition and March hessa, 1904 (medal and clasp); European r from Jan. 1915 to October 1917 (des-her seven times. C.B., D.S.O., Bt.-Col.); ral years on Staff Appointments in India uring 4 years as Dy. Adjutant-General India and officiating Adjutant General n March to Sept. 1920. Military Secretary, ny Headquarters, 1922-24. Address: Messrs. Grindlay & Co., Bankers.

EL, Rev. FRANCIS STEPHEN, B. C. op of Nagpur, since 1907; b. Les Gets oy, 5 Jan. 1867. Educ.: College of Erian iversity of France, Lyons, B.A., B. Sc. ered Congregation of Missionaries of St. ners de Sales, Annecy; Priest, 1890; sent India for mission of Nagpur, 1892; for en years attached to St. Francis de Sales lege, Nagpur, as professor and principal. Address: Nagpur.

LETT, GEOFFREY LATHAM, M.A. on), C.I.E. (1921); Joint Secretary, mmerce Department, Government of ia b. 9 Feb. 1881. m. Gladys Kate, of late George Bennett, Esq., Little ington Manor, Glos. Educ.: Broml-ve School, Hertford Coll., Oxford, 1st s Hon. Mods. (1902), 1st Class Lit. m (1904). Passed into I.C.S., 1904; tt Commissioner, C. P., 1905-09, Settle-nt Officer, Saugor, 1910-16; Dy. Commis-ner, C. P., 1916-18; Dir. of Industries 1 Dy. Secretary, C. P., 1918; Dy. Secry Com. Depart., Government of India, 9 21, on deputation, South and East ia, 1920; Washington Disarmament ference, 1921; Fiji Islands, 1922; Director Industries and Registrar, Co-operative dit Societies, C. P., 1923; Offg. Secretary, mmerce Department, Government of India, 23 24. Address: Commerce Department, vernment of India, Delhi and Simla.

LEJASAM, JOHN PRADASA RAO, M.A. U Prior of 1 Wardaw College ery 1831 1918 b 9th Dec 1860 m

Miss Padmanji, d of the Rev. Baba Padmanji of Bombay. Educ.: Madras Christian Coll. Asst. Master, London Mission High School, Madras; Headmaster, Wesley Coll.; Principal, Hindu Coll., Cuddalore, 1889-1891; Member, Bellary Dist. Board and Taluk Board since 1895; Vice-Presdt., Dist. Board, 1901-1, Member, Bellary Municipal Council since 1893, Presdt., District Educational Council, Bellary, 1921-24. Represented Indian Christian Community and Madras Presidency on the Legis. Assembly, 1921-23. Address: Rock Cottage, Bellary.

COTTERELL, CECIL BERNARD, C.I.E., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Local Self-Government Department, Madras (1924). m. 1922. Educ.: St. Peter's School, York Balliol College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1898; has served in the Madras Presidency, since 1899; Deputy Commissioner, Salt and Abkari Dept., 1905; Private Sec. to Governor of Madras, 1912-15. Address: Madras.

COTTON, CHARLES WILLIAM EGBERTON, C.I.D. (1920), Agent to the Governor-General, Madras States, 1923. b 1874. Educ.: Eton and Univ. Coll., Oxford; I.C.S., 1897. District work in Madras until 1907 when appointed Asstt Director of Statistics, Calcutta; Offg. Dir.-Genl., Commercial Intelligence, 1908-10, Offg. Dir. of Industries, Madras, 1909-10, Dy. Secy. to the Govt. of Madras, 1911-12, Dy. Secy., Govt. of India, 1912-15; Collector of Customs, Calcutta, 1916-21; Director of Industries, Madras, 1921. Publications: Review of the Trade of India, 1908 and 1910; Calcutta Chatterbox, 1918; Handbook of Commercial Information, 1919. 2nd Edition, 1924. Address: The Residency, Trivandrum, Travancore.

COUBROUGE, ANTHONY CATHCART, C.B.E. (1918); M.A., B.Sc. O.E., M.I.E.E., M.I. Mech. E., M.I.E. (Ind.); Director, Messrs. Mather and Platt, Ltd. b 10th Feb. 1877. Educ.: Glasgow University. Joined Mather and Platt, Ltd in 1898 as apprentice, subsequently became General Manager, Electrical Department and in that capacity travelled widely on the Continent went to India and South Africa and eventually returned to India to establish Mather and Platt's own office in Calcutta, Bombay and other centres for the control of their business from Mesopotamia to the Straits has travelled in China, Japan, United States of America, Australia and Egypt. During war services were lent to Govt. of India, under Munitions Board was Controller of Priority and latterly Controller of Munitions Manufacture. Publications: Pamphlets on Technical and Economic subjects. Address: 7, Hare Street, Calcutta.

COUSINS, JAMES HENRY, Doctor of Literature of Keioijuku University, Japan, (1922). Principal, Brahmavidya Ashrama (School of International Culture), Adyar, Madras. m Margaret E. Cousins, B. Mus. J.P. (1903). Educ.: at various schools in Ireland and partly in Trinity College, Dublin (Teachers' Course). Private Secretary to Lord Mayor of Belfast. Asstt. Master, Belfast Mercantile y Asstt High School Dublin. Reporter to Royal Academy of M in Ireland D tor in Geography and

Geology, Summer Course, Royal Col. of Science, Ireland; Asstt. Editor, "New India," Madras; Principal, Theosophical College, Madanapalle; Fellow and Prof. of English, National University, Adyar; University Extension and Post Graduate Lecturer, Calcutta University, Benares Hindu University, Mysore University; Visiting Lecturer, Tagore's Visva-Bharati, Bengal; Registrar, The Theosophical World University, Adyar Centre-Organising Secretary, The Theosophical World University Association (India); Genl. Editor, Theosophical World University Text books; a co-founder of the Irish Literary and Dramatic Revival (1900, etc.); poet, dramatist, critic, educationist philosopher. *Publications*: (Prose) A text-book of Modern Geography, The Wisdom of the West, The Basis of Theosophy, The Renaissance in India, The Kingdom of Youth, Footsteps of Freedom, New Ways in English Literature, Modern English Poetry, The Cultural Unity of Asia, The Play of Brahma, Work and Worship, The New Japan, The Philosophy of Beauty, Heathen Essays, Samadarsana; (Poetry) Ben Madigham, Sung by Six, The Blessed King, The Voice of One, The Awakening, The Bell Branch, Etern the Beloved, Straight and Crooked, The Garland of Life, Ode to Truth, Moulled Feathers, The King's Wife (drama), Sea-Change, Surya Gita, Forest Meditation, Above the Rainbow, A Tibetan Banner. *Address*: Theosophical Society, Adyar, Madras.

JUSINS, MRS. MARGARET E., Bachelor of Music (Royal University of Ireland, 1902), Honorary Secretary, Women's Indian Association and Hon. Magistrate, Madras. b. 7 Nov. 1878. m. Dr. J. H. Cousins. *Educ.*: Dublin and Londonderry. Solo pianist before marriage; afterwards became interested in reform movements in addition to music; Secretary, Irish Vegetarian Society; Hon. Treasurer and foundation member of Irish Women's Franchise League, a militant suffrage society in which she worked for seven years and suffered imprisonment twice in the cause. Left Ireland 1913; spent two years in Liverpool, came to India in Oct. 1915. *Publications*: articles in many newspapers and magazines; author of "The Awakening of Asian Womanhood." *Address*: Lead-beater Chambers, Adyar, Madras.

JOVENTRY, BERNARD, C.I.E., 1912; Agricultural Adviser to Indian States in Central India, since 1918; formerly Agricultural Adviser to Govt. of India, Director of Agricultural Research Institute, and Principal of Agricultural College, Pusa, Behar. b. 10 Dec 1859. *Educ.*: Beaumont Coll. Came to India, 1881, and joined indigo industry; started agricultural research station on modern lines, 1899; on foundation of Pusa Agricultural Research Institute and College, 1904, was made first Director and Principal; acted as Insp. Gen. of Agriculture and became first Agricultural Adviser to Govt. of India; retired 1918. *Address*: Indore, C.I.

OX, VERN LORNE, M.A., Senior Chaplain, St. George's Cathedral, and Chaplain of St. George's Cathedral, b. 28 March 1868.

Educ.: Somerset College; Bath; Dorchester Theological College; Durham University. Deacon, 1891; Priest, 1894; joined Madras Ecclesiastical Establishment, 1898; Archdeacon of Madras and Bishop's Commissary 1910. *Address*: Cathedral, Madras.

CRAIK, HENRY DUFFIELD, B.A. (OXON), C.S.I., (1924), Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab. b. 2nd January 1876. m. to E.H. & O. Baker-Carr. *Educ.*: Eton and Pembroke Coll., Oxford. Joined I.C.S. 1899 and served in the Punjab and with the Government of India in various capacities since then. *Address*: C/o. Civil Secretariat, Lahore.

CRERAB, JAMES, C.S.I. (1922); C.I.E. (1917) Home Member, Govt. of India since July 1927. b. 1877. m. to Evelyn, d. of the late Hon. Charles Brand. Educated at George Watson College, Edinburgh; Edinburgh University and Balliol College (Oxon). Assistant Collector Sind; Manager of Enumbered Estates, Sind Assistant Commissioner in Sind; Deputy Municipal Commissioner, Bombay; Municipal Commissioner, Bombay; Private Secretary to H. E. the Governor of Bombay; Sec. to Govt. of Bombay, Home Dept. Secretary to the Govt. of India, Home Dept., Acting Home Member, Government of India, 1926. *Address*: The Secretariat, Delhi or Simla.

CROSTHWAIT, REV. CANON ARTHUR Exhibitioner of Pembroke College, Cambridge B.A. (Sen. Opt.), 1892, Delhi Durbar Medal 1911, Kaisar-i-Hind Medal, 1st Class 1923, Missionary, S.P.G. b. 2 Nov. 1870. m. to Kate Louisa Barlow. *Educ.*: at St. Peter's School York and Pembroke College, Cambridge Missionary, S. P. G. and Vice-Principal, Christ Church College, Cawnpore, 1898 1909 Principal, 1910-1912; Fellow of Allahabad Univ. 1905; Hon. Fellow, 1918; Chaplain of Moradabad and Head of S. P. G. Mission 1909-10 and 1912 to present date, Canon of All Saints' Cathedral, Allahabad, 1921. *Publications*: "The Lessons of the Rig Veda for Modern India," "Patriotism," "Theosophy," Commentary on II Corinthians in The Indian Church Commentary Series, "Tawaron par sawal o jawab," "Du' a ki kitab par sawal o jawab," "Asha-i-Bab bami tarlib par sawal o jawab." *Address*: S P G Mission, Moradabad, U.P.

CRUMP, LESLIE MAURICE, C.I.E. (1921) Resident at Gwalior (1924). b. 12 September 1875. m. Jean Dunlop McKerrrow, d. of Dr. George McKerrrow of Ayr, Scotland, 1 s. 1 d. *Educ.*: Merchant Taylors School, Merton Coll., Oxford; Rugby football blue, 1896 27. Entered I.C.S., Bengal, 1898. Pol. Dept. Govt. of India, 1900. Served in Hyderabad, N. W. Frontier, Central India, Punjab States and Baroda. *Publications*: The Marriage of Nausicaa and other poems. *Address*: The Residency, Gwalior.

CRUMP, The Hon. Sir Louis Charles, Kt (1922) I.C.S., Paine Judge, High Court, Bombay. b. 2nd Jan 1869. m. Alice Russell. *Educ.*: Privately and at Balliol College, Oxford. Civil Service. *Address*: High Court

UMING, THE HON. MR. ARTHUR HERBERT, Judge, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* 24 Nov. 1871. *m.* Beryl Christine Anstey. *Educ.*: Westminster School, Oriel College, Oxford. *Service*, 1893, as Assistant Magistrate, Assam, Dist. and Bengal and Assam, and Branches, Bengal; appointed as Judge, High Court, from 1916; apptd. Judge, High Court, Nov. 10, 1921. *Address*: 2, Alipur Park, Calcutta.

URRIMBOY EBRAHIM, Sir, 2nd Baronet (Mahomedbhoy Currimbhoy Ebrahim), Merchant and Millowner. *b.* 11 Sep. 1867. *m.* Sakinabai, *d.* of the late Mr. Jairambhoy Pirbhoy. *Educ.*: privately. A leading member of the Khoja Moslem Community: a trustee of the Port of Bombay for 18 years; member, Municipal Corporation, for over 20 years; a director on the board of a number of industrial concerns and of the Bank of India; member, Advisory Committee of the Dept. of Industry and the Industrial Disputes Committee, Member of the Board of the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, nominated by Government Sheriff, Bombay, 1922; Kaisar-i-Hind, Gold Medal, 1921; Knight Bachelor, 1924. Succeeded his father, the 1st Bt., in 1921. *Address*: Belvedere, Warden Road, Bombay.

UTTRISS, C. A., M.B.E., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.A., Sec. Burma Chamber of Commerce, Commercial Member of the Burma Boiler Commission and Hon. Magistrate, Rangoon. *b.* Launceston, 28 Nov. 1868. *m.* Janet, *d.* of Dr. Hayter M.D.; was Hon. Sec., Burma "Our Day" Fund, Burma War Fund, Rangoon Rivercraft Committee and Rangoon Impressment of Shipping Committee during the war. *Publications*: "Memories of Old Rangoon"; "Hints to Arbitrators"; and Essays on Commercial Subjects. *Address*: P.O. Box 324, Rangoon.

DADABHOY, SIR MANCKJI BYRAMJI, C.I.E. (1911); Kt. (1921); K.C.I.E. (1925); Member, Council of State. *b.* (Bombay, 30 July 1865. *m.* 1884, Bai Jerhanoo, O. B. E., *d.* of Khan Bahadur Dadabhoi Pallonji of the Commissariat Dept. *Educ.*: Proprietary High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Middle Temple, 1884; called to Bar, 1887; Advocate of Bombay High Court, 1887; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1880-90; Government Advocate, Central Provinces, 1891; President, Prov. Industrial Conference, Rajpur, 1907; President, All-India Industrial Conference, Calcutta, 1911; Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1908-12 and 1914-17, a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920-27). Elected to the Council of State, 1921; and nominated 1926 Member, Fiscal Commission appointed by Govt. of India, Sept. 1921; Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance, 1925-26. Member, Municipal Board, Nagpur, for 36 years; Managing Director, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co., Ltd., Berar Manufacturing Co., Ltd., and the Model Mills, Nagpur, Limited. Proprietor, Ballapur Sassi Ghugus and Pigeon-Rearer. Collieries from Mao Mines in the

Central Provinces and Berar and Behar and Orissa; Several Gin and Press Factories in all parts of India. *Publications*: Commentary on the Land Laws of the Central Provinces, and Commentary on the Central Provinces Tenancy Act. *Address*: Nagpur, C.P.

DAGA, RAI BAHADUR SETH SIR BISERNADAS, Kt. (1921), Senior Proprietor of the firm of Rai Bahadur Bansilal Abeerchand Banker, Govt. Treasurer, landlord, merchant, millowner and mine owner, Director, Central Bank of India, of Model Mills, Nagpur, and of Berar Manufacturing Company, Badnera, Chairman, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Company. Life Member of the Countess of Dufferin Fund and member of the Legislative Assembly of the Bikaner State and Vice-Chairman of the Managing Body of the Indian Red Cross Society. *b.* 1877. *m.* Krishna Bai. *Educ.*: privately. Second Class Tazim, Bikaner State. *Publications*: Sir Kasturchand Memorial Dufferin Hospital at Nagpur and frequent contributions on public charity. *Address*: Nagpur (C.P.) and Bikaner (Rajputana).

DALAL, SARDAR SIR BOMANJI ARDASHIR, Kt. (1927), First Class Merchant; Member of the Assembly since Jan. 1864. *Educ.*: Broach and Bombay. *m.* Bai Navabai Bomanji Dalal. Owns 3,000 acres of land colonizing six thriving villages in out of the way places in Panch Mahals, and Gackwar Frontier on West and South of his estate. *Address*: Baroda Residency.

DALAL, SIR DADIBA MEHWANJEE, Kt. (1924), C.I.E. (1921), Stock and Finance Broker, *b.* 12 Dec. 1870. *m.* 1890; one & three *d.* *Educ.*: in Bombay. Gave evidence before the Chamberlain Currency Commission (1913); Member of the Committee on Indian Exchange and Currency (1919) and wrote minority report; Chairman, Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee, Bombay (1921); Member of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 19 Nov. 1921; at Inter- and re- (1922). Member of the Incheape Committee, 1922-23. Delegate for India at the Imperial Economic Conference (1923). High Commissioner for India in the U.K., 1922-24.1, *Address*, Marine Lines, Bombay.

DAMLE, RAO BAHADUR KESHAV GOVIND, C.I.E. (1921); High Court Vakil, Akola (Berar). *b.* 25 June, 1868. *Educ.* Akola, Deccan Coll., Poona. Law Class, Bombay. Practised law at Akola since 1895. Member, C.P. Legis. Council, 1914-15. Chairman, Co-op. Central Bank, Ltd., Akola, since 1911. Member of Committee appointed by C. P. Govt. to draw up a scheme of village panchayats. Member of Committee on Co-operative Societies in C.P. appointed by Govt. in 1921; First President of Joint Board of Berar Dist. Boards since 1922; Vice-President, Akola District Board, from 1902 to May 1925; President, Bar Ascon, Akola, for many years. President, Berar Liberals and Member of Co-operative Institute, Berar. *Address*: Akola.

RLBY, BERNARD D'OLIER, C.I.E. (1919), Chief Engineer, P. W. D. United Provinces. b. 24 August 1880 *Educ.*: T. C. Dublin and Cooper's Hill. *A.M.I.C.E.* Irrigation work in P. W. D. since 1908. *Address*: Lucknow, U. P.

S, BRAJA SUNDAR, B.A., Member, Legislative Assembly; Zamindar and Proprietor of a press and cultivation. b. July 1880. m. o. Umashundari, 4th d. of Rai Sudam Charn Naik Bahadur. *Educ.*: Ravenshaw Coll. and Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Took part in Utkal Union Conference since its beginning in 1904 and Secy for two years; Vice-President, Utkalsahitya Samaj; President, Oriya Peoples Association; Vice-President, Orissa Assocn., and Ramkrishna Sevaka Samaj; Was President Central Youngmen's Association, Member, Sakthigopa Temple Committee; Was Member of Cuttack Municipality and District Board; Member, Bihar and Orissa Council, 1916-1920; Fellow of Patna University and member of the Syndicate. *Publications*: Editor of the Oriya Monthly Muktan and of the only English Weekly in Orissa "The Oriya." *Address*: Cuttack.

AS, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BABADUR DEWAN BISHAN, C.I.E., C.S.I. b. Jan. 1865. *Educ.* at Punjab Government College, Lahore; Private Secretary to Raja Sir Ramsingh, K.C.B., 1886-1898; Mily. Secy. to the Com-in-Chief, Jammu and Kashmir, 1898-1909; Mily. Secy. to H. H. the Maharaja, 1909-14; Home Minister to H. H. the Maharaja, 1914-18, Rev. Minister, 1918-1921 and Chief Minister, March 1921 April 1922. Retired from Service. *Address*: Jammu and Kashmir.

AS, MADHU SUDAN, C.I.E. b. 28 April 1848. *Educ.*: Calcutta University. M.A., B.L., M.B.A.S., F.N.B.A. Represented Orissa in Bengal Legislative Council four times; Fellow of Calcutta University; elected by Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa to Imperial Council, 1913; nominated to Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa. Minister (Local Self-Government), Bihar and Orissa, since Jan. 1921; elected by Municipalities of Orissa to his present seat in Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council. Is the proprietor of Utkal Tannery and of the Orissa Art Wares. Ex-President of All-India Indian Christian Conference; Advocate, Patna High Court. *Address*: Cuttack, B. N. Ry.

JAS, PANDIT NILAKANTHA, M.A., writer of books for children on new lines. b. August, 1884. m. Srimati Radhamañi Debi (1905). *Educ.*: Puri Zilla School, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack and Scottish Churches College, Calcutta. Founded with Pt. Gopabandhu Das and others the residential open air private school at Satyabadi on a new line; was Resident Head Master there for 8 years; worked in connection with Puri Famine in 1919; apptd. by Calcutta University for Post Graduate Professorship in 1920 and non-co-operated in 1921. Started Congress organisation and a National High School at Sambalpur and edited "The Seba" in 1922; became Dist. Congress Secretary, Puri, and Prov. Congress President, Utkal, 1922. Imprisoned for four months and fined Rs. 200 in 1923; elected to the Assembly from Orissa in 1924

and again in 1924. P. D. ... P. D. ... (a kavya in six cantos); Konarko (a long poem kavya); Mayadebi (a kavya in 6 cantos); Kharabala (a historical kavya in 25 cantos); Dasa Nayak (a long poem kavya); Aryajñan (Aryan life, a critical treatise on Aryan civilisation); many other books for children. *Address*: P. O. Sakthigopal, Dist. Puri (Orissa).

DAS, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE PROF. RANJAN, Judge, High Court, Patna, 1819 b. 28 April, 1831. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Calcutta. m. Dorothy Mary Evans 1904. *Address*: Ali Manzil, Patna.

DAS, SATISH RANJAN, Member of the Viceroy's Council (Law), Nov. 1925. b. 29 February 1872. *Educ.*: Manchester Grammar School m. Donohata, d. of the late B. L. Gupta, I.C.S. called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1894 Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1894. Standing Counsel to Government of India, 1917 served on the Racial Distinctions Committee, 1922, and on the Indian Bar Committee, 1923 Advocate-General, Bengal, 1922. *Address*: Simla and Delhi.

DAVIES, THE REV. CANON ARTHUR WHITCOMBE (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1921); Principal St. John's College, Agra, b. 1878. m. Lillian Mabel Birney. *Educ.*: Uppingham School Univ. College, Oxford; Church Missionary Society, Lahore, 1906; Ordained Ripon Diocese 1908; Joined St. John's College, Agra, 1909 Principal, 1913; Canon of Lucknow, 1917 Temporary Member, U. P. Legislative Council 1926. *Address*: St. John's College, Agra.

DAVISON, DEXTER HARRISON, Doctor of Dental Surgery. b. 29 Sept. 1869. m. Margaret St. Clair. *Educ.*: Chicago University. *Address*: Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Apollo Bunder, Bombay.

DE, KIRAN CHANDRA, A.B., C.I.E., I.C.S. Commissioner of Chittagong since 1916 b. Calcutta, 19 January 1871. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta; St. John's College, Cambridge; Registrar of Co-operative Societies, also Fishery Officer, 1905 Magistrate-Collector, Rangpur, 1911; Member of Bengal District Administration Committee, 1913; Press Censor, Bengal, 1914. Secretary to Govt. of Bengal, Genl. Dept., 1915 Member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India, 1920. *Address*: 1, Dumdum Road, Cossipore, Calcutta, Brookside, Shillong.

DEHLAVI, THE HON. AMI MAHOMED KHAN J.P. Bar-at-Law (1896); President, Bombay Legislative Council, b. 1874. *Educ.*: Bombay and London. Practised in Gujarat and Sind. Dewan at Mangrol (Kathiawar) and Palanpur acted as Judge of the Small Causes Court, Bombay. *Publications*: History and Origin of Polo; Mendicancy in India. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

DE, J. T. C. ... Member ... Aug 1871 ... Calcutta ... Commissioner, Lyalpur, 1907; Settlement Officer, Chenab, 1907; Junior Secy. to Financial ... 1911 on special duty to

connection with transfer of capital to Delhi, 1912; Personal Assistant and Dy. Commr. till 1918; Dy. Secretary, Foreign and Political Deptt., Govt. of India, 1920-21; Chief Secretary to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales during the Royal Tour in India; Chief Secretary to Punjab Government; Private Secy. to the Governor, 1921-26. *Address:* Secretariat, Lahore.

DENHAM-WHITE, ARTHUR, M.B.B.S. (Hons), Lond. 1904, M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P. (Eng.) 1908; F.R.C.S., Civil Surgeon, Alipore, Calcutta, b. Feb. 26, 1879. *m* E. Gratton Geary (nee Davis). *Educ.:* Malvern College and St Bartholomew Hospital; Gold Medalist Netley. Entered I.M.S., 1905. Resident Surgeon, Medical College Hospital, Calcutta, also Eden Hospital and Presidency General Hospital; active service in Mesopotamia 1916-18; Offg. Professor of Surgery, Medical Course in 1922; Civil Surgeon, Darjeeling, 1919-1922; Civil Surgeon, Alipore, 1923. *Publications:* Monograph on delayed Chloroform Poisoning; Monograph on Toxic Alipore of Organic Arsenic. *Address:* 25, Bheebo Park, Calcutta.

DENNING, HOWARD, B.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E., I.C.S., Controller of the Currency, b. 20, May 1885. *m* Margery Katherine Wemyss, Browne. *Educ.:* Clifton College and Caius College, Cambridge, 10th Wrangler, Indian Civil Service, Assistant Collector, Bombay Presidency; Under-Secretary, Finance Department of India, Joint Secretary of Balington Smith Currency Commission, Deputy Controller of the Currency, Bombay, and Controller of the Currency. *Address:* Hastings House, Alipore, Calcutta.

DESHMUKH, RAMRAO MADHAVRAO, B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law, Minister, C. P. Government. b. 25, November 1892. *m* Shashikala Raje, d. of late Sardar Kadam of Gwalior. *Educ.:* at Cambridge. President, All-India Maratha Conference, Belgaum, 1917; Practised at Amraoti in 1918 and at Nagpur, 1919-20; elected to C. P. Legislative Council in 1920 for Amraoti West Constituency; elected to All-India Congress Committee in 1921; elected to Legislative Council in 1923 as Swarajist President of the Maharashtra Conference at Satara in 1925; elected first chairman of District Council, Amraoti, 1925; elected to Council for C. P. Government in February 1926. *Address:* Secretariat, Nagpur, C. P., and Amraoti (Berar).

DESIKACHARI, SIR TIRUMALAI. DIWAN BAHADUR, Kt. (1922), B.A., B.L., recipient Kaiser-i-Hind Medal. High Court Vakil. b. Sep. 1868. *m* Cousin, d. of Diwan Bahadur T. M. Rangachari. *Educ.:* Pachaiyappa's and Presidency Colleges. Was Member, Madras Legis. Council; President, District Board, Trichinopoly, for three terms till 17 April 1926; Member of the Legislative Council for two terms till 1924. Member Civil Justice Committee, India, till 1925.

Park." Reynolds Road, Cantonment, Trichinopoly.

DEULGHAT, NAWAB OF, NAWAB MOHD SALAMULLAH KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR, C.I.E., b. 1859. *Educ.:* Akola and under private tutors. Chief Officer, Famine Relief 1899. First Class Hon. Magistrate with special powers for the past 40 years; Member, C. P. Legislative Council in pre-reform days, being only Mahomedan Member of Council, Mem. Ijra Commn. and several other Commissions and Committees. Vice-President, Muslim University Foundation Committee; President of Reception Committee of All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference at Nagpur and Amraoti Sessions; Member, Governing Body of King Edward College, Amraoti. First non-official President of District Council in the Province. Is the premier jagirdar of Berar and owns 8,000 acres of land in Berar and Nizam's Dominions. *Address:* Bonlghat, District Buldana, Berar.

DEVADHAR, GOPAL KRISHNA (Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal in 1920), Vice-President, Servants of India Society, b. 1871. *m* Dwarkabai Sohani of Poona. *Educ.:* New English School, Poona, and Wilson College, Bombay. M.A., Bombay University, 1904. Served as Principal of the Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay, was Examiner of the Bombay University for Matriculation and M. A. examinations in Marathi for more than five years. Joined the late G. K. Gokhale in his public work, 1904, and was first member to join Servants of India Society, 1905, awarded Kaisar-i-Hind Silver Medal in 1914. Worked as Vice-President of the Servants of India Society for 3 years since 1923 and is again re-elected Vice-President of the Society for 3 years more. He has been ever since its beginning in Bombay Head of Bombay Branch. Toured in England and on the Continent in 1918 as member of Indian Press Delegation. He is the founder and Hon. Organiser and General Secretary of the Poona Seva Sadan Society, started in 1909, and now Hon. General Secretary of the National Social Conference. Organiser of the Malabar Relief Fund, 1921; and South Indian and Malabar Flood Relief Fund in 1924, has worked on several Committees appointed by Government. Now the elected President of the Bombay Central Co-operative Institute of which for more than five years he had been Vice-President; Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank. Has published several pamphlets on Co-operation, Female Education and Social Reform. In January 1927 he received the distinction of C. I. E. and in June 1927 was unanimously elected as President of the Servants of India Society, Poona. *Address:* Ghrigum, Bombay.

DEVERELL, MAJOR-GENERAL SIR CYRIL JOHN K.B.E. (1926), C.B. (1918). Quarter-Master-General (India), since Feb. 1927. b. 9 Nov 1874. s. of late Major J. B. S. Deverell m. 1902, Hilda, d. of Col. G. Grant-Dalton The P.W.O. West Yorkshire Regt. Edeford Bedford School, 2nd Lieut., The P.W.O. West Yorkshire Regt. 1895. Adjutant, 1st West Yorkshire Regt., 1903-6. passed Staff

College, 1907; Brigade-Major, India, 1908-11; General Staff, India, 1913-14; Brigade-Major, B.E.F., 1914-15; commanded 4th East Yorkshire Regt., 1915; 20th Infantry Brigade, 7th Division, 1915-16; 3rd Division, Aug 1916-April 1919 (C.B.); Officer of the Legion of Honour; Croix de guerre with Palm; Bt.-Major, 1916; Bt.-Lt.-Col., 1916; Bt. Colonel, 1917, Promoted Major-General for distinguished service in the field, 1919; despatches 9 times; Welsh Division T. A., 1919-21; commanded United Provinces District, India, 1921-23. Appointed Local Lieut.-General, Feb. 1927. Address: Army Head quarters, Delhi and Simla.

HRANGADHRA, H. H. MAHARAJA SRI SIR GHANSHYAMSINHJI, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. MAHARAJA RAJ SAREB. b. 1889; Suc. father 1911. Educ. in England with private tutors under guardianship of Sir Charles Ollivant. Address: Dhrangadhra, Kathiawar.

HURANDHAR RAO BAHADUR MAHADEV VISHWANATH, A.M. Personal Assistant to the Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. b. 4th March 1871. m. Gangubai, 4th daughter of Madhavrao T. Rao. Educ. Rajaram High School, Kolhapur, and at the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. Appointed as a painting master on the staff of the School of Art, then as Head Master in 1909 to 1918. Acted as Inspector of Drawing and Craft Work, Bombay Presidency, in 1918 and 1919 and again in 1920 and in 1928, holding at present the post of the Personal Assistant to the Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. Publications: Illustrated C. A. Kincaid's (I.C.S.) (1) "Deccan Nursery Tales" (2) "Stories of King Vikram" (3) S. M. Edwardes' (I.C.S.) "Otto Rothfeld's (I.C.S.) and several other Marathi, Gujarathi, Hindi and Mythological books for Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Oxford University Press, Longmans Green & Co., and several other Indian publishing firms. Address: "Shree Amba Sadan," Prabhu Nagar, Khar, Bombay Suburban District B. B. & C. I. Ry.

DICK, GEORGE PARIS, C.I.E., 1916, Bar-at-Law; Member of C. P. Legislative Council, 1921, and of each preceding Council; Govt. Advocate, C.P. b. 1866. m. Effie Geraldine Newman. Educ. Dulwich College; called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1889; Advocate of Calcutta High Court, 1893; of the Judicial Commissioner Court, Nagpur, 1891; Lecturer in Law to the Morris College, Nagpur. President, New English High School and President, Nagpur Civil Station Municipal Council. Publication: "Fitch and His Fortunes. Address: The Kothi, Nagpur.

DINAJPUR, LIEUTENANT MAHARAJA JAGADISH NATH RAY BAHADUR, b. 1894. s. by adoption to Maharaja Sir Girija Nath Ray Bahadur, K.C.I.E. m. 1916. Educ.: Presidency College, Calcutta. President, Dinajpur Landholders' Board, Dinajpur. Member, Dinajpur Board, Dinajpur. Member, Indian Association, Calcutta. Member, Asiatic Society, Calcutta. Address: 11, London, Cal.

cutta Literary Society, North Bengal Zamindars' Assocn., Bangiya Sahitya Parishad. Received King's Commission in Jan. 1924. Address: Dinajpur Rajbhal, Dinajpur, 3 Middleton Row, Calcutta.

DONALD, DOUGLAS, C.S.I. (1921); C.I.E. Commandant, B. M. Police and Samana Rifles a. 1885; Educ.: Bishop Cotton School, Simla, Joined the Punjab Police Force at Ambala, 1888; transferred to Peshawar, 1889; appointed C.B.M. Police, Kohat, 1890; served Miran-zai Expeditions, 1891, on Samana posts and Tirah, re-transferred to Kohat, 1899; on special duty to raise Samana Rifles. Address: Military Police, Kohat.

DORNAKAL, BISHOP OF, since 1912; Rt. Rev. VEDANAYAKAM SAMUEL AZARIAH [1st Indian bishop, Hon. LL.D. (Canab.); b. 17 Aug. 1874. Educ.: C. M. S. High School, Mengnanappam C. M. S. College, Tinnevely; Madras Christian College. One of founders of Indian Missionary Society of Tinnevely, 1903; Hon. Secretary, 1903-9; Hon. Gen. Secretary of National Missionary Society of India, 1908-9; visited Japan as Delegate of World Student Christian Federation, 1907, and its Vice-President, 1909-11 visited England as Delegate to World's Missionary Conference, 1910; Head of Dornakal Mission, 1909-12. Publications: Holy Baptism, Confirmation, First Corinthians, etc. Address: Dornakal Singaperi Collieries, Deccan.

DUFF, REGINALD JAMES, General Manager New India Assurance Company, Ltd., Bombay. b. 11 July 1886. m. Olive A. Loukie. Educ. Whitgift Grammar School, North British and Mercantile Insurance Co., Ltd. London and Bombay. Address: Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay.

DUGGAN, JAMSHEDJI NUSSEERWANJI, D.O. (Oxon), F.O.P.S., Major, I.M.S. (Hon.) L.M. & S., J.P., Ophthalmic Surgeon in charge, Sir C. J. Ophthalmic Hospital and Professor of Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College, Parakh, London. Medical Surgeon to the Honorary Presidency Publications: Papers on Anterior Keratitis, diseases of the eye, papilla, Squint cases, etc. A familial group of the Sclerotics; Deep in filtration Anaesthesia in Ophthalmic Operations. Address: Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

DUHR, THE REV. JOSEPH, S.J., Ph.D., D.D. Principal, St. Xavier's College, Bombay. b. March 18th 1886. Educ. the Gymnasium Echternach Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. St. Joseph's College, Turnhout, Belgium. Manresa House, Southampton, London. St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst; Imperial College South Kensington. St. Mary's Theological

seminary. Kurseong, India; Gregorian University, Rome; Campion Hall, Oxford Professor at St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, 1910-1915; Professor at St. Xavier's College, Bombay, 1918-1921; Principal of St. Xavier's College, Bombay, from 1921. *Address*: St. Xavier's College, Cruickshank Road, Bombay.

DUNDAS, ROBERT THOMAS, C.I.E.; Inspector-General of Police, Bihar and Orissa, since 1914; additional Member of Lieut.-Governor's Council. *b.* 1863, *s. s.* of the late Donald William Dundas. *Address*: Bihar.

DUNI CHAND, LALA, B.A., Licentiate in law, Honours in Persian and Literature. (1894). Member, Legislative Assembly, Vakalat and Public Work. *b.* 1878.

Educ: Forman Christian Coll., Lahore. Practised. Entered public life and took part in various activities of the Arya Samaj since 1899; was manager of Anglo-Sanskrit High School, Amballa, from 1906-1921; Member, Managing Committee, D.A.V. College; resumed practice in 1923; presided over All-India Sudhi Conference in 1917; been a member, All-India Congress Committee, since 1920; was convicted and sentenced to six months' imprisonment in 1922 under Criminal Amendment Act; presided over Punjab Provincial Conference held in Rahtak in 1923; at present President, Provincial Swaraj Council, Punjab. *Address*: Kripa Nivas, Amballa.

DUNN, CUTHBERT LINDSAY, L.R.C.P. & S. (Edin.), D. P. H. (Lond.), C. I. B. (1923). Serban Order of St. Sava, 4th Class (1920); Director of Public Health, United Provinces *b.* 16th May 1875. *m.* to Janet Logan Dalgleish. *Educ*: Dollar Academy and Edinburgh University, South African War, February 1900 to August 1902. Entered I. M. S. 1st September 1902; Tibet Campaign, 1904; Civil Employ, Punjab, 1905 to 1910 on plague duty. Deputy Sanitary Commissioner, U. P., 1910-1914. War services 1914 to 1919. Three times mentioned in despatches; Director of Public Health, U. P., 1919 to date. *Publication*: Indian Hygiene and Public Health "Dunn and Pandya" 1925. Various papers in scientific journals. *Address*: Lucknow.

UNSTAN, ERIC CIPRIANI, B. A. (Oxon.), General Manager, Indian Broadcasting Company, Ltd., *b.* 16 April 1894. *Educ*: Radley College, Abingdon (Classical Scholar); Magdalen College, Oxford (Academical Clerk). During war served with 7th Service Bn. The Buffs. After the war became Private Secretary to H. Gordon Selfridge, Man. Director of Selfridges, later was Personal Assistant to the Principal Agent (Admiral Sir Reginald Hall M.P.) of the Conservative Party. *Address*: Moria House, Colaba, Bombay.

URBHANGA, MAHARAJADHIRAJ OF, SIR RAMESWARA SINGH BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., *cr.* 1915; K.C.I.E., *cr.* 1923; K.B.E., *cr.* 1918; 16 Jan. 1860; *s.* of Maharaja Maheshwar Singh Bahadur, twice married, *2nd s.* one *d.* is head of the Maithili Brahmins in India. *Edu*: Durbhanga, Muzaffarpore and Benares. Appointed Assistant Magistrate (In-

dian Statutory Civil Service), 1877; resigned, 1885, to manage his own extensive estates, received title, Raja Bahadur, 29 May 1886, was exempted from attendance in Civil Courts, under Government Notification, 14 May 1888; 1888-90, seat in Bengal Legislative Council as representative of Landowners of Bengal and Behar; succeeded to the Gadda of Raj Durbhanga on decease of his brother, 1898; received title Maharaja Bahadur, 1898; Member, Imperial Legislative Council; five times and six times President of British Indian Association; Life Pres., Behar Landholders' Association, and Life Pres., Bharat Dharma Mahamandal, by which he was elected to be the chief of the orthodox Hindus of India; made hereditary Maharaja Bahadur 1907; hereditary Maharajadhiraj, 1920; has restored and constructed temples destroyed by the earthquake of 1902 in Kamakhya, Assam, Sylhet and other places; has constructed the Rajnagar Palace at a cost of £160,000; it is the finest example of oriental architecture in Bengal since the Mogul period; has constructed magnificent temples at Darbhanga, Patna, Rajnagar, Bhowara, Kamakhya, Lahore, etc.; possesses one of the best libraries in India; Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1900; a Member of Indian Police Commission, and of Indian Famine Trust; Pres. of the Prince of Wales' Reception Committee for Bengal, 1905; Member, Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1912-17; President, Hindu University Society, 1918; President, Indian Industrial Conference, 1908; President, Religious Convention (Parliament of Religions) held at Calcutta, 1910, and at Allahabad, 1911, President, All-India Hindu Conference, April 1915; President, Bengal Landholders' Association; Presented 5 aeroplanes during the war; Member, Council of State; D. Litt. (Benares Hindu University) 1922; Trustee to the All-India Victoria Memorial. *Heir s.* Maharaja Kumar Kameshwara Singh, *b.* 28 Nov. 1907. Recreations: Chess. *Address*: Durbhanga, India; other Palaces at Rajnagar, Calcutta, Simla, Patna, Allahabad, Benares, Muzaffarpore, Purneah, Ranchi and Hardwar.

DUTT, AMAR NATH, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., *s.* of late Mr. Durga Dass Dutt and Srimati Jugal Mohini Dutt, High Court Vakil, Burdwan *b.* 19 May 1875. *m.* Srimati Tincari Ghosh, 1897; daughter, Sandhyatara, born 1902, son, Asok Nath, *b.* 1908. *Educ*: Salkia A. S. School, Howrah, Ripon and Municipal Schools Metropolitan Institution and Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Was Chairman, Local Board; Member, District Board; Secretary, People's Association, District Association, Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Burdwan; elected Member, Court of the University of Delhi, and President, Bengal Postal Conference and All-India Telegraph Union and was editor of monthly magazine *Alo*. *Address*: "Rurki Aloy," Keshabpur, Burdwan.

EASTLEY, CHARLES MORTIMER, Solicitor and Notary Public. *b.* 2 September 1890. *m.* Esme Beryl Chester Wintle. *Educ*: Faginton Devon, England; La Villa, Ouchy, Lausanne Switzerland, Dr. *Alec* 5 Ooburg

Germany. Served in the "Great War" from 1914-1919 as Lieut. R.F.A. (T.F.) in India; as an Observer and Pilot in R.F.C. and as a Pilot in the R.A.F. against the Mohmands on the N.W.F. in 1916; against the Marri in Baluchistan in 1917; against the Turks at Aden in 1918; against the Afghans in 1919. Address: C/o Little & Co., Solicitors and Notaries Public, Central Bank Building, Bombay.

EESTERMANS, DR. FABIAN ANTHONY, O.C. Catholic Bishop of Lahore, since 1905. b. Belgium, 1858. Educ.: Episcopal Seminary, Hoogstraten; studied Philosophy at Mechlin; joined the Capuchin Order at Engelen, 1878; ordained Priest, 1883; Professor in Apostolic Seraphic School at Bruges, 1885-9; came to India, 1889. Address: Lawrence Road, Lahore.

EWBANK, ROBERT BENSON, B.A. (Oxon) C.I.E. (1924), I.C.S. Collector and Dist. Magistrate, Sukkur. b. 22 Oct. 1883. m. Frances Helen, d. of Rev. W. F. Simpson of Caldwell, Cumberland. Educ.: Queen's Coll., Oxford. Asst. Coll. and Asst. Pol. Agent, 1907; Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Bombay, 1912-20; Secretary to Imperial Committee on Co-operation, 1914; 1920-24 Deputy Secretary to Gov. of India successively in Commerce, Rev. and Agric., P. W. D. and Education, Health and Land Departments, 1924; Secretary, Colonies Committee, London 1925. Officiated as Private Secretary to H. E. Lord Reading, Secretary, Back Bay Enquiry Committee, 1926. Publications: Bombay Co-operative Manual and Indian Co-operative Studies. Address: Sukkur.

EWENS, STANLEY R. (Adopted Indian name, Jaya Veera) Lieut. Commissioner, Salvation Army, Territorial Commander for Eastern India and Burma. Headquarters, Calcutta. b. 15th Feb. 1867. m. Staff Captain Nellie Swinfen (1923). Became an officer of the S. A. in 1884 (out of Notting Hill, London). Has previously done S. A. service in South America, Ceylon and Great Britain and as under Foreign Secretary at the Army's International Headquarters and held important positions at the S. A. National Headquarters, London.

FARIDKOT, H. H. FARZAND-I-SAADAT NISHAN HAZRAT-KAISAR-I-HIND, BRAH BANS, RAJA HAJE INDR SINGH BAHADUR OF B. 1916, &c. in 1919 rules one of the Sikh States of the Punjab. Address: Faridkot, Punjab.

FARIDOONJI JAMSHEDJI, NAWAB SIR FARIDOON JUNG FARIDOON DAULA, FARIDOON MULK BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E. Member Extraordinary, H. E. H. the Nizam's Executive Council. b. 1849. Address: Saifabad, Hyderabad, Deccan.

FARRAN, ARTHUR COURTNEY, M.A., B.A. (1911), F. R. Hist. Society, Professor of History, Elphinstone College, Bombay, b. June 15, 1859. Educ.: Trinity Coll., Dublin. Address: Elphinstone Coll., Bombay.

FATEH ALI KHAN, HON. HAJEE, NAWAB KHAN, C.I.E. & 1862 &c. b. 1804. Placed Muzo f and of 6 for

Chitral campaign, and induced many of tribes across border to adopt attitude of pacific non intervention. For this service, received 3,000 acres of land in Chenab Canal Colony for settlement of his followers; has served on Punjab Legislative Council; representative of Punjab at Famine Conference, 1897; Vice President of Anjuman-i-Islamia, Lahore, and Imamia Association of Punjab; a Councillor of Atchison Chiefs' College, Lahore; Fellow of Punjab University, Trustee of Aligarh College; Hon. Sec. Nisoor Ali Khan. Address: Atchison Chiefs' Coll., Lahore.

FAWCETT, THE HON. JUSTICE SIR GORDON L. L. L. b. 1858. Under-Sec. to Govt. of Bombay 1898. Acting Remembrancer of Legal Affairs 1899. Remembrancer and Sec. to Govt., 1904 Additional Judicial Commr., Sind, 1911 Judicial Commr., Sind, 1918. Address: Murrayfield, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

FAWCUS, GEORGE ERNEST, M.A. (Oxon) C.J.E. (1927), O.B.E. (1923), V. D. (1902) Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa, b. 12 March 1885. m. (1911) Christina, d. of Walter Dawes, J.P. of Rye, Sussex. Educ.: Winchester College and New College, Oxford. Joined the I.E.S. 1909; Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa, since 1917. Address: Patna, E.I.H.

FAZULBHOY CURRIMBHOY, SIR (1913) C.B.E. (1920); Merchant and Millowner b. 4 Oct. 1872. m. Bai Sakinabai, d. of the late Mr. Dattoobhoy Ibrahim. Educ.: privately Municipal Corporator for over 21 years Chairman, Standing Committee (1910-11) President, 1914-15; Represented Bombay Millowners' Association on Bombay Prov Council, 1910-12 and Bombay Mahomedans on Imperial Legislative Council, 1913-16 represented Bombay Corp. on Board of the Prince of Wales Museum of W. India; Hon. Secretary, Bombay Presidency War Relief Fund. Appointed by Government Member of various Committees and Commissions, chief being the Weights and Measures Committee, Committee on the education of Factory Employes, and the Commission for Life Saving Appliances; invited by Government to be one of the three delegates from India to the International Financial Conference at Brussels, convened by the Council of the League of Nations, 1920, Connected with many of the principal industrial concerns in Bombay, and a Member of the Local Board of the Imperial Bank of India, Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1914-15. An active Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners Association, being Chairman, 1907-8. Fellow of the Bombay University. A keen advocate of Education, particularly of Mahomedans Member of the Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay, a Trustee of the Aligarh College, a Vice President of the All-India Muslim League a Member of the Committee of the Muslim University of Bombay, 1924. Address: Padder Road, Cumballa Hill Bombay

AZLI-HUSAIN, THE HON. MIAN SIE, Kt. (1925). B.A. (Punjab), M.A., (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law (Gray's Inn); Revenue Member, Punjab Government, b. 14 June 1877. m. eldest d. of Mian Nurahmad Khan. *Educ.*: Abbottabad, Govt. College, Lahore, Christ's College, Cambridge. Practised in Sialkot, 1901-5; in the Punjab High Court, Lahore, 1905-20; Presdt., High Court Bar Association, 1919-20; Professor and Principal, Islamia College, 1907-8; Secretary, Islamia College, 1906-18; Fellow, Punjab University, 1909-1920; Syndic, Punjab University, 1912; represented Punjab University on Legislative Council, 1917-20; President, All India Mahomedan Educational Confe., 1922; started Muslim League, 1906; Title of K. B. 1919; President, Punjab Prov. Conference, 1916; elected to Punjab Legislative Council, 1920. Apptd. Minister of Education, Punjab, 1921; President, All-India Muslim Educational Conference at Aligarh reelected unopposed to Punjab Legis. Council, 1923; reappointed Minister of Education, Punjab, 1924. Temp. additional Member of Council, H. B. The Governor-General of India's Council Aug. Nov. 1925. Apptd. Revenue Member, Punjab, 1926. Leader of the House since July 1926. *Address*: E. Lytton Road, Lahore; Armadale, Simla.

TOSE, Lt.-Col. CLEMENT, M.V.O.; Military Sec to Maharaja of Gwalior, since 1901; b. 1853. *Educ.*: Carmelite Monastery, Clondalkin; Carlisle College. Entered Gwalior State service, 1872; Lt.-Col., 1903; Assistant Inspector-Gen., Gwalior Police and General Inspecting Officer, 1893-97; A.-D.-C. to the Maharaja of Scindia, 1899-1901. *Address*: Gwalior.

ORD, Sir REGINALD, D.S.O. (1890); C.M.G. (1916); C.B. (1916); K.C.M.G. (1918); Commandeur Legion d'Honneur, Leopold of Belgium; American Distinguished Service Medal, Grand Officer, Crown of Italy, Belgium and Aviz of Portugal; General Manager Dunlop Rubber Company, India, Burma and Ceylon, b. Dec. 7, 1868. m. Pearl Gertrude, d. of W. Tothill, Dudley, Ohio, U.S.A. *Educ.*: Durham School, Royal Marines (LI) 1889; R.A.S.C. 1904; S. A. War, despatches 3 times, D.S.O., Great War despatches eight times, C.M.G., C.B. Promoted Major-General and K.C.M.G. Retired 1919. *Address*: C/o Dunlop Rubber Co., P. O. Box 535, Bombay.

ORSTER, MARTIN ONSLOW, Ph. D. (Wurzberg), D. Sc. (London), F. I. C., F. R. S. (1905); Director, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (1922). b. 1872. *Educ.*: Private schools; Finsbury Technical College, Wurzberg Univ.; Central Technical College, South Kensington. Asstt. Prof. of Chemistry, Royal College of Science, 1902-13; Director, Salters' Institute of Industrial Chemistry, 1918-22; Hon. Secretary, Chemical Society, 1907-10; Treasurer, 1915-22; Longstaff Medallist, 1915, President of Chemistry Section, British Association, 1921; President, Indian Science Congress, 1925. *Publications*. Contributions to Transactions of the Chemical Society. *Address*: Hebbal,

FOULQUIER, Rt. Rev. EUGENE CHARL Vicar Apostolic of Northern Burma and Tilar Bishop of Corydallus, since 1906. b. 18 *Address*: Mandalay.

FRIEKE, Cecil GEORGE, B.A. (Cantab), B (Lond.) F.S.S., I.C.S., Dy. Secretary, Govt. Bombay, Finance Deptt. 1926. b. 8 Octob 1887. m. Judith Mary Marston, Edu Merchant Taylor's School, London. St Joh College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 19 Under-Secretary, Government of Ind Commerce and Industries Department 191 Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, 1921-1926. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

FREMANTLE, Sir SELWYN HOWE, Kt (192 C.I.E. (1915) C.S.I. (1920) I.C.S., Sec Member, Board of Revenue, U.P. b. 11 Au 1869. m. to Vera, d. of H. Marsh C.I. *Educ.*: Eton and Magdalen College, Oxfo. Entered I.C.S., 1890; Settlement Office Bareilly, 1898; Registrar, Co-operative Societies, 1907; Magte. and Collr. Allahab 1913; Commissioner, Bareilly, 1918, C Controller of Passages, 1919; Commission Meerut, 1919. Member, Board of Revenue U.P., 1920. *Publications*: Rai Bareilly Settlement Report 1896; Bareilly Settlement Report 1902; Report on Supply of Labour to factories, 1905; A Policy of Rural Education 1915. *Address*: Lucknow, U.P.

FROOM, Sir ARTHUR HENRY, Kt. cr. 1922. Member of the Council of State, India, since 1921; s. of late Henry Froom, b. Jan. 1873. m. 1st 1903, Effie (d. 1924) y of late Thomas Bryant, F.R.C.S.; 2nd 192 Isabel Patricia, d. of R. Manners Down Knutsford. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School. Entered service of P. & O.S.N.Co., 1890; Superintendent, P. & O.S.N. Co., Bombay, 1912 16 Partner, Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., Bomba since 1916; Trustee, Port of Bombay, 1912 2 Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce 1920; Member, Imperial Legislative Council 1921; Member, Indian Mercantile Marine Committee, India, 1923-24; Member, Retort Enquiry Committee, India, 1924; Member, Central Advisory Council, Railways, India J.P. Bombay. *Address*: Mont Blanc, Dadyse Hill, Bombay.

FYSON, PHILIP FURLEY; M.A. (Cantab) F.I.S., Ag. Principal, Pres. Coll., Madras b. 1877, m. Diana Ruth Wilson, 1914. *Educ.*: Loretto School; Sidney Sussex College Cambridge. Professor of Botany, Presidency College, Madras, 1914-1921. *Publications*: "Flora of the Nilgiri and Pulney Hill top"; "Botany for India"; Editor, "Journal Indian Botany". *Address*: Presidency College House, Madras.

FYZEE RAHAMIN, S., Artist. b. 19 Dec 188 m. Atiya Begum H. Fyze, sister of Her Highness Nazli Rafia Begum of Janjira. *Educ.*: School of the Royal Academy of Arts, London and privately with John Sargent, B.A., and Solomon J. Solomon, B.A., London. Exhibitor at the Royal Academy Annual Exhibitions privately at the Gallery George Petit in Paris Goupils' and Arthur Tooth's in London Knoedlers', Andersons' and at the Palace of Fine Arts in U.S.A. In 1925

National Gallery of British Art acquired two paintings for their permanent collection, now hung in the Tate Gallery, Milbank. For several years Art Advisor to H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda. The existence of the Baroda Art Gallery and its collection was made at his suggestion and mainly under his supervision. *Publications*: History of the Bene-Israelites of India. *Address*: "Airwan-e-Rifat, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

GAGE, ANDREW THOMAS, C.I.E., M.A., B.Sc., M.B., F.L.S.; Lt.-Col., I.M.S.; Director, Botanical Survey of India; Supdt., Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta, since 1906. *b.* 1871; *Educ.*: Grammar School, Old Aberdeen; University of Aberdeen; Assistant to Professor of Botany, University of Aberdeen, 1894-96; entered I.M.S., 1897, Curator of Herbarium, Calcutta Botanic Gardens, 1898. *Address*: Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta.

GAJENDRAGADKAR, ASHVATTHAMA BALACHARYA, M.A., Ph.D., M.B.A.S., Professor of Sanskrit, Elphinstone College, Bombay. *b.* 1 Oct. 1892. *m.* Miss Kamalabai Shaligram of Satara. *Educ.*: Satara High School, Satara and the Deccan College, Poona. Stood First in the First Class in B.A. and carried off many prizes and scholarships during the College and University career. Appointed Assistant to Professor of Sanskrit at Elphinstone Coll. Sept. 1915; Lecturer on Sanskrit at Karnatak College, Dharwar, 1917; apptd. Prof. of Sanskrit, Elphinstone College in 1920. *Publications*: Critical editions of many Sanskrit classics for the use of University students which include Kalidasa's Ritusambhara, Kalidasa's Shakuntala, Bana's Harshacharita; Dandin's Dashakumara Charita; Bhatta Narayana's Venisamhara, etc. *Address*: Maharaja Building, Bombay 4.

GAJJAN SINGH, SARDAR BAHADUR, O.B.E., Member, Legislative Assembly (1920). *b.* Jac. 1854. *Educ.*: Ludhiana and Lahore; Practised at the bar from 1884 to 1920, was leader of Ludhiana District Bar; President, Managing Committee, High School, Ludhiana, Senior Vice-President, District Board, Ludhiana, Vice-Presidents Central Co-operative Bank, Ludhiana, Magte 1st Class and Member, Punjab Legislative Council from 1913-20, and District Board, Jagir and Landholder; an Hon. Extra Asst. Commissioner, awarded Sword of Honour and seat in Durbar for war services; mentioned in despatches, Author of the Punjab Juvenile Smoking Bill, which was passed. *Address*: Ludhiana.

GAMMON, JOHN CHARLES, B. Sc. (Lond. Univ.), A.C.C.I., O.B.E. (MIL.), 1918; Civil Engineer, Managing Director of Messrs. J. C. Gammon, Ltd. *b.* 2nd June 1837. *m.* Edith L. Daniel (1922). *Educ.*: at Felsted School, Essex, and Central Technical Coll., S. Kensington and London University; also advanced Workshop Student, Woolwich Arsenal, Specialised in Reinforced Concrete Construction with Messrs. Leslie & Co., Kensington and as Asstt. Engineer, P.W.D., Bombay, till 1914 (resigned), commissioned Sept. 1914 and served with Royal Engineers in France from Feb. 1915

February 1919

two

Major awarded

founded firm of J. C. Gammon, Ltd., in May 1919. *Publications*: Reinforced Concrete Design Simplified (Crosby Lockwood & Bossay). *Address*: Neville House, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

GANDHI, MOHANDAS KARAMECHAND, Bar-at-law (Inner Temple). *b.* 2nd October 1869. *Educ.*: at Raykote, Bhavnagar, and London. Practised law in Bombay, Kathiawar, and South Africa. Was in charge of an Indian ambulance corps during the Boer War and the Zulu revolt in Natal. During the great war raised a recruiting. Started and led the satyagraha movement (1918-19) and the non-co-operation campaign (1920) in addition to associating himself with the Non-Co-operation Movement (1921). Has championed abroad, notably those in Africa. Sentenced to six years' simple imprisonment in March 1922, released Feb. 4, 1924. President of the Indian National Congress, 1925. *Publications*: "Indian Home Rule," "Universal Dawn," "Young India." *Address*: Satyagrah Ashram, Sabarmati, B. B. & C. I. Railway.

GANGULI, SUTRAKASH, nephew of the poet, Dr. Rahundath Tagore; Artist, M.R.A.S. (Lond.) Curator, Museum and Art Gallery, Baroda. *b.* 8th May 1888. *m.* Srimati Tamjabala Devi, grand-daughter of the late C. K. Tagore. *Education*: Doyeron College, Calcutta, subsequently visited Europe chiefly for the study of Fine Arts and Archaeology. With the idea of gaining a wider knowledge in the above subjects he held a temporary post in the Imperial Archaeological Survey under late Dr. B. B. Spooner, Dy. Director General of Archaeology in India. Here he spent about 6 years doing the work of photographing and listing of the Ancient Monuments in the Provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, Assam and Chota Nagpur and of studying ancient Indian Sculptures in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, and branches. *Publication*: A monograph on "Our reproduction of the Japanese Art on the Modern Bengal School." 4. A short history on the art of brocade weaving in Gujarat. 5. Moghul textiles. 6. Lacquer work in India. *Address*: Pushpabag Baroda.

GEDDIS, ANDREW, J. P., JAMES FINLAY & Co., Limited. *b.* 11th July 1838. *m.* Jean Baile Ginn, d. of Dr. Gunn, George Square, Edinb. *Educ.*: George Watson's College, Edinb. Joined James Finlay & Co., Ltd. Bombay, 1907; Chairman, The Finlay Mills Ltd., Swan Mills, Ltd., Gold Mohur Mills Ltd., Director, Bank of India, Chairman Bombay Millowners' Association, 1920. Millowners' Association's representative of Port Trust. *Address*: Sudama Villa, Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill.

GENNINGS, JOHN FREDERICK, Bar-at-Law (Middle Temple, 1911) Director of India and Labour. *b.* 21 Sept. 1885. *m.* Edith, d. of T. J. Wall

GILBERT LODGE, CAPTAIN EDWARD MORTON, F.S.I., F.I.A., F.A.I., J.P. b. 23 Jan. 1880. m. May 4 of Thomas Spencer, Esq. of Norwood, London, S. E. Educ.: at Sydney, N. S. Wales, Australia. Private practice, London, 1903-1914; Royal Engineer, April 1915—May 1920, then retiring to Reserve with rank of Captain; Asst. Land Acquisition Officer,* Bombay, May-Nov. 1920, Land Manager, Development Directorate, Nov 1920 to Dec. 1925. Address: Churchgate Street.

GILES, SIR ROBERT SIDNEY, KT. (1922), M.A. (Oxon); Bar-at-Law. President, Burma Legislative Council, 1924. *m.* Mary Louisa (M.B.E.) (1924) *d.* of the late Capt. Marillier Rifle Brigade. *Educ.*: Clifton Coll. and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. Called to Bar by Middle Temple, 1890; practised in Rangoon, 1894-1924. Vice-Chancellor, Univ. of Rangoon. *Address*: 5, Fraser Road, Rangoon.

GILROY, MAJOR PAUL KNIGHTON, M.C. (1917); M.D., F.R.C.S., I.M.S. Superintendent, St. George's Hospital, Bombay. *b.* June 7, 1885. *m.* Miss W. H. Walker. *Educ.*: Cambridge (Selwyn Coll.) and St. George's Hospital Hyde Park. Entered I.M.S., Jan. 29, 1910. *Address*: 10 Rocky Hill Flats, Lands End Road Malabar Hill, Bombay.

GLANCY, REGINALD ISIDORE ROBERT, C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E., Agent to the Governor-General, Central India (1924). *b.* 1874; *m.* Helen Adelaide, *d.* of Edward Miles, Bowen House. *Educ.*: Clifton College; Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1898; Settlement Officer, Bannu, 1903, Political Agent, 1907; First Asstt. Resident, Hyderabad, 1909; Finance Member of Council, H. E. H. the Nizam's Government, 1911-1921; Resident in Bagdad, 1922; President of the Cabinet, Jaipur, 1923. *Address*: Indore.

GLASCOTT, JOHN RICHARD DONOVAN C.I.E. (1926), Agent, Burma Railways. *b.* 10 June 1877. *m.* Verner O'Reilly, Blackwood. *Educ.*: Bedford and Dublin. Price Wills and Reeves, Railway and Port Contractors, 1898-1901; B. N. Rly., 1901-1903; Burma Railways, 1903 to date; prior to being Agent was Chief Engineer, 1918 to March 1920. *Address*: 2 C, Lytche Road, Rangoon.

GOLDSMITH, REV. MALCOLM GEORGE, Missionary of C.M.S. in Madras and Hyderabad, Deccan. *b.* 1849. *Educ.*: Kensington Proprietary Grammar School; St. Catherine's College, Cambridge. Ordained, 1872; C.M.S. Missionary, Madras, 1872-73; Calcutta, 1874-75; Principal, Harris School, Madras, 1889-91; Hyderabad, 1891-99; Hon. Canon, St. George's Cathedral, Madras, 1905. *Address*: Royapet House, Royapettah, Madras.

GONDAL, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI BHAGWAT SINGH OF, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E. *b.* 1865. *m.* of late Thakore Sahab Sagramaji of Gondal. *m.* 1881, Nandkumarba, C. I., *d.* of H. H. Maharana of Dharampore. *Educ.*: Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot; Edin. Univ. Hon. LL.D. (Edin.) 1887; M.B. and C.M. (Edin.) 1892; M.R.C.P. (Edin.) 1892; D.C.L. (Oxon.) 1892; M.D. (Edin.) 1895; F.R.C.P. (Edin.) 1895; F.C.P. and S.B., 1913; Fellow of University of Bombay, 1885; F.R.S.E. 1909; M.R.A.S., M.R.I. (Great Britain and Ireland). H.P.A.C. *Publication*: Journal of a Visit to England; A Short History of Aryan Medical Science. *Address*: Gondal, Kathiawar.

GODWIN, CHARLES ALEXANDER CAMPBELL, MAJOR-GENERAL, C.B., (1924), C.M.G. (1918), D.S.O. (1917). Staff College Quetta. *b.* 1872. *m.* Catherine, *d.* of Colonel V. Milward, M.P. for W. *Educ.* at

Westward Ho and Sandhurst. Joined Suffolk Regt. on unattached list in 1895; 1st Madras Lancers, 1896; transferred 3rd Punjab Cavalry, 1898; Waziristan Militia and Operations in Waziristan, 1900; Staff College 1908-09; Bde. Major, Meerut Cavalry Brigade S.S.O. 2 Mhow, 1914; Great War, France, 1914-17; Palestine, 1917-19; War Office 1920; late A.D.C. to the King; Order of the Nile (3rd Class) 1918; Order El Nihda (2nd Class), 1918; French War Cross (1919). Commanded Secunderabad Cavalry Brigade 1921-23, M. G. Cavalry, 1923-26. *Address*: Staff College, Quetta.

GOODE, WALTER SAMUEL, C.I.E., I.C.S., B.A. (Hon.) Adelaide University 1898, B.A. (Hon.) Cambridge 1901. *b.* 25 Nov. 1878. *m.* Jean Reed Beaton Bell (deceased). *Educ.*: Way College, Adelaide. I.C.S. General Line Deputy Chairman, Calcutta Corporation Officiating Chairman, Calcutta Corporation Secretary, Local Self-Government Department of Bengal. Officiating Chairman, Calcutta Improvement Trust. *Publications*: Municipal Calcutta. *Address*: Magistrate's House Alipore, Calcutta.

GOSCHEN, HIS EXCELLENCY VISCOUNT GEORGE JOACHIM OF HAWKESBURY, G.C.I.E. (1924) C.B.E. (1918), V.D., Governor of Madras *b.* 1866, *e.s.* of 1st Viscount Goschen and Lucy *d.* of John Daillie; *S.* father 1907. *m.* 1893 Lady Evelyn Gathorne-Hardy, 5th *d.* of 1st Earl of Cranbrook; two *d.* *Educ.*: Rugby, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Was Private Secretary to Governor of N. S. Wales, and (unpaid) to his father at Admiralty; Joint Parliamentary Secretary, Board of Agriculture, 1913 M.P. (C.) E. Grinstead, Sussex, 1895-1906 A. D. C. to Lord Roberts, Commander in Chief; Hon. Col. and Lt.-Col. 2-5th Buffs East Kent Regt. A Knight of Grace of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem. *Heir*: *b.* Hon. Sir W. H. Goschen, K. B. E. *Address*: Government House, Madras.

GOSWAMI, KUMAR TULSI CHANDRA, M.A. (Oxon), Zemindar, Member, Legislative Assembly. Son of Raja Kisorilal Goswami of Serampore, member of first Bengal Executive Council. *b.* 1898. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta, Oxford and Paris. *Address*: The Raj Barea, Serampore; Rainey Park Ballygunge, Calcutta; Kamachha, Benares Puri.

GOUR, SIR HARI SINGH, KT (1925), M.A., D. Litt., D.C.L., LL.D., Member of the Legislative Assembly, Barister-at-Law. *b.* 26 Nov. 1872. *Educ.*: Govt. High School, Saugar Hislop Coll., Nagpur; Downing Coll., Cambridge. Presdt., Municipal Committee, Nagpur, 1918-22; First Vice-Chancellor, and Hon. D. Litt., Delhi University; re-appointed 1st May 1924-1926. *Publications*: Law of transfer in British India, 3 vols. (5th Edition); Penal Law of British India. 2 vols. (3rd Edition), Hindu Code, (2nd Edition). *Address*: Nagpur, C. P.

GOWAN, HENRY CLARENDON, B.A. (Oxon) V.D., C.I.E., (1923); I.C.S., Chief Secretary to Government Central Provinces. *b.* 4 July 1876. *m.* Edna (nee *Educ.* at Rugby School, 1889-1892 Rugby School

1892-1897; New College, Oxford, 1897-1901; Univ. Coll., London, 1901-02. Under Secretary to C. P. Govt., 1904-08; officiated as Under Secretary, Commerce and Industries Department, Government of India, July to Nov 1908; Settlement Officer, Hoshangabad District, 1913-17; Financial Secretary to Govt., C. P., 1918-1921; Dy. Commissioner Nagpur, 1923-25; Financial Secretary to Govt., 1925-27; Chief Secretary, March 1927. Address: Nagpur.

BRACEY, HUGH KIRKWOOD, C.B.E. (1919); I.C.S.; b. 23 November 1868. Educ.: City of London School; St. Katharine's College, Cambridge. m. Mabel Alice, d. of the late G. F. Barrill; Commissioner of Gorakhpur since 1916. Publication: Settlement Report of Cawnpore. Address: Gorakhpur, U. P.

RAHAM, REV. JOHN ANDERSON, M.A. (Edin.). D.D. (Edin.), R.M.H. Gold Medal, C.I.E.; Missionary of Church of Scotland, at Kalimpong, Bengal, since 1889; Founder and Hon. Supdt. of St. Andrew's Colonial Homes, b. 1861. Educ.: Cardross Parish School; Glasgow High School; Edinburgh University. m. Kate McConachie (K.I.H. gold medal) who died 1919. Was in Home C.S. in Edinburgh, 1877-82; graduated, 1885; ordained, 1889. Publications: "On the threshold of three closed lands" and "The missionary expansion of the Reformed Churches." Address: Kalimpong, Bengal.

RAHAM, LANCELOT, B.A. (Oxon.); Bar-at-law; C.I.E. (1924); I. C. S., Secretary, Legislative Dept., Govt. of India (1924). b. 18 April 1880, m. Olive Bertha Maurice. Educ.: St. Paul's School, London and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service 1904; Asstt. Collector, 1904; Asstt. Judge, 1908; Asstt. Legal Remembrancer, Bombay, 1911; Judicial Asstt., Kathiawar, 1913; Joint Secretary, Legislative Department, Government of India, 1921. Address: Grindlay & Co., Bombay.

RAHAME, WILLIAM FREDERICK WILLIAM, I.C.S., Provincial Art Officer, Supdt. of Cottage Industries and Provincial Training Officer since 1925. b. 1871, m. 1905 Elizabeth Dunlop Dunning, niece of Governor Dunlop of Maine, U. S. A. Educ.: at Charterhouse and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Supdt. and Pol. Officer, S. Shan States, 1922-25. Address: Pegu Club, Rangoon.

GRAY, ALEXANDER GEORGE, Manager, Bank of India, Ltd. b. 1884. m. to Dulce Muriel Fanny Wild. 1922. Educ.: Macclesfield Grammar School. Parts Bank, Ltd., Manchester and District; arrived India, 1905; entered service of the Bank of India, Ltd., 1908. Address: 14 Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

GRAVES, HON. SIR WILLIAM DWART, K.C. (1924); Judge of Calcutta High Court, since 1914, and Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University since 1924. b. 1869. Educ.: Harrow, Keble College, Oxford; Asst. Master at Evesham, nr. Uxbridge, 1894-99; called to Bar, Lincoln's Inn, 1900. Address: High Court, Calcutta; 33, Marlborough Place, N. W.

GREEN, ALAN MICHAEL, M.A., (Oxon), I.C.S. Collector of Chittagong, Bombay. b. 11 April

1885. m. Joan, the only child of Mr. and Mrs. F. D. Ekin (1919). Educ.: St. Paul's School, London, Lincoln College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S. in 1909. Address: New Custom House, P. O. Box 453, Bombay.

GREGSON, LIEUT.-COLONEL EDWARD GELSON C.M.G. 1917; C.I.E., Deputy Inspector General of Police, Punjab. b. 1877. Educ. Portsmouth Grammar School, Asst. Blockade Officer, Waziristan, 1900; Pol. Officer, Mohmand Border, 1908; Commdt., Border Military Police, Peshawar, 1902-07; Per. Asst to Insp. Gen. of Pol., N. W. F., 1907-9, on special duty Persian Gulf, 1909-12; Commissioner of Police, Mesopotamia.

GRIFFITH, FRANCIS CHARLES, C.S.I. (1923), O.B.E. (1919), King's Police Medal (1916), Insp. Gen. of Police, Bombay Presy., 1921. b. 9 November 1878; m. Ivy Morna, daughter of George Jacob, I.C.S., Educ. Blundell's School, Tiverton. Joined Indian Police, 1898; Commr. of Police, Bombay, 1919-21. Address: Poona.

GULAB SINGH, REIS; SARDAR, M.L.A. Managing Director, Punjab Zamindars' Bank, Ltd., Lyallpur, and Landlord. b. March 1866, m. d. of Dr. Sardar Jawahir Singh Rais of Lyallpur. Educ.: Government Coll., Lahore Headmaster, Govt. Sandeman High School Quetta, for 10 years; Member, Lyallpur and Quetta Municipalities and Dist. Board, Lyallpur, and Pres. of several co-operative credit societies and associations and elected as member of Legislative Assembly, 1920, and re-elected in 1923 and re-elected in 1926 unopposed Hon. Magte., Lyallpur, for 9 years. Address: Bhawana Bazar, Lyallpur Punjab.

GULAMJILANI, BIKMEKHAN, SARDAR NAWAB OF Wai. First Class Sardar of the Deccan and a Treaty Chief. b. 28 July 1888. m. sister of H. H. The Nawab Sahib Bahadur of Jaora. Educ. Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for two years, 1906-08, was Additional Member, Bombay Legis. Council; and Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923; was elected Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Muslim League and is permanent President of Satara District Anjuman Islam. Address: The Palace, Wai Dist. Satara.

GWALIOR, H. H. MAHARAJAH SCINDIA OF Address: "Madho Bilas," Shivapuri, Gwalior, C. I.

HABIB-UL-LAH SAHIB SHAHBAZ, THE HON. KHAN SHAHBAZ SIE MUHAMMAD, K.T. (1922), K.C.S.I. (1927), K.C.I.E. (1924), C.I.E. (1920). Member of the Viceroy's Council (1924) b. Sept. 22, 1869, m. Sadathun Nisa Begum. Educ.: Zilla High School, Saidapet. Joined the Bar in 1888; in 1897 was presented Certificate of Honour on the occasion of Golden Jubilee of the late Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria; from 1901 devoted whole time to local self-government and held the position of Chairman of Municipal Council, Pres., Taluk Board and Pres., Dist. Board; Khan Bahadur, 1905; Member, Legislative Council, 1909-12, appointed Temporary Member Madras Executive Council, 1919; was Commissioner of Madras Corporation, 1920. Gave

evidence before Royal Commn. on Decentralisation and also before Public Services Commn., served as a co-opted member on Reforms Committee, Member, Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India, Nov. 1923-March 1924, Member of Council of the Governor of Madras, 1920-24, and Leader of the Indian Delegation to South Africa, 1926-27. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

LADOW, SIR (FREDERICK) AUSTEN, Kt. (1926), C.V.O. (1922), M. Inst. C.E., M. Inst. Trans., V.D., A.D.C., Member, Ry. Board. *b.* 5 Sep. 1873, m. Kate Louisa Margary. *Educ.*: Branksome House, Godalming, 1883-1887; Charterhouse, 1887-1892; R. I. E. College, Coopers Hill, 1892-95, Associate Coopers Hill, 1895; Appointed Asstt. Engineer, State Rlys., 1895; employed as Asstt. Engineer on construction of new railways in Bengal, 1896-1902; Asstt. Manager, E. B. Ry., 1902-1904; Asstt. Secretary, Railway Board, 1905-1909; Manager and Engineer-in-Chief, B. G. J. P. Ry., Kathiawar, 1909-1911; Deputy Agent, N. W. Ry., Lahore, 1911-1916; Secretary, Railway Board, 1916-1919; Agent, North-Western Railway, 1919-24. *Address*: Morvyn, Simla, W.

LAIDER KARRAR JAFRI, SYED, Member, Legis. Assembly and Asst. Manager, Court of Wards, Balmampur Raj. *b.* 8 Dec. 1879. Married. *Educ.*: Collegiate School, Balmampur, M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh, Agra College and Mstr's Accountancy Institution, Bombay; Member, Gonda Dist. Board for six years; Member, Municipal Board, Balmampur, for 20 years; Hon. Magte., Balmampur, for 14 years; Vice-Chairman, Balmampur Central Co-operative Bank; Member, Standing Committee, All-India Shia Conference; Trustee, Shia Coll., Lucknow; President and Trustee of the Balmampur Girls' School. *Address*: Balmampur, Dist. Gonda (U.P.).

AILEY, H. E. SIR WILLIAM MALCOLM, K.C.S.I. C.I.E., I.C.S., Governor of the Punjab May 1924; Knight of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem, Hon. Fellow, Corpus Christi College, Oxford, *b.* 1872. *m.* 1896, *Andrina, d.* of Count Hannibale Balzanis Italy. Lady of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem; F.R.G.S. *Educ.*: Merchant Taylor's School; Corpus Christi College, Oxford (Scholar). Colonisation Officer, Jhelum Canal Colony, 1902; Sec., Punjab Govt., 1907; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, 1908; Member, Durbar Committee, 1911; Ch. Commr., Delhi, 1912-19; Chairman, Indian Soldiers' Board, 1921; Finance Member, Government of India, 1919-22. Home Member Government of India, 1922-24. *Address*: Lahore and Simla.

LAJI WAJHUDDIN, Khan Bahadur (1926). Proprietor of the firm Pioneer Arms Co., Meerut. *b.* 1880. During Great Balkan War (1910-12) was Treasurer, Meerut Division Red Crescent Fund; during Great War (1918) worked as Hon. Secretary, Meerut Cantonment War Loan Committee. Member of many educational institutions. Elected in 1916 to Meerut Board re-elected in 1919. In 1920 to

re-elected in 1923 A in 1922 to bench of Hon elected

in 1922, Hon. Secretary to the Central Haj Committee of India. *Publications*: "Prohibition in India," "Ziharatul Haramain-i-Shareefain." *Address*: "Pioneer House, Meerut Cantonment."

HAKSAR, COL. KALSA NARAIN, B.A., C.I.E. Mahsir-Khas-Bahadur; Pol. Member, Gwalior Durbar, since 1912. *b.* 1878. *Educ.*: Victoria College, Gwalior; Allahabad University; Hon. Prof. of History and Philosophy, 1899-1902. Priv. Sec. to Maharaja Scindia in 1903 12, Under-Sec., Pol. Dept., on dep. 1905-7; Capt., 4th Gwalior Imp. Ser. Inf., 1902; Col. 1921. *Address*: Gwalior.

HALL, MAJOR RALPH ELLIS CARR, C.I.E., I.A. Milv. Accts. Dept., Field Controller, Poona *b.* 1873. Joined army, 1894; Major, 1912 served Tirah, 1897-98; European War, 1914 17. *Address*: Field Controller, Poona.

HAMILL, HARRY, B.A., Principal, Elphinstone College. *b.* 3 Aug. 1891. *m.* Hilda Annie Shill. *Educ.*: Royal Academical Institution Belfast, and Queen's University, Belfast. After graduation served in British and Indian Army. Appointed to the I.E.S. in 1919. *Address*: Elphinstone College, Bombay.

HAMILTON, C. J., M.A., F.S.S.; Indian Educational Service, Prof. of Economics, Patna College; Fellow of Patna University. *b.* 1878. *Educ.*: private tutor; King's College, London, Camus College, Cambridge; graduated first class Moral Science Tripos, 1901. Member of Mosely Educational Commission to U.S.A., 1903; Member of Inner Temple, 1908, Dunkin Lecturer at Oxford University, 1912; Minto Prof. of Economics, Calcutta University, 1913-19. *Publications*: "Trade Relation between England and India." *Address*: Patna College, Patna.

HAMLEY, HERBERT RUSSELL, M.A., M.Sc. Dip. Educ'd. (Melbourne), Duxon Final Honour Scholar in Natural Philosophy (Melb.) 1906 Research Scholar; Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay. *b.* 6 September 1883. *m.* Miss E. F. Robinson. *Educ.*: Wesley College, Queen's College, Melbourne University; Mathematics Master, Church of England Grammar School, Melbourne, Principal, University High School, Melbourne; Lecturer in Mathematics and Physics, Queen's College, Melbourne; Vice-Principal, Training College, Melbourne; Professor of Physics, Wilson College, Bombay; Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay. *Publications*: Papers on Physical Subjects in Scientific journals, papers on Educational topics, "The Fundamental Formulae of Physics," and "General Physical Science." *Address*: Secondary Training College, Bombay.

HAMMOND, EGBERT LAURIE LUCAS, B.A. (Oxon.), C.E.B. 1918; C.S.I. 1925, Governor of Assam (1927). *b.* 12 Jan. 1873. *m.* Effie Townsend Warner. *Educ.*: Newton Coll., Newton Abbot, S. Devon, and Keble Coll. Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1896. *Publications*: Indian Election Petitions, 2 Vols. (Pioneer Press, Allahabad); The Indian Candidate and Returning Officer (Oxford University Press) Member Council, Riber and Orissa. *Address*: Shillong.

HARRIS, C.I.E., B. (1883-)
 m. Alice, d. of Spencer Ackroyd of Bradford
 Yorks. Educ.: Rugby School and Federal
 Polytechnic, Zurich, Switzerland. Asst. and
 Executive Engineer, P.W.D. 1907-14; Under-
 Secretary to Government, U.P., P.W.D. 1915;
 Under-Secretary to Government of India,
 P.W.D., 1916; Secretary to P. W. D. Reorgani-
 sation Committee, 1917; Under-Secretary
 to Government of India, P.W.D. 1918; Asstt.
 Inspector-General of Irrigation in India, 1920,
 Secretary to New Capital Inquiry Committee,
 1922; Deputy Secretary to Government of
 India, P. W. D., 1922; Deputy Secretary to the
 Government of India, Department of
 Industries and Labour, Public Works Branch.
Publications: Irrigation in India (Ox-
 ford University Press). Address: C/o. Depart-
 ment of Industries of Labour, Simla.

HARTNOLL, SIR HENRY SULIVAN, Kt.; Chief Judge, Court of Lower Burma, since 1906; Barrister, 1898. *Educ.*: Exeter Grammar School; Trinity College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1881; served in Burma as Asst. Commissioner; Dy. Commissioner, 1890; Commissioner, 1902. *Address*: Chief Court, Rangoon.

HATCH, GEORGE WASHINGTON, C.I.E. (January 1927), I.C.S. Commissioner, Central Division since Novr. 1922. *b.* 26th April 1872. *m.* Jessie, *d.* of Henry Harrison. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School; Balliol College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1893; served in Bombay Presidency. Collector of Bombay 1906-1910; Chairman, Bombay Improvement Trust, 1914-15. Chairman, Bombay Port Trust, 1918-1922. *Address*: Poona.

HATWA, MAHARAJA BHADUR GURU MAHADEV ASRAM PRASAD SAHI OF. *b.* 19 July 1893; *S* Oct. 1896 to the *Gadi* after death of father Maharaja Bahadur Sir Kishen Pratap Sahi, K.C.I.B., of Hatwa. *Address*: Mathura P. O., District Saran, Behar and Orissa.

HAYE, MIAN ABDUL, B.A., LL.B., M.B.E. (1919), M.L.A., Vakil, Lahore High Court *b.* Oct. 1888. *Educ.*: at Lahore Forman Christian College. Passed LL.B., 1910; started practice at Ludhiana; elected Municipal Commissioner same year; elected 1st Vice-President 1911 which office he held till 1921 when he was elected senior Vice-President. Is first non-official President of Ludhiana Municipal Council to which office he was elected in 1922. *Address*: President, Municipal Council, Ludhiana.

HEADLAM, CAPT. EDWARD JAMES, C.S.I. (1924), C.M.G. (1919), D.S.O. (1914), D.C.S. Director, R. *b.* 1878. *m.* Nan. *b.* Hobson, Nigeria. *Educ.*: Durham School, H.M.S. Conway. Sub-Lieut. B.I.M., 1894, Asst. Marine Transport Officer, Indian Expeditionary Force, N. China, 1900-01, R. R. Humane Soc.'s medal. Hon. Member, American Mty. Order of Dragon; China Medal. Mentioned in Despatches Served gun-running operations, Persian Gulf (medal with clasp); served European war (Despatches four times). Naval Transport Officer 1, Indian Expeditionary Force, East Africa, 914-16, Divisional Naval Transport Officer East Africa; 1916-17; Principal Naval Transport Officer South and East Africa, 1917-19. 1914 Star British and Victory Medals. *Publication*: History of Sea Service under the Govt. in India. *Address*: Admiral's House, Bombay.

HENDERSON, ROBERT HERRIOT, C.I.E., Tea Planter (retired), Supdt. of Tarrapur Company's Tea Gardens, Cachar, Assam; Chairman, Ind. Tea Assoc., Cachar and Sylhet. Represented tea-planting community on Imp. Leg. Council, 1901-2, when legislation regulating supply of indentured coolie labour was under consideration. *m.* Member, Legislative Council, Assam, 1917-19. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

ENCKER, LT. GENERAL SIR WILLIAM OFFICER, K.C.B. 99, K.C.M.G.

(1922); C.B. (1918), D.S.O. (1902); Commandant Bangers, G.O.C.-in-Chief, Southern Command (1928). *b.* 22 August 1887; *m.* 1901 Clara Marion, *d.* of late M. Jones of Vellindie, Brecon two s. Entered army 1888; Capt. 1897. Lt. Major 1901; Bt.-Lt. Colonel 1905; Major 1907; B. Col. and A.D.C. to the King 1907. Major-General 1917; Lt. General 1926; served Southern Nigeria. Second in Command or S. N. Regt., West African Frontier Force 1902 (promoted Lt. Col.). *Address*: Ishan, Ikeku-Oloko.

Expeditions and col. Expedition and Aro Expedition, served European War, 1914-18 (wounded); Intelligence and Survey Officer, Beira Territories Expedition, 1899; D.A.A. and Q.M.G. Orange River Colony District, 1906-10; Lt.-Col. to command 2nd Batt., North Stafford Regiment at Peshawar, 1912 Temp. Brig. Commander, 1st Peshawar Infantry Brigade, 1912; Temp. Brigade Commander, Rawalpindi Infantry Brigade 1913; Commander, 1st Infantry Brigade Quetta, 1914; 54th Infantry Brigade with temp. rank Brig.-General, 1915; Commanded 100th Infantry Brigade 1918; Commanded 8th Div. 1916 to end of war, formed and commanded Southern Div. on Rhine, holding portion of Bridgehead east of Cologne, 1919, Formed and commanded Independent Division, Nov. 1919. G.O.C. Rhine Garrison, Cologne 1920 (Commandeur of Legion d'honneur, 1918 K.C.B.); Commanded British Upper Silesian Force, 1921-22 (K.C.M.G.); Commanded 3rd Division and Salisbury Plain Area 1922-23. *Publication*: Bush Warfare, 1906. *Address*: Headquarters, Southern Command, Poona.

HERAS, HENRY, S.J., M.A., Professor of Indian History, Director of the Indian History College, *b.* Ohio. *Educ.*: Ohio Heart avlour: cations of the (accord ing to an eye-witness) (in Ind. Ant.). The City of Jijli at the end of the 18th Century (Ibid.). Venkatapatiraya I and the Portuguese (Journal of the Mythic Society). The Status of the Nayaks of Madura in the Pudukkottai (Ibid.). Early Relations between the Nayaks and the Asokas (Ibid.). Historical Corv. (Ibid.). The Story of (Journal of Indian History.); The Palace of Akbar at Fatehpur Sikri (Ibid.); The Great Civil War of Vijaya nagara, 1514-1517 (Ibid.); Rama Raya, Regent of Vijayanagara (Indian Historical Quarterly); The Last Defeat of Meherakula (Ibid.); Relations between Guptas Kadambas and Vakatakas (Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society); The Portuguese Alliance with the Muhammadan Kingdoms of the Deccan (Journal, B.B.K.A.S.); A Note on the Excavations at Nalanda and its History (Ibid.). The Writing of History; Notes on Historical Methodology for Indian Students (Madras 1926). The Aravidu Dynasty of Vijayanagara, Vol. I, 154-164 (Madras, 1929).

Address: St. Xavier's College, Bombay.
HIDAYATALLAH, THE HON. KHAN SAHABUR
 STR SHAHN GHULAM HUSSAIN, Kt. (1926),
 Minister, Govt. of Bombay; b. Jan. 1879.
Educ.: Shikarpur High School, D. J. Stud
 Coll. and Govt. Law School, Bombay; Plea-
 der, Member and elected Vice-Presdt.,
 Hyderabad Municipality; Presdt., District
 Local Board, Hyderabad, and Member, Bom-
 bay Leg. Council, for past 14 years. Minister
 of Govt. in charge of Local Self-Govern-
 ment since 1921. *Address:* The Secretariat,
 Bombay.

HIGNELL, SIDNEY ROBERT, C.S.I. (1922).
C.I.E. Educ.; Malvern; Exeter College, Oxford.
Entered I.C.S., 1886; Magte. and Collr.,
1912. Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India.
Home Deptt., 1915-19; Officiated as Home
Secretary on four occasions during that
period, Private Secretary to H. E. the
Viceroy, 1920. Address : Delhi or Simla.

INDLEY, SIR CLEMENT, D.M., Kt. (1925). Commandeur Ordre de Leopold, 1926; M.A., M.Inst.C.E., M.Inst.T., M.I.E. (Ind.) Volunteer Officers Decoration; Chief Commissioner of Railways, India, *d.* 19 Dec. 1874. *m.* Annie, *d.* of the late H. Bart, Esq. *Edue.*: Dulwich College and Trinity College, Cambridge. Engineer, East Indian Railway, 1897-1918, Deputy Agent, E. I. Rly., 1918; Agent, E. I. R., 1920-21; Chairman, Calcutta Port Commissioners, 1921-22; Chief Commissioner of Railways, India, 1923. *Address*: Holcombe, Simla.

COLME, HENRY EDWARD, M.L.A., District and Sessions Judge, Cawnpore 8. 7 March 1870. *m.* Miss N. Cowie. *Educ.*: Clifton and Trinity College, Cambridge. Assistant Magistrate, Under-Secretary to Government, Magistrate and Collector and District Judge. *Address*: Cawnpore.

HOOPER, REV. WILLIAM, D.D.; Missionary, C.M.S.; Translator, Mussoorie, since 1892: b 1827. *Educ.*: Cheltenham Preparatory School; Bath Grammar School; Wadham College, Oxford; Hebrew Exhibition; Sanskrit Scholarship; 1st class in Lit. Hum.: B.A. 1859; M.A., 1861; D.D., 1887. Went to India, C.M.S., 1861; Canon of Lucknow, 1906-1919; Vicar of Mount Albert, New Zealand, 1889-90. *Publications*: The Hindustani Language, Notes on the Bible and many smaller works in English, Hindi and Urdu. *Address*: Mussoorie, India.

TORSKINS, JULIUS, Lt. Commissioner, Salvation Army Territorial Commander for Bombay Presidency. Has served as an officer for 47 years and seen Service in England, S. Africa, Australia and the British West Indies. *Address :* Morland Road, Byculla, Bombay.

OSKASON, WILLIAM SANDBORD, F.R.M.S.,
Ordinary Member, Institute of Physics,
Harbour Master of Bombay from Feb. 1925.
b 18 July 1874. m. Edith E. Johnson of Liver-
pool and Karachi. Educ.: Schoolship
"Conway", Liverpool. Apprentice in sail,
3rd mate and 2nd mate in sail from 1889 to
1895. Thence in steam. Master Mariner, 1899
2nd grade River Surveyor. River Hughli,
Bombay Pilot Service, 1901; Master Pilot
and Dockmaster, P. & V., and Alexandra,
Docks during the war and after. Address.

Evelyn House, Apollo Bunder, Bombay.
HOTSON, JOHN ERNEST BUTTERY, M.A.
(Oxon.), C.S.I. (1926), O.B.E. (1918), V.D.
(1923); Member of Council, Bombay (Ap
1926). b. 17 March 1877. m. to Mildred
Ahee, d. of late A. B. Steward, I.C.S. Educ.
Edinburgh Academy and Magdalen Coll.
Oxford. Indian Civil Service, Bombay, from
1900; War service in Baluchistan and Persia,
1915-1920; Rank of Lieut.-Colonel. *Publications:* Editor of the Philatelic Journal of
India from 1923. *Address:* Drummere,
Malabar Hill, Bombay; or c/o Grindlay & Co.,
Ltd., P. O. Box 93, Bombay.

HOWARD, ALBERT, C.I.E., M.A., A.R.C.S., F.L.S.; Director of the Institute of Plant Industry, Indore, and Agricultural Adviser to States in Central India. b. 1873. *Educ.* Royal College of Science, London; St. John's College, Cambridge. First Class Hon. Nat. Science Tripos, 1898; B.A., 1899; M.A., 1902; Mycologist and Agricultural Lecturer, Impl. Dept. of Agriculture for West Indies, 1899-1902; Botanist to South-Eastern Agricultural College, Wye, 1903-1905; Imperial Economic Botanist to the Government of India, 1905-1924. *Publications:* *Crop-Production in India* and numerous papers on botanical and agricultural subjects. *Address.* Indore, Central India.

HOWELLS, GEORGE, B.A. (Lond.); M.A. (Camb.); B. Litt. (Oxon); B.D. (St. Andrews), Ph.D. (Tübingen); Principal of Serampore College, Bengal, since 1906. b. May 1871. Educ.: Gelligaer Grammar School; Regent's Park and University Colleges, London, Mansfield and Jesus Colleges, Oxford, Christ's College, Cambridge; Univ. of Tübingen. Appointed by Baptist Missionary Society for Educational work in India, 1895 located at Cuttack, Orissa, engaged in High School and theological teaching, and general literary and Biblical translation work, 1895-1904; originated movement for reorganisation of Serampore College. Angus Lecturer, 1909 published under the title "The Soul of India," and Fellow of University of Calcutta, since 1913 and Dean of the Faculty of Arts, 1926. Address: Serampore College, Serampore, Bengal.

HUDSON, Sir LESLIE SEWELL, Kt., Partner, Mackinnon Mackenzie and Co., Bombay, b. 25 Nov. 1872. *Educ.*: Christ's Hospital, Joined P. & O. S. N. Co., London, 1889, and came to their Bombay office 1891, subsequently stationed at Japan, China and Australia, returning to Bombay 1915. Joined Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., Oct. 1916. Deputy Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1923-24; President 1924-25, 1927-28. Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1923-26, 1927-28. *Address*: Mont Blanc, Dadysett Hill, Bombay

HUFFAM, WILLIAM TYERS CHRISTOPHER
O.B.E., M.C., J.P., A.M. Inst. Mech.
Engineer, Sir Alexander Gibb & Partners, b
1890, Educ.: St. Olave's (York). Pupil
ship with Greenwood and Batley, Ltd., (Leeds),
with Canadian Pacific Railway, 1904-1906
with Babcock and Wilcox, Ltd., Calcutta and
then in India. Served with Ist. Bn.
1916: Commanded
I.A.Q.M.G. XIVth
Army Corps, France (1918): Ditto 46th

(North Midland) Division, France, 1917; A.Q.M.G., XVth Army Corps, France, 1918; A.A. & Q.M.G. Tanks Corps, Army of Occupation, 1919; Deputy Chief Controller, Government of India Surplus Stores, 1920-1922. *Address*: Byculia Club, Bombay.

UTKERS, MAJOR JOHN EDWARD, Secretary, Western India Turf Club, Ltd., 6, 22nd Nov. 1871, m. Evelyn Daisy Brodrick (July 1904). *Educ.*: United Service College, Westward Ho; Served 3rd Battalion, Royal Welsh Fusiliers, 1890; entered Sandhurst, 1891; commissioned 3rd Bn. 1892; served with Northamptonshire Regiment, 1892; joined 2nd Madras Lancers, 1893, retired from 2nd Madras Lancers 1911; apptd. Secretary, W. I. Turf Club, 1911; served in the war 1914 to 1918 in the Remount Department in India and Mesopotamia; mentioned in despatches. *Address*: Western India Turf Club, Ltd., Poona and Bombay.

ULL, REV. ERNEST R., S.J., Archivist and Secretary to the R.C. Archbishop of Bombay, 6 9th September 1863. *Educ.*: Society of Jesus, English Province. Came to India 1902 and since then engaged in literary work in Bombay. Editor of *The Examiner* from 1902 to 1924. *Publications*: A series of Examiner Reprints, on theological, historical and controversial subjects. At present engaged in writing a "History of the Bombay Mission with a special study of the Padroado Question" of which the 1st volume has been published. *Address*: *The Examiner* Press, Meadows Street, Bombay.

UMPHREYS, LIEUT.-COLONEL SIR FRANCIS HENRY, K.B.E. (1924), C.I.E. (1920), Sardar-i-Ah of Afghanistan, 1924. H.B. M.S. Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of H. M. The King of Afghanistan Jan. 1922. b. April 24, 1879, s. of late Rev. Walter Humphreys, M.A. of Elmleigh, Lywardreath, Cornwall, m. Gertrude Mary Deane, d. of Sir Harold Deane, K.C.S.I., *Educ.*: Shrewsbury and Christ Church, Oxford. Joined 2nd Worcesters, 1900; South African War; Joined 25th Punjab, 1902. Entered Political Dept., Government of India, 1903; Dy. Commr., Bannu and Kohat; Pol. Agent, Techi; Malakand, Khyber; Joined Royal Flying Corps in Europe, March 1918; Dy. Foreign Secretary, Govt. of India, 1921. *Address*: British Legation, Kabul, via Peshawar.

USSAIN, SIR AHMED, K.C.I.E. (1922) C.S.I. (1911) NAWAB AMIN JUNG BAHADUR, Assistant Minister to H. H. Nizam, since 1914, and Ch. Sec. to Nizam's Govt. since 1896. *Educ.*: Christian College, Presidency College, Madras Univ.; B. L. 1889; M.A., 1890; Dy. Coll. and M., Madras Presidency, 1890-92; Asst. Priv. Sec. to H. H. Nizam, 1893; F.S.A., 1912; F.R.A.S., 1914.

HYDARI, A., B.A., NAWAB HYDAR NAWAB JUNG BAHADUR, Finance Minister, Hyderabad, b. 5 Nov. 1869, m. Amena Najmuddin Tyabji (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal). *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Indian Finance Dept., 1888; Asstt. Acctt. General, U. P., 1890; Dy. Acctt. General, Bombay, 1897; Dy. Acctt. General, Madras, 1900; Examiner, Govt. Press Accounts, 1901; Comptroller India, 1908 O.P. 1900; Asstt. Acctt. General, Hy State

1905; Financial Secretary, 1907; Secretary to Government Home Dept., 1911; Secretary to Education, 1912; Secretary to Commerce and

General, Bombay, 1920; Finance and Railway Member, Hyderabad Executive Council, 1921, Official Director, Shahabad Cement Co., Ltd., 1922, Official Director, Singareni Collieries Co., Ltd., 1922; Official Director, N. G. S. Railway Co., Ltd., and Mining Boards, 1925; Chairman, Inter University Board, 1925; First President, Hyderabad Educational Conference in 1915. President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference Calcutta (1917); delivered Punjab University Convocation Address 1925. Fellow of the Bombay Peace, Aligarh Muslim and Hyderabad Usmania Universities and ex-Fellow, Madras University. Conceived and organised Osmania University, Hyderabad; organised State Archaeological Department, especially interested in Ajanta Frescoes and Indian Paintings, also Urdu type. *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.

HYDERABAD, LIEUT.-GENERAL, HIS EXALTED HIGHNESS ASAF JAH MUZAFFAR-UL-MULK WAL MAHALIK NAZAM-UL-MULK NAHID UD Daula NAWAB MIR SIR OSMAN ALI KHAN BAHADUR FATEH JANG OF, G.O.S.I. (1911) G.B.E. (1916); son of the late Lieut.-Genl. Mir Sir Mahboob Ali Khan Bahadur, G.O.B. G.O.S.I., Nizam of Hyderabad; b. 1836 ed privately; Acc. 1911; Lieut.-General in the Army; Hon. Col. of 20th Deccan Horse. *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.

IDAR, MAHARAJA OF, since July 1911, MAHARAJA DHIRAJ MAHARAJA; SIR SHRI DOLAR SINGHI, K.O.S.I. m. Maharani Shri Poongalanji. *Heir*: s. Maharaja Kumar Himmat Singhji. *Address*: Himmatnagar (Mahikanta Agency).

IMAM, SYED HASAN, Barrister, b. 31 August 1871. *Educ.*: Patna and in England. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1892. Practised at Patna and Calcutta until 1911. Judge of the High Court, Calcutta, 1912-16. Resumed practice at Patna; President, Special Session, Indian National Congress, September, 1918. President, All-India Home Rule League, Delegate to London Conference on Turkish Peace Treaty, 1921. India's representative to the League of Nations, 1923. *Address*: Hasan Munzil, Patna.

INDORE, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHRI TUKOJI RAO HOLKAR, BAHADUR, G.O.S.I. b. 26th November 1890. *Educ.*: Mayo Chiefs' College, Ajmere; Imperial Cadet Corps. Visited Europe, 1910; attended Coronation, 1911; again visited Europe, 1913 and 1921; abdicated 27th February 1928. *Heir*: Prince Yeshwantrao Holkar, b. 1903. *Address*: Indore, Central India.

INDORE, MAHARAJA OF, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJADHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHRI YESHWANT RAO HOLKAR BAHADUR, (minor) b. 6th September 1908; m. a daughter of the Junior Chief of Kagal (Kolhapur) in February 1924. Received his education in England from 1920-1923 and has again proceeded to Oxford for higher education. *Address*: Indore, India.

RWIN, 1st Baron of Kirby Underdale in the County of York, (created 1925). The Right Hon. **EDWARD FREDERICK LINDLEY WOOD**, G.M.S.I., G.M.I.F. Viceroy and Governor-General, b. 16 April 1881: *c. surr.* son and heir of 2nd Viscount Halifax; *m.* 1909, Lady Dorothy Evelyn Augusta Onslow, *y. d.* of 4th Earl of Onslow; three s. one *d. Educ.*: Eton; Christ Church, and All Souls, Oxford (M. A. Fellow). Parliamentary Under-Secretary for the Colonies, 1921-22; President of Board of Education, Oct. 1922, Jan. 1924; Minister of Agriculture, Oct. 1924-Nov. 25; M.P. (U.), Ripon Division, West Riding, Yorks, since Jan. 1910; Colonel, 1st Yorkshire Cavalry, 1914-15. *Publications*: *John F. Church series*; *The* (with Sir George Lloyd).

SHWARDAS LUKHMIDAS, J.P., Yarn Merchant; b. 1872. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's School. For many years connected with Messrs. David Sassoon & Co., was elected to Municipal Corporation by the Justices and later by Indian Chamber of Commerce which he represents on the Port Trust; Member, Managing Committee of the Society of the Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay and is on the directorate of several well-known companies including the Port Canning and the Sassoon Company, the Sassoon Company, Ltd. the Mill Co., Ltd., and the Union Mills; trustee of Sir Harkinsondas Narottam General Hospital; and Treasurer for Pechey Phipson Sanitarium for Women and Children; President of the Managing Council, Sir Harkinsondas Narottamdas General Hospital, Member of the Managing Committee of the Lady Northcote Hindu Orphanage, and Member of the Board of David Sassoon Industrial and Reformatory Institute Vice-President, Managing Committee of the Society of Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay; Director, Burdi Portland Cement, Ltd., and Punjab Portland Cement, Ltd.; Member, Managing Committee, Goculdas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association; Member, Managing Committee of the Helpless Beggars and Vice-President of his own community, Sherif of Bombay, 1924. *Address*: Garden View, Hughes Road, Bombay.

SRAR, HASAN KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR, DABIRUL MUIK, SIR MAULVI MOHAMMAD, Kt., C.I.E., Amirul-Umara, Home Member and President Judicial Council, Bombay, since 1915. *Address*: 1885, m with Lac. of Shahjahanpur, 1886. *Educ.*: Shahjahanpur and Bareilly. *Address*: Shishmahal, Bhopal, C. I.

YDNGAR, S. SRINIVASA, b. 11 September 1874. *Educ.*: Madura and Presidency College, Madras. Vakil (1898). Member of Madras Senate, 1912-16; President, Vaidiks' Association of Madras; President, Madras Social Reform Association; Member of All-India Congress Com.; Advocate-General, Madras. *Publication*: a book on law reform (1909). *Address*: Mylapore, Madras.

ZAT NISHAN, KHUDA BAKHASH KHAN TIWANA, Nawab, Malik; Dist. Judge, Dera Ghazi Khan, b. 1886. *Educ.*: Government High School, Shahpore - private training through Col. Co byn, Deputy Co

Appointed an Hon. Magistrate, 1881; Extra Asst. Commr., 1894; British Agent in Cabul, 1903-06. *Address*: Khwajabad, District Shahpore, Punjab.

JACKSON, RT. HON. SIR FRANCIS STANLEY, P.C. G.C.I.E., Governor of Bengal (1927) b. 21 November 1870; *y. s.* of 1st Lord Allerton m. 1902, Julia Henrietta, *a. d.* of late H. B. Harrison-Broadley, M.P. Welton House, Brough. *Educ.*: Harrow, Trinity Coll., Cambridge. Financial Secretary to War Office, 1922-23; Harrow Eleven, Cambridge Eleven (Captain, 1892-93), Yorkshire Eleven, has repeatedly played for Gentlemen v. Players, and All England Teams; served in South Africa, 1900-2; Captain, 3rd Royal Lancaster Regiment; D. L. West Riding, Works, late Lt.-Col. Commanding 27th W. Yorks; late Lt. Col. Commanding 227th W. Yorks; Chairman of the Unionist Party since March 1923; M. P. Howdenshire Division of Yorkshire since 1915. *Address*: Governor's Camp, Bengal.

JACKSON, GILBERT HOLMESHEAD BLOMFELD M.A., (Oxon), I.O.S., Puisne Judge, Madras High Court. b. 26th Jan. 1875. *m.* to Mrs Jackson. *Educ.*: Marlborough College, Merton College, Indian Civil Service. *Address*: High Court, Madras.

JACKSON, SIR JOHN ERNEST, Kt. (1924), C.I.E., A.C.A., J.P., Agent, B. B. & C. I. Railway, Bombay, since 1925. b. 26 November 1876. *Educ.*: Marlborough College. Assistant Auditor, L. Indian Ry.; 1900, Chief Auditor Calcutta Port Trust, 1907; Chief Auditor, B. B. & C. I. Ry., 1911. *Address*: "Bombard", Altamont Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

JADHAV, BHASKARRAO VITHOJI-RAO, M.A., LL.B., M.L.C. b. 5 May 1867 *m.* to a lady from the Vichare family of Ratnagiri District. *Educ.*: Wilson College, Elphinstone College, and Government Law School. Served in Kolhapur State and retired as Revenue Member of the State Council. Started the Maratha Educational Conference in 1900 and revived the Satya Shodhak movement in 1911, and has been in the Non-Brahmin movement in the Presidency from its inception, Minister of Education, 1924-26; Leader of the Non-Brahmin Party in the Legislative Council. *Address*: Kolhapur and Girgaum (Bombay).

JAFFER, HON. KHAN BAHADUR SIR IBRAHIM HAKRON, Member of the Council of State, b. Dec. 27, 1881. *Educ.*: Deccan College Poona; Landlord and Proprietor of Messrs Jaffer Jussuff & Co.; President, Anjuman-i-Islam, Poona; Hon. Secy., Islamia School, Managing Trustee of Jame-Musjid and trustee and member of other institutions and funds. Organised Bombay Presidency Muslim League, 1908; General Secretary, Bombay Presidency Muslim Educational Conference; President, All-India Muslim Conf., Lucknow, 1919, at which All-India Central Khilafat Committee established; Member, Cantonment Reforms Committee; Member Bombay Legislative Council, 1916-19; *Address*: Mussalman, 1919-20, India Muslim Educational Conference, 1920; President, Third All-India Cantonment Conference, 1922. Member of the Court, and

tive Council Muslim University, Aligarh; re-elected to the Council of State, 1926. Created a Knight in July 1926. *Address*: East Street, Poona.

AGATNARAYAN, PANDIT Pleader, Chief Court of Oudh. *b.* Dec. 1864. *m.* Srimati

Government and Public Health. Address: Golagani, Lucknow.

AMES, FREDERICK ERNEST, M.A., O.B.E. (1918), Chevalier de l'Ordre de Leopold (1920), General Secretary, Y.M.C.A., Calcutta *b.* 1891 *m.* Eleanor May Thacksah (1919). *Educ.*: Leeds and London University. Lecturer at Leeds University. Army 1914-15, discharged on account of illness. Belgian Red Cross, 1916 *and*

and Secretary, Y.M.C.A., Calcutta, 1920, Member Bengal Leeds Council, 1924-26; Re-elected 1928; President, Calcutta Rotary Club 1925-6; visited Persia *re* welfare of British employers in A.P.O.C., 1924; visited British East Indies, 1927 in establishment of Y.M.C.A. *Publications*: Brochures on Kenya League of Nations, Many articles on social reform. *Address*: 5, Victoria Terrace, Calcutta.

AMES, MAJOR-GENERAL SIR WILLIAM BERNARD; *Kt* 1925, C.B. (1918); C.I.E., (1912); M.N.O. (1911). *b.* 8 Feb. 1865. *m.* Elizabeth Minto, *c. d.* of late William Minto of Tingri Estate, Assam. *two s. Educ.*: U.S. College and Sandhurst, 1st Commission in 1886, Derbyshire Regiment 1888, 2nd Lancers, Intelligence Branch War Office 1900-01; South African War 1902, various staff appointments in India; A. Q. M. G. Coronation Durbar, 1911; A. Q. M. G. Corps, France, 1914-15; Brig.-General, General Staff, France, 1915-16. (Despatches) Brevet Colonel. Temp. Q.M.G. India, 1916-17; Major-General, Administration, Southern Command, 1917-19, Commanding Bombay District, 1919-22; Director of Remounts, India, 1922-26. Founder and thrice President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India 1923. *Address*: Remount Depot, Saharapur U. P.

AMIAT RAI, DIWAN RAI BAHADUR, C.I.E., DIWAN BAHADUR, b. 1861. *m.* 1891. *Educ.* Bhowan, Kohat, and Gujrat, Ent. Govt. Service, 1880, served in 1880, Political Office with Kuram F. F., 1880; accompanied Afghan Boundary Commission, 1885-1886; special duty, boundary settlement of Laghari Barkhan, 1897; Asst. to the Supdt. of Gazetteers of Baluchistan, 1902-07; services acknowledged by Govt. of India; on special duty in connection with revision of Establishments, 1910; Asst. to Supdt. of Census Operations, Baluchistan, 1910-11; Ex Asst. Commr., 1902; Settlement Officer, Baluchistan, 1912; Provincial Superintendent of Census for Baluchistan, 1920-22; President, Huda Panchayat and

*D. Fund Committee
Prov. Council Boy Scouts Mem.*

ber. Provincial Ex. Committee, Red Cross Society, Grammar School Committee. *Publication*: Quetta Municipal Manual; History of Freemasonry in Quetta; Reports on the settlement of Duki and Barkhan. Notes on (1) Domileli Hindus, (2) Hindus of Kandahar and Ghazni, (3) Purabi mental castes and sweepers, (4) Afghan Pawindhas (5) Achakzai Pathans, (6) Shinwar, (7) Shorard Valley and (8) Revenue rates and economic conditions, (9) Administration of justice in rural areas of Baluchistan. *Address*: Quetta.

JANAK SINGH, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BAHADUR B.A., C.I.E.; Army and Revenue Minister Jammu and Kashmir Government. *b.* 1877. *Educ.* Government College, Lahore. Joined Kashmir Service in 1901 serving in various capacities both in Civil and Military Depts. In the Civil Branch as Naib Tehsildar, Tehsildar Dist. Muzte, and Sessions Judge and finally as Revenue Minister. In the Military Branch as Dy. Asst. Quarter-Master General, Brigade Major, O. C. the 2/2 Kashmir Rifles and 3rd Kashmir Rifles Got Afghan War Medal 1919; Military Secretary to Commander in Chief, Jammu and Kashmir State Forces, and Army Minister. *Address*: Jammu.

JAORA STATE, MAJOR H. H. FAKHAR TO DAULA NAWAB SIR MUHAMMED IFTIKHAR AL KHAN BAHADUR SAULAT JANG, K.C.I.E. b. 1883. H. H. served in European War. *Address*: Jaora State, Central India.

JATKAR, BHIMRAO HANMANTRAO, B.A., LL.B. Pleader and Member, Legislative Assembly *b.* 24 April 1880. *m.* to Annapurnabai Jatkar *Educ.*: at Basim A. V. School, Amraoti High School, Fergusson College, Poona, and Govt Law School, Bombay. Joined Yeotmal Bar in 1906; a Congressman working as one of the Joint Secretaries of the District Association Yeotmal, since its inception in 1915; non-official elected Chairman, Yeotmal Municipality, since 1919. *Address*: Yeotmal (Berar).

JAYAKAR, MOKUND RAMRAO, M.A., LL.B. Bar-at-Law, Member Legislative Assembly *Educ.*: at Bombay University. Started a charitable public school called Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay worked there four years; practised as a barrister in Bombay High Court; took to public life in 1916 and since 1921 completely in public life; elected to Bombay Legis. Council in 1923 by the Bombay University Constituency; and was leader of the Sward Party in Bombay Council until his resignation after the meeting of the Congress in 1925. *Publication*:—Edited a book on Vedanta Philosophy in 1924. *Address*: 391, Thakurdwar, Bombay 2.

JAYANTI RAMAYYA PANTULU, B.A., B.L. *b.* Aug. 1861. *Educ.*: at Rajahmundry and Madras, Served in Rev. Deptt. in Madras Presidency and retd. as 1st Grade Depy Collr., 1917; acted as Presidency Magistrate, Madras, for three years. Member, Legislative Assembly. *Publications*: A defence of literary Telugu and several articles on literature, history and archaeology. *Address*: Mukteswaram Tettemand P. O. Godavari Dist.

CHILIANI DR. HAJ SYAD ABUL K and

retired Medical Officer and Superintendent of District Jail. b July 1867; m. d of Subadar Major Yaseeb Khan Sahab Sirdar Bahadur. Educ. at Saint Thomas Mount, Madras. Was Member, Cantonment Committee for 14 years; member, district board for 12 years of which for 3 years was Vice-President; and Hon. Magte. for Madras for seven years. Address: Saint Thomas' Mount, Madras.

EFFERY, COLONEL WALTER HUGH, C.I.E. (1914); O.S.I. (1924); General Staff, Army Headquarters, b. 15 Dec. 1878. m. Cicely Charlotte Cowdell. Educ.: at Blundells, Tiverton and Plymouth College. Address: Simla.

EHANGIR, SIR COWASJEE, 1st Baronet; nephew and adopted son of late Sir Cowasjee Jehangir Readymoney, C.S.I. b. 8th June 1858. m. 1876, Dhunbai, d. of the late Ardeshir Hormusjee Wadia; one s, 2 d. Educ.: Proprietary School; Elphinstone College and University of Bombay. Banker, millowner and landed proprietor; J.P. Created knight 1895, created Baronet; 1908, well-known for his philanthropy. Delegate of the Parsee Matrimonial Court; and Trustee and member of the Parsee Panchayet. Appointed Sheriff of Bombay in 1919; has assumed the name of Cowasjee Jehangir. Address: Readymoney House, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

EHANGIR, COWASJI, SIR (Junior), M.A. (Cambridge), K.C.I.E. (1927) C.I.E. (1920); O.B.E. (1913); Member of the Bombay Executive Council 1923, b. Feb. 1879; m. to Hirabai, d. of H. A. Hormasji of Lowji Castle. Educated at St. Xavier's College, Bombay, and St. John's College, Cambridge. Member of the Bombay Corporation since 1904; Chairman of its Standing Committee, 1914-15; Member of the Bombay Improvement Trust; President, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1919-20; Temporary Member of the Executive Council, Bombay (Dec. 1921). Address: Nepsan Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JEJBHOY, SIR JAMSETJEE, 5th Baronet, K.C.B.I., Vice-Presdt., Legis. Assembly. b. 6th March 1878; s. father Sir Jamsetjee, 1908, and assumed the name of Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy in lieu of Rustomjee; Head of the Zoroastrian Community in Bombay; Pres. of the Sir Jamsetjee Charity Funds, and Member of Municipal Corporation. m. 1906, Serenebai Jalbhoy Ardesar Sett. Address: Mazagon Castle, Bombay.

EVONS, HERBERT STANLEY, M.A., B.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.S.S.; Prof. of Economics in Univ. of Rangoon since 1923. b. 8 October 1875. Educ.: Giggleswick Gram. Sch. University Coll., London; Trin. Coll., Cambridge; Geol. Inst., Heidelberg; Univ. Demonstrator in Petrology, Cambridge, 1900-01; Lecturer in Mineralogy and Geology, and Asst. to Prof. Sir T. W. Edgeworth David, F.R.S., in University of Sydney, N.S.W., 1902-04; Lectr. and later Fulton Prof. of Econ. and Pol. Science in Univ. Coll. of S. Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff, 1905-11; engaged in garden city and housing reform propaganda, 1911-14. Professor of Economics in the University of Allahabad, 1914-23. Has undertaken researches in rural

economic phenomena and Indian Currency and Finance, 1915-1921. Until recently was editor of the Indian Journal of Economics, and Hon. Treas. Indian Economic Association. Publications: Essays on Economics: The Sun's Heat and Trade Activity; The British Coal Trade; Consolidation of Agricultural Holdings in the U.P.; Economics of Tenancy Law and Estate Management, Money, Banking and Exchange in India; The Future of Exchange, and numerous books, papers and articles on Petrology, Mineralogy, Economics, Politics, Housing Reform, etc. Address: University College, Rangoon.

JEYPORE, MAHARAJA OF, Lieutenant Sri Sri Sri Maharaja Ramchandra Deo Maharaja of Jeypore Samasthanam, s. of late Maharaja Sri Sri Vikrama Deo Bahadur, K.C.I.E., and late Sri Sri Sri Lady Seethapatta Maharani Circar b. 31st Dec. 1893. Educ.: privately under Dr. J. Marsh, M.A., LL.D., Newton, Laq. M.A., and E. Winkler, Esq., B.A. m. 1913 Sri Sri Sri Lakshmi Patta Maharani Circar, d. of the late Maharajah Sir Sri Bhagavat Prasad Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., of Bairaampur, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. First Landed Zamindar in the Madras Presidency, owning about 14,000 square miles. Address: Fort, Jeypore, Vizagapatam Agency, Madras Presidency, India.

JHALA, RAJ RANA SRI MANSTEJJI SURAT-SINHI, C.I.E. (1918); Dewan, Dhrangadhra State and some time Member, State Cabinet at Jaipur, Rajputana. Educ.: Dhrangadhra and Rajkot. Was first Guardian to H. H. Maharaja Sahab of Dhrangadhra when he was Heir-Apparent and accompanied him to England; was afterwards for a few years in Government service and left it as Dy Superintendent of Police to join service in his parental State, where he was for a year Personal Assistant to H. H. Maharaja Sahab and then his Dewan. Member of the State Council, Jaipur, from Dec. 1922 to March 1928. Address: Lal Bungalow, Dhrangadhra.

JHALAWAR, H. H. MAHARAJ RANA SIR BHAWANI SINGH BAHADUR OF, K.C.S.I., b. 1874; s. 1899. Educ.: Mayo Coll., Ajmer. Has greatly extended education throughout the State and established several libraries. Made a "Round the World Tour" in 1925 Via Panama Canal. Has travelled over a great part of Europe and has a taste for Music, Science and Literature. Was a Research Student at New Oxford College, Oxford, and is a fellow of the Chemical Society and Vice-President of the India Society; Member, Royal Institution of Great Britain, Royal Astronomical Society, Royal Botanical Society, Royal Aeronautical Society, Royal Asiatic Society, Royal Society of Arts, League of Nations Union and Zoological Society, London, and a Member of the American Chemical Society. Publications: Travel Pictures and Babies and its Treatment. Address: Jhalrapatan, Rajputana.

JIND, H. H. FARZAND-I-DILBAND HASIKH-UL-ITRAH DAULAT-I-INGLISHA, RAJA-I-RAJAN MAHARAJA SIR RANBIER SINGH RAJENDRA BAHADUR, COLONEL, B.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. b. 1879 - s. 1887. Address: Sangrur, Jind State, Punjab.

INNAH, MAHOMED ALL, B.A., LL.B., and
Member, Leg. Assembly, b. 25th Dec. 1876.
m. d. of Sir Dinshaw Petit. *Educ.* at Karachi
and in England. Enrolled as Advocate, Bom-
bay High Court, 1908; Pte. Secretary to
Dadasaheb Naoraji, 1906; Member, Imperial
Legis. Council, 1910, President, Muslim League
(special session) 1920. *Address:* Malabar Hill,
Bombay.

**ODHPUR, MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS RAJ RAJESH-
WAR Saramad Rajah-Hindhustan Maharaja**
Dhraj Sri Sir Umed Singhji Sahib Bahadur
of, K.C.V.O. (1922); K.C.S.I. (1925). b. 8 July,
1903, m. H. H. Maharani Sri Vadan Kan-
warji Sahiba of Umednagar. *Educ.* Mayo
College, Ajmer. Ascended the Gaddi, 1918;
invested with full ruling powers 1923.
Address: Jodhpur, Rajputana.

OGLEKAR, RAO BAHADUR RAMOHANDRA
NARAYAN, I.S.O., B.A., Chief Land Officer,
Tata Co., Coll. Baroda State, from Decr. 1916
to June 30, 1920. Depy. Coll. First grade
and Native Asst. to Commr., C.D., 1901-16;
some time Adv. to Chief of Ichalkaranji;
b. Satara, 8th Dec. 1858. *Educ.*: Deccan Coll.,
Poona. Held non-gazetted appointments in
Nasik, Satara, Ahmednagar, Poona and Shola-
pur Dist., 1883-1899; Depy. Coll., 1899.
Publications: Land Revenue Code annota-
ted up to 1st Octr. 1920; Watan Act annota-
ted up to 1st Sept. 1920; Alienation Manual;
Inspection of Revenue offices; Court fees
in Revenue and Magisterial offices.
Address: 203, Kala Haud, Shukrawar Peth,
Poona City.

OHN, SIR EDWIN, KT. (1922), C.B.E., 1921;
Kt. of the Order of St. Gregory the Great
(Civil Order) 1901. Grand Commander, St.
Sylvester the Great (1920); Inspector-General
of Factories, Gwalior, C.I., b. 3 August 1856,
m. 1879, Mary Sykes, Southport Lancs; one d.
Educ. Stonyhurst. *Address:* Gwalior, C.I.

JOHNSTON, Sir FREDERICK WILLIAM, K.C.I.E.,
C.S.I., Agent to the Governor-General and
Chief Commissioner in Baluchistan; b. 2 Nov.
1872, m. 1905 Gertrude Helen, d. of the late
Lt.-Col. J. Young, one s. *Educ.*: Kelvinside
Acad., Glasgow; Trinity Hall, Cambridge.
(B.A., 1894). Joined the Punjab Commission
as Asst. Commr., 1898; went to N.W.
Front., 1899; and was employed there till end
of 1911, Govt. of India, Finance Dept., 1911-
15, Ministry of Munitions, England, 1915-17.
Address: The Residency, Quetta.

JOSHI, SR. MOROPANT VISHVANATH, KT.,
K.C.I.E., B.A., LL.B., b. 1861. *Educ.*: Deccan
Coll., Poona, and Elphinstone Coll.,
Bombay. Practised as Advocate in Judicial
Commr.'s Court in Berar from 1884-1920.
Home Member, C. P. Govt., 1920-25. *Address:*
Nagpur, C. P.

JOSHI, NARAYAN MALHAR, B.A., M.L.A., Member
of the Servants of India Soc. b. June
1879. *Educ.*: Poona New English School and
Deccan Coll. Taught in private schools and
Govt. High Schools for 8 years. Joined
Servants of India Soc., 1909. Sec., Bombay
Social Service League, since 1911, and Sec.,
Bombay Prasy. Social Reform Assoc., since
1917. Sec., W. India Nat.

since 1919. Was sent to

by Govt
of India as
of the
From

1917 and in 90 to Washington and in 1922
and 1922 and in 1925 to Geneva as delegated
the working classes in India to International
Labour Confe. Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal
(1919). Was awarded, but declined C.I.E.
in 1921. Member of the Bombay Municipal
Corpn. since 1919, up to end of March 1923.
Nominated by Govt., a Member of the
Legislative Assembly in 1921 and again in
1924 and in 1927 to represent labour in
terceris. *Address:* Servants of India Society
Saundhurst Road, Bombay.

JUNAGADH, H. H. SIR MAHARAJKHANDI
RASULEKHANI, K.C.S.I., Nawab Sahab of
b. 2nd Aug. 1900, m. Her Highness Senior
Begum Saheba Manuvvarjahan of Bhopal.
Educ.: Mayo College, Ajmer. *Address:* Juna-
gadh.

JUGMOHANDAS VARJIVANDAS, SIR, KT.,
Merchant and Landlord; b. 1869. *Educ.*
Fort High Sch., Bombay. Mem., Bombay
Corpn., 1900-06; trustee of several charitable
institutions. *Address:* Bombay.

JUKES, JOHN EDWIN CLAPHAM, C.I.E. (1921,
Finance Dept., Govt. of India, b. 12 Nov.
1878. *Educ.*: Coll.
Cambridge, F.
Chancellor's C.
Marguerite Jc
Searle of Reigate. *Address:* Chislehurst,
Surrey.

KAJIJI, ABDRAH MAHOMEDALI, BA
LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law; late Judge,
High Court, Bombay, b. 12 February
1871. *Educ.*: St. Mary's Institution
Byculla; St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay, Downing
Coll., Cambridge, and Lincoln's Inn, Ord.
Fellow, Syndic and Dean in Law of Bombay
Univ.; President, Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay
and Islam Club and Vice-President, Islam
Gymkhana. *Address:* Dilkhoosh, Grant Road
Bombay.

KALE, VAMAN GOVIND, Professor, Fergusson
College, b. 1876. *Educ.*: New English
School and Fergusson Coll., Poona.
Joined the Deccan Education Socy. of
Poona, as a life member in 1907. Fellow of
Bombay Univ. for five years since 1910. Prof.
of History and Economics, Fergusson
Coll. Member, Council of State, 1921-23, and
member, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-25.
Secretary, D. E. Society, Poona, from 1925.
Liberal in Politics, has addressed nu-
merous public meetings; has published
many articles on economics and political and
social reform, and the following works:
"Indian Problems"
"Indian Economics"
"Gokhale"
"War Finance," "Currency Reform in India"
"Constitutional Reforms in India," etc.
Address: Fergusson Coll., Poona and
"Durgadhivasa," Poona, (D. G.).

KAMAT, BALKRISHNA SITARAM, B.A., Mer-
chant, b. 21 March, 1871. *Educ.*: Deccan
Coll. m. Miss Yamunabai R. M. Gawaskar of
Cochin. Member, Bombay Legis. Council
1919-20, 1920-21, 1921-22, 1922-23.
Member of the
Legislative Assembly
1923 Member of

KASIMBAZAAR, MAHARAJA SIE MANINDRA-
CHANDRA NADY OF, K.C.I.E., Vice-President,
Bengal Landholders' Association and British
Indian Association. Educ.: Hindu School,
was Member-Council of State. Below

o Moderate School of Po., takes a keen interest in and is a patron of education, industries, agriculture, literature and politics. *Publications:* Upasana B. S. Panjika, The Indian Medical Plant, A History of Indian Philosophy, Great Baisnava Granthas, Part 10 of Sreemat Bhagbat, Fundamental unity of India, History of Indian Shipping and Maritime Activity. *Address:* Kasumbazaar, Bengal.

KASTURBHAI LALBHAI, SMITH, M.L.O., b. 22 Dec. 1894. m. Srimati Sardaben, d. of Mr. Chimanlal Vadilal Zaveri of Ahmedabad. *Educ.:* at Gujrat College, Ahmedabad, Hon. Secretary, Ahmedabad Famine Relief Committee 1918-19; elected Vice-President, Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, 1923-26, elected member, Legislative Assembly as a representative of the Millowners' Association (1923-26), *Address:* Pankore's Naka, Ahmedabad.

LAY, SIR JOSEPH ASPDEN, Kt. (1927) M.L.C., J.P., Managing Director, W. H. Brady & Co., Ltd., b. 20 Jan. 1884. *Educ.:* at Bolton, Lancashire, Came to India to represent firm 1907; Managing Director and Chairman of Board of the several companies under their control; Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1921 and 1922; Employers' Delegate to International Labour Conference, 1923; Officer in Bombay Light Horse; Vice-President Chamber of Commerce, 1925, President, Chamber of Commerce, 1926, and Vice-President, Indian Central Cotton Committee, 1925 and 1926; Chairman, Back Bay Enquiry Committee, 1926. *Address:* Wilderness, Cottage Nepean Sea Road, Bombay.

LAZI SYED, HIFAZAT ALI, B.A., LL.B. b. 1892. *Educ.:* Jubbulpore, Aligarh and Allahabad. Elected President, Municipal Committee, Khandwa, 1920. Minister for Local Self-Government, Public Works, Public Health, etc., Central Provinces. *Address:* Imlipora, Khandwa.

LEALY, EDWARD HERBERT, C.I.E. (1926). I.C.S., A.G.G., Western India b. 1873, m. 1903 Temepe, d. of Sir Charles Bayley, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., *Educ.:* Felsted and University College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1897, Bengal, 1897-1902, Joined Political Dept. Govt. of India, March 1902. Served in Rajputana, Central India, Ajmer-Merwara, N.W.F.P. F.A.A.G.G. Central India, 1904-05; Assist. Sec., Govt. of India, Foreign and Political Dept., 1905; Census Superintendent, Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara, 1910-13; Secretary N.W.F.P., 1910-20; Offg. Resident, Gwalior, 1922, Resident, Baroda, June 1923, March 1927; offg. A.G.G., Central India, March-October 1927; A.G.G., Western India, October 1927. *Publications:* Revised Atchinson's Treaties (1909) and Census Reports on Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara (1913). *Address:* The Residency, Rajkot.

DANE, MICHAEL, C.I.E. (1921); Commissioner of Jhansi, U. P. b. 1874, m. Joyce Lovett-Thomas, *Educ.:* School Clongowes Wood, and Univ. Coll., Dublin Entered I.C.S., 1894. Has been Under-Secy to Govt. on deputation under the Govt. of India for settlement work in the Deok and Sirhi

State in Rajputana District Office. an Agri. and Cawnpore, Judicial Secy. to Govt., Chief Secy. to Govt. and President, U. P. Legislative Council 1921-25. *Address:* Lucknow

KEHLING, SIR HUGH TROWBRIDGE, Kt. (1923). C.S.I., 1915, A.M.I.C.E., Ch. Eng., and Secy. to Ch. Commr., Delhi, since 1912; Mem. of Delhi Imp. Commn., 1913; Mem., Institute Engineers. (Ind.) b. 14 April 1885. *Educ.:* Marlborough and Cooper's Hill; m. Edith d. of Col. T. O. Underwood, late 4th Punjab Cavalry. Asst. Eng., Madras P. W. D., 1897; Exec. Eng., 1898. Superintending Eng., 1910. *Address:* P. W. D., Delhi.

KEEN, LIEUT.-COLONEL WILLIAM JOHN, C.I.E. (1916), C.B.E. (1920), Pol. Dept., Government of India. Officiating Chief Commissioner N.W.F.P. (1926). b. 24 March, 1873; m. 1899 Marion Beatrice, d. of Col. A. McL. Mills, 37th Dogras; two s. two d. *Educ.:* Haileybury College, R. M. C., Sandhurst. Gaz. to R. Welsh Fus., 1892; Trans. to I A 37th Dogras, 1894; served Chitral Res. Exp., 1895; Joined Punjab Commn., 1898; Pol. Dept., Govt. of India, 1901; serving in N.W. Fron. Prov.; served Kabul Khel Exp., 1902 Mohmand Exp., 1908; Great War, 1914-18, Afghan War, 1919. *Address:* Revenue Commissioner, Peshawar, N. W. F. P.

KELLY, HENRY GERALD, V.D., J.P., Hon. Col., G. I. P. Ry. Regiment, A. F. I.; Chief Transportation Superintendent, G. I. P. Ry. b. February 3, 1874. *Educ.:* Stonyhurst College Lancashire. Appntd. Assistant Loco. Supdt Indian Midland Rly., Feb. 1896, transferred on amalgamation to the G. I. P. Ry. in 1901. Appointed to act as Chief Transportation Supdt. from 22nd March 1927.

KEITH, THE HON. SIR WILLIAM JOHN, Kt. (1925), C.I.E., 1917, I.C.S., M.A., Member and Vice-President of the Executive Council of the Governor of Burma and Finance Member of the Burma Legislative Council, b. 13 Jan. 1874. *Educ.:* d. of Sir Harvey, b. 1844, m. 1874. *Educ.:* Harrow, England. Govt. of Burma (1910-15); One s. two d. *Educ.:* Edinburgh H. Sch. and Univ.; Christ Church Oxford. Ent., I.C.S., 1895 (just in final Exam. 1906). Secy. to Fin. Commr., 1899-1900. Sett. Offr. 1907-10; Secy. to Govt. of Burma 1911, Rev. Secy., 1912-19 and Mem. of Council of Lt.-Governor; Commr., Magwe Divn., 1919-21; Member, Indian Leg. Assembly Delhi Sessions, 1921 & 1922; Offg. Development Commissioner, Burma, 1923, Financial Commissioner, 1923, and Vice-President of the Legislative Council of the Lieut. Governor of Burma; Acting Governor of Burma, May to July 1925. *Address:* Proms House, Rangoon. M. Khurst, Maymyo.

KELKAR, NAKSINHA CHINTAMAN, B.A., LL.B. (1894); M.L.A., Editor, *Kesari*, Poona b. 24 Aug. 1872. m. Durgabai, d. of Moropant Pandse, *Educ.:* Miraj, Poona, Bombay Dist Court Pleader till 1898, editor, *Mahratta*, Poona, from 1897 to 1919; editor, *Kesari*, from 1897 to 1899 and again from 1910 Municipal Councillor from 1898 to 1924, President, Poona City Municipality in 1918 and again from 1922 to 1924, m. 1918, Bombay Provincial Conference 1920 Delegate and member of Home Rule

League and member of Home Rule

ation to England in 1919; r of the Legislative Assembly *lections*: Books in Marathi: historical treatise, 1 treatise on amour, Biographies of Bal ak and Garibaldi, History of nglish, Case for Indian Home ks of Lokmanya's life; and 'hase of Politics." *Address*: Peth, Poona City.

ON MR. JUSTICE NORMAN t Law (Inner Temple); Judge Court, Bombay b. 29 Octo- . the Collegiate, Edinburgh nple Chief Presidency Magis- , Chief Judge of Small Causes , Addl. Judicial Commissioner, High Court, Bombay.

JARDS, MAJOR WILLIAM IVEY, I.E., A.M.I. Chem., E. London. H.M. Mint, Bombay. b. 20 olperro, Cornwall. m. 1916, d of late J. W. Richards of am Wales. *Educ.*: The Truro col and Rodruth School of l Arrived India 1st June 1918 ommissioned 2nd-Lt. R.G.A. om Army, April 1920. Joined an 1920 as Dy. Assay Master ssay Master, April 1922. Majesty's Assay Office H.M.

T AHMAD, B.A., First Class History 1914, Litt. D., 1919, e Dublin; University Professor an History, Allahabad Unver- y 1893. m. Fahmeda, younger e late Justice Shah Din of the Court. *Educ.*: Government Moradabad; Sidney Sussex idge, Trinity College, Dublin; ersity of London. Lecturer County Council, 1917-1919; Royal Historical Society, Lon- ve apours of lectures at the tal Studies and King's College, London, 1919-20. Member, ces Legislative Council, from P since 1924. Gave evidence rms Enquiry Committee, 1924; Enquiry Committee, in 1925, mmittees in United Provinces. the Provincial Muhammadan onference, held at Allahabad *lections*: Founder and Edi- the Journal of Indian History; nglo Portuguese. Negotiations ay, 1667-1673" in 1923; East he Seventeenth Century, 1924; he History of British India in th Century' 1926. *Address*: Allahabad, Allahabad.

JANESH SHRIKRISHNA, B.A. (1884). Advocate and Member late b. 1855. m. to Laxmi Bai. ar and Bombay. Ex^{tra} Asstt. m Berar from 1885 to 1889: e Bar, Vice-Chairman of the akty and Chairman of the of nearly 17 years. Member Legislative Council; Member of State re-elected in 1925 a Barar C P

KHWAJA MUHAMMAD NUR, THE HON. KHAN BAHADUR. B.A., B.L., President, Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council. b. 28 Sept. 1878. *Educ.*: Gaya Zillah School, Doveton Coll., Calcutta; Ripon Coll., Calcutta. Practised as lav Co Gr

KING, CHARLES MONTAGUE O.S.I. (1922). C.I.E., Financial Commr., Punjab, 1922, *Educ.*: St. Paul's School, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.O.S., 1892. Depy. Commr., 1901; Com- missioner, 1917; Dy. Commr., Punjab, 1901-22. *Address*: Lahore.

KIRKPATRICK, LEUT.-GENERAL SIR GEORGE MACAULAY, K.C.B. (1918); K.C.S.I., (1917), G.O.C. in Chief. Western Command. b. 23 August, 1866. m. Mary Lydia, d. of J F Dennistorm, K.C., R.M.O., Kingston, Canada. *Educ.*: Haileybury. Joined Royal Engineers, 1885; Inspector-General, Australian Military Forces. Chief of General Staff, India, 1916-1920 G.O.C. China Command, 1920-1922.

KIRPALANI, HIRANAND KHUSHIRAM, I.C.S., M.A. (Bom.), B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at Law (Lincoln's Inn), 1912; b. 28 Jan, 1888 m. to Gull H. Gidvani. *Educ.*: N. H. Academy, Hyderabad (Sind), D. J. Sind College, Karachi and Merton Coll., Oxford Asstt. Collr. and Magte., Ahmedabad, Broach and Surat, 1912-1918. Municipal Commr., Surat, 1918 to 1920. Talugdari Settlement Officer, Guzerat, 1921. Dy. Municipal Com- missioner, Bombay, 1921, Collr. and Dist Magte., Kaira, 1923-24; Dy. Secretary to Government, Rev. Deptt., 1924-26, Ag Municipal Commissioner for the City of Bombay. *Address*: Near Foujdari, Hyderabad, Sind.

KISCH, BARTHOLO SCHLESINGER, B.A. (Oxford), C.I.E. (1926); I.C.S. District and Sessions Judge, United Provinces; Controller, Local Clear- ing Office (Enemy Debts) and Administra- tor of Austrian and Hungarian Property in India; attached to Legislative Department, Government of India. b. 25 Oct. 1882 m. Madeleine Louise Claire Bernard-Antony. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School London and Exeter College, Oxford. *Address*: Delhi and Simla

KISHENGARH, H. H. MAHARAJA ADHIRAJ MAHARAJA MADANSINGH BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.; b. Nov. 1884; s. father, late Maha- raja Sir Sardul Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E.; cr. 1892; m. 2nd d. of present Chief of Udaipur, served European War, 1914-15. *Address*: Kishengarh, Rajputana.

KISHUN PERSHAD, RAJA-I-RAJAYAN MAHA- RAJA BAHADUR, YAMINUS-SALTANATH SIR, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E. cr. 1903, G.C.I.E., cr. 1910 Hereditary Paishkar and President of the State Executive Council; Hyderabad State b. 28 Jan. 1864. *Educ.*: Nizam's College, Paishkar and Military Minister 1893-1901, Prime Minister 1901-1912. President of Executive Council since Nov. 1926 under Publications: Copi prose and poetry Hyderabad States man Maharaja Chandoo Lal. Heir Raja Khaja Porband. *Address*: City Palace, Hy derabad.

OLHAPUR, Lt. Col. His Highness Sir Shri Rajaram Chhatrapati, Maharaja of, since 1922; G.O.I.E. (1924). b. 30 July 1897; s. of Col. Sir Shahu Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur (d. 1922); direct descendant of Shivaji the Great, the Founder of the Maratha Empire. m. 1918 H. H. Shrimati Tarabai Sahib, g. d. of H. H. Sir Sayajirao Maharaj Gaekwar, Ruler of Baroda. m. again to Her Highness

in the Indian Army was conferred in April 1927. Address: Kolhapur.

OLLENGODE, RAJA SIR V. VASUDEVA RAJA, VALIA NAMBI OF, Kt., (1925), C.I.F. (1915), E.M.U. (1921); Landholder. b. Oct. 1873. m. to G. Kalyani Amma, d. of Mr. K. Rama Menon, Chief Justice of Travancore. Educ.: Rajah's High School, Kollengode, and Victoria College, Palghat, Senior member and manager of the aristocratic family of Vengalad in Malabar; twice nominated as member of Madras Legislative Council, afterwards elected Member, Madras Legislative Council, representing landholders; Member, Council of State (1922). Temp. Member, Madras Executive Council, from Nov. 1923 to April 1924. Address: Kollengode, Malabar Dist.

LOTAN, R. H. LIEUT.-COLONEL SIR UMED SINGH BAHADUR, MAHARAO OF, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.E., G.B.E., K.O.S.I., Hon. Lt.-Col., in Army; Hon. Major, 42nd Deoli Regt. b. 1873. s. 1889. Address: Kotah, Rajputana.

KOTLA, HON. RAJA KUSHALPALESINGH OF, M.A. (Cal.), LL.B. (All.), LL.D., Ph.D., Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly. b. 15 Dec. 1872; s. to Kotla estate, 1905. Mem. of U. P. Leg. Coun. since 1909. Mem. of Imp. Leg. Coun. as Rep. of landed aristocracy of Prov. of Agra, 1913. Sp. Mag., Vice-Chairman of Agra Dist. Bd.; Chairman of Ferozabad Mun.; Trustee and Mem. of Managing Committee of Agra Coll. Address: Kotla Fort, P.O. Kotla, Dist. Agra, U.P.

KRISHNAMACHARYA, RAO BAHADUR VANGAL THIRUVENGADA, B.A., B.L., C. I. E. (1926), Dewan of Baroda. b. 1881. m. Sri Rangammal. Educ.: Presidency Coll. Madras and Law Coll., Madras. Entered Madras Civil Service by a competitive examination in 1903; served in several districts: 1908-1911 Chief Revenue Officer, Cochin State; also Offg. Diwan for some time 1913-1919; served in Madras as Asst. Secy., Board of Revenue, Under-Secy. to Govt., Special Officer for Southborough Committee, etc. 1919-1922 Trustee, Vizianagaram Estate; 1923-1924 Collector of Bannard; April 1924 to Feb. 1927 Secretary to the Govt. of Madras in Law, Education and other Departments. Joined as Diwan of Baroda, February 1927, services being lent to the Durbar. Address: Chikaram, Baroda.

KSHAUNISH CHANDRA RAY, THE HON. M. A. (Cal.), LL.B. (All.), LL.D., Ph.D., Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly. b. 15 Dec. 1872; s. to Kotla estate, 1905. Mem. of U. P. Leg. Coun. since 1909. Mem. of Imp. Leg. Coun. as Rep. of landed aristocracy of Prov. of Agra, 1913. Sp. Mag., Vice-Chairman of Agra Dist. Bd.; Chairman of Ferozabad Mun.; Trustee and Mem. of Managing Committee of Agra Coll. Address: Kotla Fort, P.O. Kotla, Dist. Agra, U.P.

b. 29 Oct. 1830. m. Jyothirmoyi Debi youngest d. of late Raja Ashutosh Nath Roy of "Purandhar" (Purandhar). son of late Ma Bahadur of Nadia, succeeded 1910; 2d Was elected a Member of the first reformed Council since 1920-23. Council since elected non-official Chairman of Nadia District Board, 1920-24 President, Nadia Landholders Association Address: The Palace, Krishnagar: "Nadia House," 2, Bright Street, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

KUTCH, H. H. MAHARAJA (MAHARAJA) DHIRAJ MURJAN MAHARAO SHRI KHENGARJI SAWAI BAHADUR OF, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.E., b. 23rd August 1866. m. 1884. Represented India Imperial Conference, 1921; received freedom City of London, 1921. Undertook to give £2,000 monthly for support of Indian Regiment during European War, 1915; represented India, League of Nations, 1921; received Freedom of the City of Bath, 1921. Address: The Palace, Bhuj, Kutch.

LAHORE, BISHOP OF, since 1918, Rm. Rev. HENRY BICKERSTETH DURANT, M.A., D.D., C.B.E. Educ.: Highgate Sch.; Pembroke Coll., Camb. Ch. Mass. Coll., (Ipsington Curate of St. Matthew's, East Stonehouse, 1894-96, C.M.S. Missionary, Lucknow, 1896; St. John's Coll., Agra, 1897. Vice-Priz., 1900, Prin., 1911; Fellow, Allahabad Univ., 1906, served European War, Mesopotamia (Kut-el-Amara), 1915 (Despatches), 1918 (Despatches). Address: Bishopsbourne, Lahore.

LAKHMTAS ROWJUR TAIRSEE, B.A., Land lord and Merchant. m. Lakkabai L. R. Tairsee. Educ.: St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Trustee, Tilak Swarn Fund; Member Bombay Municipal Corporation and its Standing Committee, representative, Bombay Municipal Corporation on the Improvement Trust Committee; representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Board of the Bombay Port Trust. Hindu Gymkhana, Finance; Speeches, Horniman. "Priests." Address: 29-31-33, Bora Bazar Street, Fort; and 9A, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill Bombay.

LAKHTAR, CHOW OF, THAKORE SANEB RAJESHWAR KARANSINGJI, b. 11 Jan. 1881 succeeded father 8 Aug. 1924. Address: Lakhtar, Kathiawar Agency, Bombay.

LAKSHMINARAYAN LAL, Rai Sahib, son of Munshi Dyal Narayan Lal, Pleader and Zemindar, b. 1870. m. to Srimati Navaraj Kunwar. Educ. at Aurangabad, Gaya and Patna. Passed pleadership examination in 1890 and since practising as a pleader at Aurangabad and Gaya in the Province of Bihar and Orissa. Was Hon. Organiser of Co-operative Societies; Director and Chairman of the Central Bank, Aurangabad, ex-Chairman of the Local Board, Aurangabad; ex-Chairman of the Divisional Co-operative Federation, Patna; ex-Councillor of the Co-operative Parliament Bihar and Orissa.

nominated member of the first Legislative Assembly, and Member, National Convention; ex-Vice-President, Provincial Hindu Sabha, Bihar and Orissa and ex-President, Propaganda Committee Kayastha Sabha, Bihar and Orissa. *Publications*: *Glories of Indian Medicine*, Sahyog, Samundrajatra, Twelve Main Points of Co-operation, Updesh Manjari and Charkha Mahatmya Hindu-Muslim Janata, Sri Gitaratnawali and Sri Gandhi Gita and Proprietor and Editor, Grihastha Gya. *Address*: Aurangabad Dist., Gaya, Bihar and Orissa.

41. RAO BAHADUR BAKSHI SOHAN, M.L.A. (non-Mahomedan Constituency, Jullundur Divn.), Vakil, H. Ct., Lahore. *b.* 4 April 1857. Practised as Vakil in Kangra, Jullundur and Lahore. Elected Member, Punjab Leg Council, 1912 and 1916. *Address*: High Court, Lahore.

42. PIYARE, Bar-at-Law, Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* Jan. 1860. *Educ.*: Muir Central College, Allahabad. Called to the Bar in 1886; practised up to 1896; was Minister of Sialkote State, 1896-1900; Chief Justice and latterly Judicial Member, Council of State, Indore, from 1900 to 1906; travelled round the world in 1913. *Address*: Meerut.

43. KAKA, JEHANGIR ARDESHIR, artist *b.* 3 March 1884. Grandson of Khan Bahadur Sir Nowrojee Pestonji, Vakil, C.I.E., of Ahmedabad. *m.* Miss Tahira Jamsetji Kharas or Bandra. *Educ.*: Ahmedabad High School; Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay and St. John's Wood and Westminster Schools of Art, London. Painted life size memorial portrait of Sir Nowrojee M. Mehta for

unveiled by H. D. B. Wacha's portrait of Dr. Dadabhai Nowroji's portrait and Principal A. L. Covernton's portrait for Elphinstone Coll. Sir Nowrojee Pestonjee Vakil's portrait for Nowrojee Hall, Ahmedabad; and H. H. the Nawab of Rampur's life size portrait for Durbar Hall, Rampur. Member of the Government of Bombay Board of Examiners for Art Examinations, 1918-1927. *Address*: Jehangir Mansion, Hughes Road, Bombay; The "Studio," Sea Face, Chowpaty, Bombay.

44. GLEY, GEORGE HARRY, M.A., Vice-Chancellor, Dacca University, since January 1 1926; *b.* 14 July 1881; *s.* of Leveson and Matilda Emma Langley; *m.* 1918, Evelyn Mary Biggart, Amagh. *Educ.*: The University, Reading; Scholar in Logic and Psychology; London University, 1906, M.A. in Philosophy with special mark of distinction. University of London 1909. Indian Educational Service, 1913; Professor, Presidency College, Calcutta, 1913; Professor of Philosophy, Dacca College, 1913; Professor of Philosophy and Provost of Dacca Hall, University of Dacca, 1921-25; Acting Vice-Chancellor, Dacca University, July to September 1925. *Publications*: Articles on Mind; Proceedings of Aristotelian Society; Hibbert Journal; Quest; Dacca University Bulletin; Indian Philosophical

Journal, Rangoon, Dacca, & Bengal.

LATIF, CAMRUDIN AMIRUDIN ABDUL, B.A.; late Mem. of Sec. of State's Adv. Comm. for Ind. Students; *b.* Cambay, 28 Sept. 1886. *Educ.*: Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; Bombay Univ.; practised as Vakil of Consular Courts, Zanzibar and Mombassa, 1880-93; Legal Adviser to successive Sultans of Zanzibar Fellow, Bombay Univ.; J.P., Bombay, Hereditary Inamdar, Cambay State. *Address*: 1, Harvey Road, Chowpaty, Bombay.

LATTHE, RAO BAHADUR ANNA BABAJI, M.A., LL.B. (Bombay), Dewan of Kolhapur. *b.* 1878, *m.* to Jyotsnabai Kadre of Kolhapur. *Educ.*: Deccan College, Poona; Prof. of English Rajaram College, Kolhapur. 1907-1911, Educational Inspector, Kolhapur, till 1914. President, Southern Mahratta Jain Association and Karnatak Non-Brahman League, Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; Member of the University Reform Committee, 1924. *Publications*: "Introduction to Jainism" (English); "Growth of British Empire in India" (Marathi); "Memoirs of Shahu Chhatrapati" and "Shri Shahu Chhatrapati's Charitra" in Marathi (1925). *Address*: Kolhapur.

LEFTWICH, CHARLES GERRANS, C.B.E. (1919). Indian Trades Agent, East Africa, *b.* 31 July 1872. *m.* Evadne Fawcett of Alnmouth, Northumberland. *Educ.*: Christ's Hospital and St. John's College, Cantab. Entered I.C.S. 1896. Served in U. P. *Address*: Mombassa.

LEGGE, FRANCIS CECIL, C.B.E., V.D. (1919). Director of Wagon Interchange, Indian Railway Conference Assn. *b.* 14 September 1873. *Educ.*: Sherborne School. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

LESLIE, THADDFORD, LIEUT.-COL. SIR, Kt., O.B.E. (Military, 1917), M. Inst. C.E., M.L.D.E., Chairman and Chief Engineer, Madras Port Trust, *b.* 1868. *m.* Edith Stewart. *Educ.*: Marlborough. On B. N. N. for 12 years retiring as Deputy Agent and Chief Engineer to join firm of Sir John Wolfe Barry and Brunel Consulting Engineers, Westminster Lt.-Col. R. B. Northern France 1916 to 1919. Chairman and Chief Engineer, Madras Port Trust since 1921. *Address*: Harbour House, Madras.

LESLIE-JONES, FREDERICK ARCHIBALD, M.A., C.B.E., Principal of Mayo College, *b.* 1874. *m.* Christiana Mary Baskett. *Educ.*: Bromsgrove and Lincoln College, Oxford. Assistant and House Master, Marlborough College, 1897-1900. *Address*: Lahore. *Address*: of English in Ajmere.

LEVETT-YEATS, GERALD AYLMER, C.I.E., I.S.O., V.D.; Factory Supdt., Opium Dept. U.P., since 1903; *b.* 7 March 1863; *Educ.* Private tuition. Managing Director, Opium Factory, 1919; retired 20 Decr. 1920. *Address*: Ghazipur, U. P.

LEW, ARTHUR HERBERT, B.A., C.S.I. (1923), C.I.E. (1918), C.B.E. (1924), Member Public Services Commission, India. *b.* 7 Nov 1879. *Educ.*: Winchester College and New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1903. Under-Secretary Government of Bengal 1908.

Govt. of India 1909-13

Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, 1914-18; Dy. Secretary, Commerce Department, 1915-18; Secretary, Commerce Department, 1919; Chief Controller, Surplus Stores, 1921-23; Secretary, Department of Industries 1923-1926. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

JINDSAY, SIR DARCY, Kt. (1925), C.B.E., 1919 Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1911). M.L.A. b. Nov. 1865. Late Secretary, Calcutta Branch, Royal Insurance Co. *Address*: 26, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta.

JINDSAY, HARRY ALEXANDER FANSHAW, C.B.E., I.C.S., Indian Trade Commissioner, London. b. 11 March 1881; m. Kathleen Louise Huntington. *Educ.* St. Paul's School, London; Worcester College, Oxford. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta, and Oriental Club, London.

JINDSAY, RALPH. Secretary and Treasurer, Imperial Bank of India, Bombay. b. 1880. m. to Jean, d. of Alan MacDongall, Montrose. *Educ.*: at Montrose Academy. Five years Commercial Bank of Scotland, Montrose, Glasgow, Edinburgh; Member, Institute of Bankers in Scotland. Joined Bank of Bombay, 1901; Agent of various branches; was Inspector of Branches at date of formation of Imperial Bank by amalgamation of Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras; apptd. Deputy Secretary, 1928; Secretary and Treasurer, 1924; Member, Bombay Stock Exchange Inquiry Committee, 1923. *Address*: Warden Road, Bombay.

LITTLEHAILES, RICHARD, Offg. Educational Commissioner with Government of India, 1926. b. 14 February 1878. *Educ.*: Balliol Coll., Oxford and Kiel University. Demonstrator and Lecturer, Clarendon Laboratory, Oxford. Joined I.E.S., 1903 as Prof. of Mathematics, Presidency College, Madras. Director of Public Instruction, Madras. *Address*: Cecil Hotel, Simla.

LLOYD, ALAN HUBERT B.A., (Cantab.), C.I.E., I.C.S., Member, Central Board of Revenue. b. August 30, 1883. m. Violet Mary, d. of the late J. C. Orrock. *Educ.*: King William's College, Isle of Man, Gonville & Caius College, Cambridge. Appointed to Indian Civil Service, Burma, 1907; Member Central Board of Revenue since 1923. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

LOHARU, THE HON. NAWAB SIR AMB-UD-DIN AHMED KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., Member, Council of State, and Persian and Urdu Poet. b. 1860, S. 1884. Ruling Chief of Moghal tribe, Abducted in favour of his heir-apparent and Successor in 1920, voluntarily retaining titles and 11 guns salute as personal distinctions. For two years Mem. of Imp. Leg. Council and for two years Mem. of Punjab Council. Superintendent and Adviser to the Malerkotla State in the Punjab for 12 years. Attached to Pol. Dept. in Mesopotamia. *Address*: Loharu, Hissar.

LORT-WILLIAMS, JOHN ROLLESTON, K.C. (1924), Puisne Judge, High Court, Calcutta. b. 14 Sept. 1881 m. 1923. Dorothy Margarey Mary, o. c. of late Edward Russell, The Mermaid, Hampstead. *Educ.*: Merchant Taylors' London University Tenured student

1904, Bar. to., Lincoln's Inn, 1904. Member, Inner and Middle Temple; President, Hardwicke Society, 1911; Contested (c) Pambro keshie, 1906 and 1908; Stockport, December 1910; Member of the Oxford Circuit. Served 1910; Member of the Oxford Circuit. Served six years in Middlesex Imperial Yeomanry Member of the L. C. C. (Limchouse), 1907-10 Vice-Chairman of Housing Committee: Appointed, Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1927 *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.

LUNAWADA, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SIR SHRI WAKHATSINHJI DALESINHJI, RAJAP OF, K.C.I.E.; b. 11 Aug. 1880; S. 1887, a Virpura Solunkhi Rajput; *Educ.*: Rajkumar Col., Rajkot Kumar:—Maharaj Kumar Shri Ranjitsinhji. Salute 11 guns as personal distinction. *Address*: Lunawada, Rewa Kantha, Bombay.

LYALL, FRANK FREDERICK, C.I.E., I.C.B. (retd.), General Manager, Kasim Bazaar Raj b. 12 June 1872. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1891; m. Miss I. K. Markham (1906); Ministry of Munitions, London, 1915-1918; Committee 1919, retired 1926. *Address*: 17, Alipore Park, Calcutta.

MOCARRISON, LIEUT.-COLONEL ROBERT, I.M.S., M.D., D.Sc., Hon. LL.D., F.R.O.P. (London); Foreign Associate Fellow College of Physicians (Philadelphia); Laureate Academy of Medicine, Paris; Kaiser-i-Hind (1st Class), 1911; C.I.E. (1923); in charge, Deficiency Diseases Inquiry, Indian Research Fund Association, Pasteur Institute, Coonoor b. 15 March 1873; m. Helen, Stella, 3rd d. of the late J. L. Johnston, 108, Judicial Commissioner, Sind. *Educ.* Queen's College, Belfast. Graduated M.B., Bch., B.A.O. (1st Class Hons. and Exhibition) (1900); M.D. (Hons.) 1900; M.R.C.P. (Lond), 1909; D.Sc. (Belfast) 1911; F.R.O.P. (Lond.) 1914; Entered I.M.S., 1901; Milroy Lecturer, College of Physicians, London, 1913; Mellon Lecturer, University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A., 1921; Mary Scott Newbold Lecturer, C. P. Philadelphia, 1921; Hanna Lecturer, Cleveland, Ohio, U.S.A., 1921; Mayo Foundation Lecturer, Rochester, Min. U.S.A. 1921; Arnett Memorial Gold Medalist, Irish Medical Schools and Graduates Association 1921; Prix Amussat Academy of Medicine, Paris (1914); Laureate of the Academy of Medicine, Paris (1914); Stewart Prize for Research, British Medical Association (1918) Foreign Associate Fellow, College of Physicians of Philadelphia (1923); Hon. LL.D., Queen's University, Belfast, 1919; Silver Medalist, Royal Society of Arts, 1925; Brevet Lt.-Colonel (1918) "for distinguished Service in the Field," *Publications*: "Endemic Goitre" London, 1913; "The Thyroid-Gland in Health and Disease," London, 1917; "Studies in Deficiency Disease," London, 1921; Numerous scientific papers on the Physiology and pathology of the thyroid and parathyroid glands; and on disorders of Nutrition in Proc., Roy Soc., Proc. Royal Soc., Med., Indian Journal Medical Research, etc. *Address*: Pasteur Institute, Coonoor, South India

CLASHAN, JOHN, M. Ins., C. E., M.I.E. (Ind.), Chief Engineer, Calcutta Port Commissioners; *b.* 24 Sep. 1874; *m.* Grace Isabel Fraser; *Educ.*: Aberdeen. *Address*: Port Commissioner's Office, Calcutta.

CLACKENNA, Sir JAMES, Kt., C.I.E., I.C.S., Development Commissioner, Burma, *b.* Aug. 1872. *Educ.*: Dumfries Academy; Edinburgh Univ., Balliol Coll., Oxford. *Ent.* I.C.S., 1894; *Dir* of Agriculture, Burma, 1906; President, Indian Cotton Committee, 1917; President, Indian Sugar Committee, 1919; Member, Royal Commission on Agriculture in India, 1926. *Publication*: Agriculture in India. *Address*: Rangoon.

CLACKENZIE, LIEUT.-COLONEL JOHN, C.I.E., Commander de L., Ordre de La Couronne (Belgium) 1926, India Army; Military Secretary to H. E. The Earl of Lytton, Governor of Bengal (1922); *b.* 21 Sep. 1876; *m.* Dorothy Helen *d.* of Col. W. G. Massy, C.M.G., one s. one daughter. *Educ.*: Merchiston, B.M.C. Sandhurst. Comptroller of Household to following Viceroy of India: Earl of Minto, 1907-10; Lord Hardinge, 1910-16; Lord Chelmsford, 1916-1922. *Address*: Govt. House, Calcutta.

CLACKISON, JAMES WALLS, B.Sc. (Edin.), M. Inst. C.E., J.P., C.I.E. (1921); Special Engineer, Development Works to Bombay Municipality since 1920. *b.* 18 Dec. 1869. *Educ.*: Dundee Institution, St. Andrew's University and Edinburgh University; Civil Engineer with Dundee Municipality from 1886 to 1906; Consulting Engineer in private practice, 1906-11; Executive Engineer, Bombay Municipality, 1911-1920. *Address*: "The Grange," Wodehouse Road, Bombay.

CLACKMULLEN, MAJOR-GENERAL CYRIL NORMAN, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., General Officer Commanding Rawalpindi Dist. *b.* 1877. Served N.W. Frontier 1897-98 (medal and clasp); Tibet expedition, 1903-4 (medal); European War 1914-19 (despatches C.M.G., D.S.O., Brevets Lt.-Col., Legion of Honour, Order of Crown of Belgium, Croix de Guerre); Afghan War, 1919; Army Headquarters, India, 1924-27; G. O. C. Rawalpindi District, 1927. *Address*: Rawalpindi.

CLAPHAM, THE REV. EABLE MONTEITH, M.A., B.D., Hon. D.D. (Edn.), 1922; C.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1924); *b.* Jan. 31, 1861; *m.* Mary, elder *d.* of late James Meliss Stuart of Edinburgh; *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy, Edinburgh; *College*, Edinburgh; *Univ.* of Berlin University, 1890; *Prof.* of Free Church of Scotland, 1890; became *Prof.* of Hist. and Economics, Madras Christian College, 1890; Fellow of Madras University, 1899; Mem. of the Syndicate of Madras University, 1906; Representative of Madras University on the Madras Legislative Council, 1909 and 1919; Chairman, Madras Publicity Board, 1918; Principal, Christian College, Madras, 1921; M. A. S. C. Council, 1921-22. *Address*: Madras University, (1923-25); Member, Council of State (1924); of the Inter University Board of

India (1927), Representative of the Madras European C. of the Legislative Assembly; *Address*: Madras Club, Kodalkanal, South India.

CLAPHAM, ARCHIBALD DUNCAN, C.I.F. (1926), Resident, Western Rajputana States. *b.* 14 Jan. 1872. *m.* Viva Duke. *Educ.*: Charterhouse. Joined the Middlesex Regt in November 1891, the 2nd (Sam's Brown's) Cavalry P. F. F. in April 1893 and the Political Department in June 1898. *Address*: C/o Messrs. Grindlay & Co., 54, Parliament Street, London, S. W.1.

CLAGGART, COLONEL CHARLES, C.S.I. 1919, C.I.E.; Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, U.P.; *b.* 1861. *Educ.*: Campbelltown Gram. Sch. Glasgow Univ., Ent. I.M.S., 1886; Insp.-Gen. of Prisons, 1902, Mem., Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08; Mem. of U. P. Leg. Council, 1909. *Address*: Lucknow.

CLARKE-JONES, CHRISTOPHER HOWELL, M.I.E.E., M.I.M.E.E., M.I.P.T., Director and General Manager, The Indian Radio Telegraph Co., Ltd., *b.* 26 Jan. 1876. *m.* Rosalie Desires. *Educ.*: University College School London, Central Technical College, South Kensington. Engineer to Lake Capitals Co., Ltd., Greece, 1900-02; Engineer? British Thomson-Houston Co., Rugby, 1902-09; Manager and Engineer in India for General Electric Co., New York, 1909-14, and B. T. H. Co. Consulting Electrical Engineer, 1918-25. *Publications*: The Electrification of the Burma Oil Fields, Overhead Transmission Series, etc. etc. *Address*: Radio House, 31-33, Apollo Bunder, Bombay.

CLARK, THE REV. JOHN, M.A. (Aberdeen) 1904; Senior Cunningham Fellow, New College, Edinburgh, 1908; Principal, Wilson College, Bombay, *b.* 13 June 1883. *m.* Agnes Ferguson Dinnes. *Educ.*: Aberdeen University, New College, Edinburgh; Tübingen University. Ordained 1908; Appointed Professor in Wilson College, 1908; Appointed Principal, 1921; Fellow of the University of Bombay, President, Bombay Christian Council, 1924-26; President, Bombay Anthropological Society, 1927. *Publications*: Hindu Ethics (Oxford Univ. Press). *Address*: Wilson College House, Bombay.

CLAWATERS, ARTHUR CECIL, C.I.E. (1918), I.C.S., Secretary to the Govt. of India, Industries and Labour Dept., (1926); *b.* 13 Sept. 1880; *m.* Mary, only *d.* of Sir Stephen Finney, C.I.E.; one s. one *d.* *Educ.*: Clifton, Trinity College, Oxford; 1st Class, Classical Moderation, 1st Class, Lit. Hum. Joined I.C.S., 1904 Served in the U.P.; Under-Sec. Government of India, Department of Commerce and Industry, 1910-13. Wheat Commissioner, 1915. Controller of Hides and Wool, 1917; Chairman, Board of Special Referees, Excess Profits Duty Act, 1919; Secretary to Government of India; Secretariat Procedure Committee, 1919; Represented Govt. of India on Commercial Mission to Persia, 1920; Controller of Currency, 1920-23. Secretary to the Govt. of India, Finance Department, 1923-26.

The Delhi or Shimla

FIVER, JOHN ALEXANDER, I.S.O. Supdt., Govt. Photographic Dept., Bombay, C. S.; Land Rec. Dept., since 1906; b. 10 Sep. 1859. *Educ.*: privately, Yorkshire. Joined the B. O. S., 1880. *Address*: Poona.

MADAN, MOHREJBHAI PALANJI, J. P. and Hon. Presidency Magistrate, 14th September, Fuka. *Educ.*: Sir Jamshedji Jeejeebhoy Madressa as well as Mulla Feroz Madressa. Began in 1877 as Reporter and Sub-Editor of the *Bombay Samachar* and by degrees rose to the Editorship of the same about the year 1898. In 1915 joined the newly started *Praja Mitra* and the *Parsee* as its first Editor and in 1925 started a new paper the *Satyajit Mitra*. *Publications*: Many small tracts on Zoroastrianism among them "Fravashi," "Ahunavar" and "Khatwadh" especially noted, published translations of the Avesta from the French of Baron De Harlez and "Aogmadaocha" from the German of Dr. Gieger; also contributed for some years to le Museon, the famous Oriental Journal by the University of Louvain. *Address*: Gilder Lane, Tardeo, Bombay.

MADHAVKAR, THE HON. MR. GOVIND D. NANATH, B.A., I.C.S. Judge, High Court, b. 21 May 1871. m. Miss Bhadrabai Pandit. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's High School, St. Xavier's College, Elphinstone College, and Balliol. Passed the I.C.S. in 1892; served in Burma for 3 years; became Dist. and Sessions Judge in 1905; Additional Judicial Commissioner (Karachi), 1920; Judge, High Court, 1925. *Address*: "Crimin," Land's End Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MADHAVA RAO, V. P., C.I.E. (1899) b. Feb. 1850. *Educ.*: Government College, Kumbakonam (B.A. 1869, Fellow 1899). For 35 years in the service of Mysore State in important positions, including that of Police, the 1st that responsible charge, 1892; Plague Commissioner, 1898. Member, Executive Council and Rev. Commr., 1902-1904; Dewan of Travancore, 1904-1908; Dewan of Mysore, 1908-1909; toured all over India to gain first hand information on the condition of India; resided at Tanjore Dist. Confee., Dewan of Baroda, 1914-16; President, 23rd Madras Provincial Confee. at Coimbatore, 1917; has also presided over a number of conferences (political, social, industrial, etc.); went to England on deputation by the Indian National Congress; tendered evidence before Parliamentary Joint Committee; President, First Karnataka Congress, 1917. In retirement. *Address*: 1900, Adar, Runchoral.

MADRAS, BISHOP OF, since 1923, Rt. Rev. Edward Harry Mansfield-Walker, M.A. (Oxford); b. 8 Dec. 1873. *Educ.*: Highgate Sch. Corpus Christi College, Cam. Ordained 1894; Principal, St. Paul's Divinity Sch., 1906. Principal, Jy Narayan's

High Sch. o 1907. Ag Sec eary CMS U.P., 1908-09. Sec., C.M.S., Indian Group 1913, Canon of Lucknow, 1910-15; Bishop of Tinnevely, 1915-1922. *Publications*: "Revelation" in Bishop's Commentaries for India and The Divinity of Jesus Christ, Translated to Madras, 1 Jan. 1923. *Address*: Sullivan's Gardens, Royapettah, Madras.

MAHADOOB ALI KHAN, MAHOMED ARBAH KHAN, M.L.C. First Class Sardar (1921) Cotton Commission Agent, Hubli, b. 1878. *Educ.*: at Hubli. Started business in cotton in 1898, extended same from time to time created a cotton market at Savanur by establishing Ginning and Pressing factories there, also started ginning factories at Banachennur and Guttal convenient places for marketing cotton in the interior; is an advocate of improved methods and machinery for agriculture and himself a cultivator on a large scale, cultivating about 600 acres of land on improved lines and demonstrating its benefits to the other rayats of his place and neighbourhood, is President, Hubli Anjuman-i-Islam, working for the educational, social and material uplift of Mahomedans; is Vice-President of Hubli Municipality. *Publications*: Kanarese translation of Mr. G. F. Keatinge's "Rural Economy in the Bombay Deccan;" Kanarese translation of "Britain in India;" "Have we Benefited?" *Address*: Opposite Native General Library Hubli, Dist. Dharwar.

MAHALANOBIS, S. C., B.Sc. (Edin.), F.R.S.E., I.B.S.; (retired) Prof. of Physiology, Carmichael Medical College, Calcutta, Presidency Coll., Calcutta, 1900-27. Fellow, Moderator and Syndic, Calcutta University, President Board of Higher Studies in Physiology Calcutta University, b. Calcutta, 1867; m. 1902 fourth d. of Keshub Chunder Sen and sister of H. H. the Mahalanobis of Cooch-Bihar. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Univ. *Publications*: Muscle Fat in Salmon; Life History of Salmon; New form of Myograph; Teachers Manual; Text Book of Science. *Address*: 210, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

MAHDI HUSAIN, KHAN WAHID-UD-DAULA AZOD-UD-DOLAH, NAWAB MIRZA KHAN BAHADUR, C.I.E.; b. 1834. *Educ.*: India Arabia. Travelled extensively in Arabia, Persia, Afghanistan, and India, and was in the service of the British Government in India, Kaymanli.

MAHOMED USMAN, The Hon. Khan Bahadr B.A., Kaiser-i-Hind 2nd Class (1923); Member of the Executive Council, Madras, b. 1881 m. d. of Shifa-ul-Mulk Zynulabidin Sahib Bahadr B.A. Educ.: Madras Christian College, Connell, Corporation of Madras, 1913-1925. Hon. Pres. Magte., 1916-20; Fellow of the Madras Univ., Member, Town Planning Trust, 1921-25, Chairman of Committee on Indigenous Systems of Medicine, 1921-23; Member, Publicity Board, 1918 and 1921-23; President, Muthalpe Muslim Anjuman, Madras; President, Board of Visitors to the Govt. Mahomedan Coll. and Hon. Visitor, Government School of Arts and Crafts, 1923-25; Member, Madras Press Licensing Board, 1922-23. Gave evidence before the Reforms Committee and the Jal

MANDI, HIS HIGHNESS RAJA JOGINDER SEN
BAHADUR OP. b. 19th Aug. 1904. m. to only
d. of H. H. the Maharaja of Kapurthala.
Educ. College Absconded

the *gadi* in 1913, accompanied by Her Highness visited some of the important countries in 1924; was invested with full ruling powers in 1925. *Address*: Mandi State, Punjab.

LANGALORE, R. C. BISHOP OF; see Perini.

IANIPUR, H. H. MAHARAJA CHURA CHAND SINGH, C.B.E.; b. 1886; m. March 17, 1905. *Educ.*: Mayo College, Ajmer. s. 1891. State has area of 8,000 sq. miles, and a population of 384,018. Salute 11 guns. *Address*: Imphal Manipur State, Assam.

IANOHAR LAL, M.A. (Punjab); B.A. s. (Double First Class Honours), Cambridge, Philosophy and Economics, Bar-at-Law, Minister of Education, Punjab Government. b. 31 Dec. 1879. *Educ.*: Punjab University, and St. John's College, Cambridge. McMahon Law student, St. John's Cambridge, Brotherton Sanskrit scholar, Cambridge, Cobden Prize, Cambridge, Whewell scholar in international Law 1904, 1905; Principal, Randhir College, Kapurthala 1906-1909; Minto Professor of Economics, Calcutta University, 1909-1912; practised as Barrister, High Court, Lahore, 1913-1926. *Publications*: articles on economic subjects. *Address*: Fane Road, Lahore.

MANSINGH, SARDAR, B.A., LL.B. Advocate High Court, Vice-President, The Chief Khalsa Diwan. (1923-1925); b. 1887. *Educ.*: Khalsa College, Amritsar, won Gold Medal for writing Punjabi poetry. Practised as *Vakil* for a period of about ten years; edited *Khalsa Young Men's Magazine* from 1905 to 1909. Member, Legislative Assembly (1921-23). Secretary, Reception Committee XVII Sikh Educational Confe., Lahore, held in 1926; Hon. Secretary, Khalsa High School. *Publications*: Translated Kalidas's *Vikramorvasi* from Sanskrit into Punjabi poetry and prose, has written religious tracts. *Address*: Lahore.

MANSINGHI, see JHALA.

MAJORIBANKS, SIR NORMAN EDWARD K.C.I.E. (1923), C. S. I. (1922); C. I. E. (1918); Member of the Executive Council Madras (1925). b. 16 Oct. 1872; m. Bathura. d. of the late Edward Watson, H. M.'s Inland Revenue Service. *Educ.*: at Royal Academical Institution, Belfast; Queen's Coll., Belfast; and Trinity Hall Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1893; Asst. Collr. and Magte. until 1896; Under-Secretary to Govt., 1897-1908; Dy. T. L. Land Records, 1904-19; 1911-1918; Member, and Chief Secretary to Publications: Report on Emigration (in collaboration with Sir Ahmed Thambay Maricar). *Address*: Adyar House, Adyar, Madras.

MARSHALL, SIR JOHN HUBERT, Kt., cr. 1915, C.I.E., 1910; Litt. D., M.A., Ph.D., F.S.A. Hon. A.R.L.B.A., Commander of the Order of Leopold Vice-President of the India Society; Director-General of Archaeology in India since 1902; b. Chester, 19 March 1876; m. 1902 Florence, y. d. of Sir Henry Longhurst, C.V.O. *Educ.*: Dulwich; King's College, Cambridge (Scholar and Hon. fellow) Craven Travelling student. *Address*: Simla.

MARTEN, HON. SIR AMERSON BARRINGTON, Kt., (1924), LL.D., M.A., Chief Justice, Bombay High Court, 1926. b. 8 Dec 1870; e. s. of late Sir Alfred Marten, K.C., M.P. m. 1898 Lois d. of late W. Tam of Lancaster Gate W. *Educ.*: Eton; Trinity College, Cambridge (1st Class Law Tripos) Studentship Council of Legal Education, 1895 called to Bar, Inner Temple, 1895; Mem. of Bar Council, 1909-10; practised in Chancery Division till 1916, Punes Judge, Bombay High Court, 1916-1926. *Address*: High Court Bombay.

MARTIN, JAMES REA, B.A., C.I.E. (1927) I.C.S., Bar-at-Law, Chief Secretary to Government of Bombay, Political Department b. 2nd Aug. 1877, m. France. Lily Elise Webb *Educ.*: Methodist College and Queen's College, Belfast, Assistant Collector Manager, Sind District, Deputy Commissioner of Karachi and of Development Bombay, Development Department and Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division. *Address*: 6, Rocky Hill Flats, Malabar Hill, Bombay, and 5A, Queen's Garden, Poona.

MARZBAN, JEHANGIR B., C.I.E., (1921) Propr. of *The Jam-e-Jamshed*, b. 21 Sept. 1848. *Educ.*: Elphinstone Coll. Was Assist. Manager, *The Times of India*, for 7 years under Col Nassau Lees; Manager, *The Bombay Gazette* for 9 years. Propr., *The Advocate of India* for 5 years, Editor and Propr., *The Jam-e-Jamshed*, for 30 years. Founder and Managing Trustee of the Khanjira Sanitarium, Founder of Parsi Widows' Relief Fund. *Publications*: 30 vols. of travel, fiction, etc. *Address*: Shalemar, Hughes Rd., Bombay.

MARZBAN, PARROVESH JEHANGIR, M.A., J.P., M.L.C., Editor, *Jam-e-Jamshed*, b. 3 May 1876, m. Kattanbai, d. of the late Mr. Daulji N. Sethna. *Educ.*: Bharda New High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. A Journalist for over 27 years, an author, novelist, a dramatist. Member of the Corporation for 12 years; Member, Municipal Standing Committee; Hon. Presidency Magt. and editor of a daily vernacular for the last 25 years. *Publications*: Fifteen volumes of fiction and comic writings, 6 dramas and Miscellaneous writings. *Address*: "Shalemar," Hughes Road, Bombay.

MASANI, RUSTOM PESTONJI, M.A., J.P., Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal; Manager, Central Bank of India, Ltd., Bombay & 24 Sept. 1878; m. 9 Decr. 1902. Manijeh P. Wadia, *Educ.*: New H. S. and Elphinstone Coll.; Fellow, Elphinstone College, 1897 and 1898; Jt. Propr. and Editor of *Gup Sap* (1898); Editor of English columns of *Kisari* (1891-1900); Editor, *Indian Spectator* (1901-02); Jt. Hon. Secry., Society for the Protection of the K. R. Kama e Parsi Girls' Schools Secretary, Bombay Food Prices Committee (1914-17) Municipal Secretary, 1907-1919. Dy. Municipal Commissioner (1919-27). *Publications*: English: Child Protection, Folklore of Wells, The Law and at the Municipal Cor

oration, Bombay; The Conference of the Iris, a Sufi Allegory. Gujarati: *Dolabho Upanay* (use of Wadhy), *Charmi, tathu i hadni ketani* (Home and School education), *Lamankh nathu* (Health series), and novels named *Abussatuno Hobshi*; *Bohilu*, *Chandro* (*Tul. Address* Versova (via Ambheri Station).

MASOOD, SYED ROSS, NAWAB MASOOD JUNG BAHADUR, Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad (Deccan). *b.* 1889. *Educ.*: M.A.O. College, Aligarh, and New College, Oxford. Bar-at-law; Imperial Education Service, Headmaster, Patna School, 1913. Senior Prof. of History, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, 1916; Formerly Fellow of the University of Calcutta; Fellow of the Madras University; Member. Council of the Osmania University; Member, Court of the Muslim University, Aligarh. *Publications*: "Japan and its Educational System." *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.

FATHER, RICHARD, B Met., M.I.E. (India), Metallurgical Inspector, Government of India. *b.* 19 Sept 1886. *Educ.*: Royal Grammar School, Sheffield, Univ. of Sheffield. Mappin Medalist 1906; Metallurgist, Ormesby Iron Works, Middlesbrough, 1907-1911, Dy. Dir. Metallurgical Research, War Office, Woolwich, 1911-1919; Member of Govt. Commission to investigate German and Luxemburg steel industry, 1919; Technical Adviser, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24. Member of Iron and Steel Institute, Inst. of Metals, Faraday Society, Technical Inspection Institute. *Publications*: Paper, for technical societies. *Address*: Tutannagar, B N. Ry.

MAULA BAKISH, NAWAB MAULA BAKISH KHAN BAHADUR, C.I.E. or Bahala, Punjab, India Foreign and Political Department, Government of India. *b.* 7 May 1862; *m.* 2nd daughter of Haji Mirza Abbas Khan, C.M.G., C.I.E., British Agent, Khurasan, Persia; four s, five d. Joined Punjab Postal Dept., 1880. Manager Head Letter Office and Postal Stock Depot, Karachi, 1881; joined Imperial Circle, Public Works Dept., Simla, 1882. Services placed at disposal of Foreign and Political Dept., 1887, on special duty North-Eastern Persia, 1887-1888, Attache, Sahltan Perso-Afghan Boundary Commission, 1888-89 Attache Agent to Governor-General and H. B. M's Consul-General, Mashad 1894, British Vice-Consul Khurasan and Seistan, 1896-90; on special Political duty in Kaim Seistan and Baluchistan, 1898; on special duty in Intelligence Branch, Quarter-Master-General's Dept., Simla, for revising Gazetteer of Persia, 1898-99; Asst. Dist. Supdt. of Police in charge, Nushki District, Baluchistan, 1900; Extra Asstt. Commissioner and Magistrate, Punjab, 1900-1; Personal Assistant to Chief Commissioner, Baluchistan 1901-2, Seistan Boundary Commission, 1902-3, Oriental Secretary, Kabul Political Mission, 1904-15; Attache, Foreign and Political Dept. Government of India, 1905-19, Chief Indian Political officer with H. M. Amir Habibullah Khan of Afghanistan during H. M.'s Indian tour, 1907-7. Political Officer, North West Afghan Frontier Field Force, 1909 Secretary Indo-

Afghan Peace Conference, Rawalpindi 1919, Home Minister, Jammu and Kashmir State, 1919-22, Member, Jammu and Kashmir State Council 1922, 23; Chief Minister Bahawalpur State 1925-28; *Address* — Woodlands, Shula, E; Tram, Srinagar Kashmir.

MAUNG KUN, B.A., Bar-at-Law and Member Legis. Assembly. *b.* 27 Aug. 1891. *m.* Ma Aye *Educ.*: Govt. High School, Bassein, Burma The Rangoon College, Rangoon, and City's Inn, London, Assistant Registrar, Chief Court of Lower Burma at Rangoon from 1918-1920 when resigned and started practice at the Bar. *Address*: Danubyn, Burma.

MAUNG TOK KYI, B.A., Member, Legislative Assembly and Director, The Sun Press Ltd., Rangoon. *b.* 1884. *Educ.*: Rangoon College. Member of the Subordinate Civil Service, Burma, from 1908 to 1920; resigned Govt. service and joined editorial staff of *The Sun* in 1920; became Managing Director 1921; elected to the Municipal Corporation, Rangoon, 1922; elected Member, Leg. Assembly, 1923 and elected to Rangoon University Council, 1924. Founded Burma Swaraj Party and elected its leader, 1925 Re-elected Member, Legislative Assembly, 1926 *Address*: 41, 51st Street, Rangoon.

MAW, WILLIAM NAWTON, C.I.E., I.C.S. Commissioner, Nerbudda Division, C.P., since April 1923. *b.* 1 Aug. 1860; *m.* 1898 Una Agnes Brook-Meares, d. of Col G Brook-Meares; Com., Royal Irish Fusiliers *Educ.*: Wesley Coll., Sheffield; St. John's Coll., Cambridge (B.A.). Ent. I.C.S., 1893. In C. P. Secretariat, 1900-12; Dy. Commissioner, Jubbulpore, 1913-16. Served as Commissioner in the Jubbulpore, Nagpur and Nerbudda Divisions of C.P. and in Berar, 1916-23. *Address*: Hoshangabad, C.P.

MAWNG, SIR SIO, K.C.I.E., K.S.M.L. SAWBWA OF YAWNGHWE, Member of Federal Council of Shan Chiefs. *Address*: Yawnghwe, Shan States, Burma.

MAYNE, JONATHAN WEBSTER CORYTON, C.I.L. (1922), M.A. (Oxford), Guardian to H. H. the Maharaja of Jaipur. *b.* 26 April 1868. *m.* Margery Howel Scrutton. *Educ.*: The Wells House, Malvern Wells, Tonbridge School, Keble College, Oxford. Studied at Leipzig Univ., 1890-1891; Assistant Master, Brighton Coll., 1891-1898. Nominated to I.E.S., 1898, from then till 1903 held posts of Headmaster, Karachi and Poona Government High Schools Educational Inspector (Acting), Central and Northern Divisions, Bombay Presidency, from February 1903 to January 1923. Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot. *Publications*: Newspaper articles in the *Times of India* under nom-de-plume "Oxon," occasional poems and some songs (in English) Histories of some Indian States. *Address*: Ranabagh Jajpur, Rajputana.

MEARES, SIR GRIMWOOD, Kt (1917), K.C.J.L. (1928) and Kt. of Order of Crown Belgum Chief Justice, Allahabad, 1919. *Educ.*: Exeter College, Oxford. Barrister, 1895; Hon. Sec. to Bryce Committee on German Outrages 1914-15; Hon. Sec. to R. Com. on rebellion in Ireland 1900 Sec. to the

Commission, 1916-17; British Embassy, Washington, 1918-19; President, Bombay Black Bay Enquiry Committee, 1926. Address: Allahabad, 2 Hara Court, Temple, E.C.

IEGAW, LIEUT.-COLONEL JOHN WALLACE DICK, B.A., M.B., B.Sch. B.A.O. (R.U.I.), V.H.S. (1925), G.I.B. (1926). Director and Professor of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine. m. Helen Esme Ward. *Adm.*: Royal Academical Institution, Belfast; and Queen's College, Belfast. Officiating Prof. of Pathology, Calcutta Medical College; Principal and Prof. of Pathology, King George's Medical College, Lucknow; and Editor, *Indian Medical Gazette*. Publications: Numerous articles on Malaria, Indian Tick Typhus, Epidemic Dropsy, Dengue, Cool Rooms, etc. Address: School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta.

MEHTA, KHAN BARADUR SIR BEZONJI DADABHOY, Kt. Address: Nagpur.

MEHTA, THE HON. SIR CHUNILAL VISHU-
KARNAS, Kt., K.C.S.I. (1928), M.A., LL.B., Member, Executive Council of the Bombay Government, since June 1923. b. 12 Jan. 1881. m. to Tarabai. Educ.: St. Xavier's.

Member, Hindu XI; Municipal Corporation in 1907; Chairman, Standing Committee, 1912; President of the Corporation, 1916; Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council by the Corporation in 1916, elected to the City Improvement Trust, 1918; Chairman of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1918. Elected to the Bombay Port Trust, 1920; Willowner and Director, Tata Iron and Steel Co.; Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Co., and several other joint stock companies, Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23. Address: 108, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MEHTA, DHANJIBHAI FORMASJI, L.M. & S. Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1920); Donator of St. John Silver Medal (1917); Raj Ratna Silver Medal, Baroda (1916); Retired Sanitary Commissioner, Baroda. b. 4 Feb. 1864, m. to a cousin. Educ.: Sir Cowsaji Jehangir Naozari Zarthosti Madressa and the Grant Medical College, Bombay. Joined Baroda Med. Service, 1887; did inoculation work with Prof. Haffkine; gave evidence on the value of inoculation before 1st Plague Commission. Has popularised St. John's Ambulance work and Red Cross Work all over Gujrat, Sind, Kathiawad, Central India and Central Provinces, enrolled over 1,200 members, and published 87 books on Ambulance, Nursing Hygiene, Midwifery, Red Cross, etc. Address: Sayaji Wanj, Baroda.

MEHTA, FATEH LAL, Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja of Udaipur. s. of late Rai Pan-namal, C.I.E., Prime Minister of Udaipur. b. 1808. Address: Udaipur, Rajputana.

MEHTA, JAMESH N. R., Merchant. b. 7th January 1880. Educ. at Karachi. Member of Municipality, 1914; President of Municipality, 1922; Asst. Provincial Commissioner of Scouts in Sind; and Chairman, Buyers and Shoppers' Chamber. Publication: Karachi Municipality as at and its future. Bonus Road, Karachi.

MEHTA, JAYNORLAL KRISHNALAL, B.A., Secretary, Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay. b. 1881. m. to Mrs. Kuntikasauri. Educ. Wadhwan High School and Gujarat and Elphinstone Colleges. Appointed Secretary Indian Merchants Chamber 1907, services borrowed by the Indian Munitions Board from Chamber and appointed Assistant Controller from September 1917 to November 1918, was nominated Adviser to the Representative of Employers for the third session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, in 1921 after the Conference he toured about Europe and England for seeing the Chambers of Commerce and other commercial organisations there on behalf of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, has been working as Hon. Secretary of the Federation of the Indian Chambers of Commerce; Vice-President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee since 1921 and President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee since 1923. Address: "Krishna Kutir", Santa Cruz, B. B. & C. I. and "The Recluse," 31, Murzban Road, Fort, Bombay.

MEHTA, DR. JIVRAJ NARAYAN, L.M. & S. (Bom.), M.D., M.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.O.P.S. (Bom.), Dean, Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical Coll. and King Edward Memorial Hospital, b. 29 Aug. 1887. m. Miss Hansa Manubhai Mehta. Educ.: High School education at Amreli, Baroda State, Grant Medical Coll., Bombay, and London Hospital. Formerly Asst. Director, Hale Clinical Laboratory, London Hospital, and Chief Medical Officer, Baroda State. Address: Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical Coll., Parel, Bombay.

MEHTA, SIR LALUBHAI SAMALDAS, F.R.C.S. (1906), J.P., C.I.E. (1914). b. October 1868. m. Satyawati, d. of Bhimrao Bolanath Divatia of Ahmedabad. Educ.: Bhavnagar High School and Elphinstone College. Under-Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja of Bhavnagar, and Revenue Commissioner, Bhavnagar. Resigned services in 1899 and entered business at Bombay as Guaranteed Broker to Gysli Klynaujung. Helped in starting the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Bank of Baroda, Indian Cement Company, and the Nira Valley Sugar Company. Director in commercial firms and banks. Nominated to the Bombay Legislative Council in 1910, 1913, and 1918. Elected to the Council of State in 1920. President of the Industrial Conference at Karachi in 1913. Member of the Madras Committee on Co-operation, 1914-15. President, Mysore Co-operative Conference, 1915. Chairman, Mysore Co-operative Committee, 1921-23. Member of the Senate of the Bombay University. Hon. Treasurer, Adams Wylie Hospital, 1918-22, and of Serva Sadan. President, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1917-18; Member of the Indian Mercantile Marine Committee, 1923-24. Ag. Member, Bombay Executive Council, 1923. Address: 65, Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay.

MEHTA, SIR MANUBHAI NANDSHANAR, Kt., (1922), C.I.E. (1919), M.A., LL.B., Prime Minister and Chief Minister, Bikaner State. b. July 1868. Educ. at Elphinstone Coll. y Prof. of Logic and Philosophy

T H I L D V D G O R G E P S C a n
 C ... and Jun. 93 Ind n C S
 b 31 March 1879. m. to Elizabeth Duncan
 Wharton. *Educ.*: George Heriots School,
 Edinburgh, Edinburgh University, Lincoln
 College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S., Oct. 1903.
 Divisional and Sessions Judge in Central
 Provinces, 1913, Legal Secretary and Legal
 Remembrancer to Government of C.P. and
 Secretary to C.P. Legislative Council, 1919.
 Appointed as Additional Judicial Commissioner
 in 1920. Appointed as Joint Secretary, Govt.
 of India, Legislative Department, April 1927.
Address: United Service Club, Simla.

MITRA, THE HON. SRI BHUPENDRA NATH M.A.:
 K.C.S.I. (1923); K.C.I.E. (1921) C.I.E. (1919)
 Member of the Viceroy's Council (Industries
 and Labour). Dec 1924. b Oct 1875. *Educ.*:
 Metropolitan Institution, Fane School and Pre-
 sidency College, Calcutta. Held Ministerial
 appointments from 2nd April 1896; appointed to enrolled
 list, Finance Dept., Jan. 1919; Asst. Secy.,
 Sept. 1910; on special duty in connection
 with Royal Commission on Indian Finance
 and Currency, June to September 1913;
 on deputation as Controller of War Accounts
 from May 1915; C.B.R., Dec. 1917; Mil.
 Asst.-General, Nov. 1919; off. Financial
 Adviser, Mil. Fin. Branch, May 1920; con-
 firmed May 1922; temp. Member of Governor-
 General's Council, April 1924; Confid. Dec.
 1924; Temporary Finance Member, March to
 June 1925. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

MITTER, SRI BINOD CHANDER, Kt. (1918),
 Barrister and Advocate, Calcutta. Member,
 Council of State (1921). b. 1872. m. Miss
 Charushilla Das. *Educ.*: Presidency College
 and Alipon College; became examiner for
 many years for Doctorate of Laws in Calcutta
 University; twice elected for a year and
 a half as Advocate-General, Bengal, Vice-
 President, National Liberal League; Member
 of the Bengal Legislative Council, 1910-16;
 Standing Counsel to the Government of India,
 1910-17, Member of Moderates Deputation
 to England, 1919. Chairman of Reception
 Committee of Moderates' Conference in
 Calcutta in 1919; was invited by the Punjab
 Government to serve on the Gurdwara Com-
 mittee but declined. *Address*: 2-1, London
 Street, Calcutta.

MITTER, THE HON. BROJENDRA LAL M.A.,
 B.L., Barrister-at-Law. Advocate-General
 of Bengal. b. May 1875. m. a daughter of Mr.
 P.N. Bose, late of the Geological Survey and
 a. d. of the late R. C. Dutt, I.C.S. *Educ.*:
 Presidency Coll., Calcutta and Lincoln's
 Inn. *Address*: 5, Outram Street, Calcutta
 and 78, Middle Road, Barrackpore.

MITTER, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE DWARKANATH,
 M.A., D.L.; Member, Council of State (1924);
 Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. b. 29 Feb.
 1876. m. d. of Bala Charan Dutt of Cal-
 cutta. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Cal-
 cutta. Joined High Court Bar in 1897.
 Took his degree of Doctor of Laws in
 1901 and since then had risen rapidly to the
 top rank of his profession. He had
 a successful practice till the time of his elevation
 to be Bench in 1906. In 1916 elected an

T P
 A Thesis on Position of Women in Hindu Law
 published by Calcutta University. *Address*
 12, Theatre Road, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

MITTER, KRISHENDRANATH, B.A. (Hons)
 M.A. (Gold Medalist), Senior Professor of
 Philosophy, Presidency College, Calcutta.
 b. 1880. m. Socharan. *Educ.*: Presidency
 College, Calcutta. Nominated Member
 Legislative Assembly, 1922 and 1923; Member
 Council of State, 1924 and 1925, Fellow (elect.)
 Calcutta University 1922 to 1926, late editor
 of *Samvatsahitya* Pabitra. *Publica-*
tions: Author of several works on Bengal
 on History and Fiction. *Address*: 35, Bea-
 con Row, Calcutta.

MITTER, SRI PROYASH CHANDRA, Kt. or 1924
 C.I.E. Vakil at High Court, Calcutta. *Address*
 High Court, Calcutta.

MIYAN, ASJAD-ULLAH, MAULVI, M.L.A.
 Hon. Magte., Kishanganj, Zamindar of Mehe-
 gaon. b. 5 Jan. 1883. m. Bibi S. Nisa d
 of late Maulvi Insaif Ali of Henria. *Educ.*
 at Mehegaon. Member, Dist. Board, Pur-
 neah (Bihar), and Member, Local Board, Ki-
 shanganj. Vice-President, Anjuman-e-Islamia
 Kishanganj. *Address*: Mehegaon, P. O. T.
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 Member, Bengal Executive Council, b. 30
 Sept. 1875. m. Emily d. of the late James
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 Church, Oxford. Indian Civil Serv-
 (1896). *Address*: 4/0, Lloyd's Lodge, Lutetia
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 (1843), C.I.E. (1917); S.C., Parsi Panchayat
 Bombay. b. 26 October 1854. *Educ.*
 Elphinstone High School, Elphinstone College
 m. Shirinbai, d. of the late H. N. Saklatvala
 Has published numerous historical and
 antiquarian works chiefly dealing with Parsi
 history and religion. Is Ph. Doc. (Hon)
 Heidelberg, and Officier de l'Instruction
 publique. Fellow, Bombay Univ., 1883
 Received the Campbell Gold Medal, Bombay
 Branch R. Asiatic Society, (1917). Fellow
 B. B. R. Asiatic Society, 1924. Hon. Memb-
 r Bhambardkar Oriental Research Institute
 (1923); Chevalier de la Legion d'honneur (1925)
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MODY, HORMUSJI PEROSHAW, M.A. (1904)
 LL.B. (1906); Advocate, High Court, Bom-
 bay. b. 23 Sept. 1881. m. Terbai, d. of Karsip
 Dadabhai Dabsh. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's
 Coll., Bombay. Mem. of Bombay Mun-
 Corp. Chairman of its Standing Committee
 1921-22; and President, 1923-24; Deputy
 Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Assoc. to
 1926-27; Partner, G. N. Wadia & Co. Publi-
 shers. The "Office" of the "Public" of the
 13th Floor, Bazaar, 11 to 12. *Address*
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MOHAMMAD AHMAD SAID KHAN NAWAB C. D., 2nd, *Industries and Agriculture to the Governor of the United Provinces, b. 1898. m. to daughter of Nawab Bahadur M. Abdus Samad Khan. Educ.: M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Publications: Council Speeches; Presidential address, All India Muslim Rajput Conference. Address: Oakover, Naini Tal, and Chhatari (Buland Shahar).*

MOHAMMED RAFIQUE, SIR, B.A. (Cambridge), Bar-at-Law (Middle Temple); Member, Council of Secretary of State for India since 1935 *b. 29 May 1863. m. Azmat Zunnabi Begum of the family of the Nawab of Patodi (Punjab). Educ.: M.A.O. College, Aligarh, St. John's College, Cambridge. Practised at the Bar 1886 to 1892; entered Judicial Service as S.C. Court Judge, Lucknow; Addl. Judge 1894, soon after Dist. Judge and in 1911 Judicial Commissioner, Lucknow, and in July 1912 appointed High Court Judge, *id.* 1923, Allahabad. Represented India at the League of Nations in 1921. Address: Chandwalli-Banjarari, Lucknow.*

MOHAMMAD AFMAL KHAN, HAKIM MASIE-UL MULK, Physician and Founder of the Ayurvedic and Unani Tibbi College, Delhi, *b. 1865. Educated at home. Address: Sharif Manzil, Delhi.*

MOHAMMAD EJAZ RASUL KHAN, RAJA, C.S.I. (1924), M.L.A., Talukdar of Jehangirabad *b. 28 June 1884. Educ.: Colvin Talukdars School, Lucknow. First non-official Chairman of the District Board, Bara Banki. Besides numerous other charitable contributions, the following are the chief.—Rs. 1,25,000 to the Prince of Wales' Memorial, Lucknow, Rs. 50,000 to Sir Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore, and Rs. 1,00,000 to the Lucknow University. Member of the Red Cross Society. Contributed Rs. 10,000 to Lady Reading Child Welfare Fund and Rs. 5,000 to Aligarh University for Maris Scholarship. Member of the Provincial Legislative Council, the British Indian Association and the United Service Club. Honorary Magistrate and Honorary Munsif, Chairman, Board. Address: Dist. Bara Banki, Jehangirabad Palace, Lucknow.*

MOHAMMED YAMIN KHAN, THE HON. MR. B.A., of the Allahabad University (1911), Bar-at-Law; Member, Council of State (1924), Senior Vice-Chairman, Municipal Board, Meerut. *b. June 1888 m. to a cousin. Educ. at Meerut College, M.A.O. College, Aligarh and England. Practising as Barrister in Meerut, since Dec. 1914. Acted as Secretary of U. P. War Fund for Meerut District. Secretary, Y.M.C.A. Funds, Secretary, Dist. War League. Was elected a member of the Municipal Board, Meerut, in 1916 and Vice-Chairman a year later. Elected Member, Legislative Assembly, 1920; Member of the Provincial Assembly, 1920-1923. Nominated a member of Leg. Assembly to represent U. P. in 1927. Address: Gumbat Nishan, Meerut.*

FOIR, THOMAS EYEBRON, B.A., C.F.E. (1917), (S.L. (1923), Member of the Executive Council, Madras *b. 1874 Educ. at*

Co. Pd nb W dham C O fo d
Ent. I.C.S., 1898. Address: Fort St. George, Madras.

MOLONEY, WILLIAM JOSEPH, General Manager for the East, Reuters Limited. *b. May 18, 1885. m. Katharine, eldest daughter of Sir Francis Elliot, C.M.G., C.C.V.O., Educ. Redemptorist College, Limerick. Reuters Correspondent in Tehran, Paris. Amsterdam Copenhagen and Berlin. Address: Reuters Limited, Bombay.*

MOOKERJEE, SIR NARAYAN, Zamindar of Uttarpara; *b. April 1859. Member, Bengal Legislative Council, since 1918; m. 1878; one s. Educ.: Uttarpara School; Presidency College Calcutta; Chairman of the Uttarpara Municipality since 1887, Chairman of the Bench of Hon. Magistrates, 1889; Managing Committee of the British Indian Association, 1889, a Member of the Asiatic Society; a life Member of St. John Ambulance Association; Member of the Provincial Advisory Committee for Indian Students, 1918; a Member of the National Liberal League, and Vice-President of Bengal Humanitarian Association; elected to Executive Committee of All India Landholders' Association, 1919. Address: Uttarpara, near Calcutta.*

MOOKERJEE, SIR RAJENDRA NATH K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O. (1922), M.I.M.E. (Hon. Life), Civil Engr.; *b. 1854; Educ.: London Missionary Institution at Bhowanipur. Presidency College, Civil Engineering Branch, Calcutta; Senior Partner in Martin & Co., and Dunn & Co., Calcutta; Member of Indian Industrial Commission, 1917-1918; Member of Indian Railway Committee, 1920-1921. President, Howrah Bridge Committee, 1921. President, Bengal Retrenchment Committee, 1922; Member, All-India Retrenchment Committee, 1922; President of Board of Trustees, Indian Museum, Calcutta; a Fellow of Calcutta Univ., Member of Court of Visitors, Ind. Inst. Science; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1921, Member of the Board of the Governing Body of Bengal Engineering College. Ex-President, the Institution of Engineers (India), Member Governing Body of the School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene; President, Indian Science Congress, 1922; President, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1924. Address: 7, Harrington Street, Calcutta.*

MOORE, PIERCE LANGRISH, C.I.E., Ag. Financial Secretary to the Government of Madras. *b. 29th June 1873. m. Muriel, d. of the late Lumsden Strenge. Educ.: Cheltenham Christ Church, Oxford. Ent. I.C.S. 1896, President, Madras Corporation, 1910-14. Inspector-General of Police, Madras, 1914-19. Address: Madras Club, Madras.*

MOORE, W. ARTHUR, Director of The Statesman, M.L.A. (Bengal European Constituency) Classical Scholar of St. John's College, Oxford, 1900-1904; President, Oxford Union Society, 1901; *b. 1889. m. Maud Eileen, only surviving child of George Mailet. Educ. at Campbell Coll., Belfast and St. John's College, Oxford. Secretary, E during which time*

dent of *The Times* for Young Turk Revolution, 1908, and in Albania; special correspondent 1909. *Daily Chronicle*, *Daily News* and *Manchester Guardian* at Siege of Tabriz, Persia. Joined *Journal* and war staff of *The Times*, 1910. Persian Correspondent, 1910-12. Russian Correspondent, 1913. Spain, 1914. Albanian Revolution, 1914. Retreat from Mons and Battle of Marne, 1914; obtained commission in Rifle Brigade; served Dardanelles, 1915; Salonika, 1915-17 (General Staff Officer, 8th Grade); flying, 1918. with military mission (General Sir G. T. Bridges) in Constantinople and the Balkans; Squadron Leader, R. A. F.; demobilised May 1919; despatches twice; M.B.E. (military); Serbian White Eagle; Greek Order of the Redeemer, Middle-Eastern Correspondent of *The Times*, 1919-22, visiting Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, Persia, Caucasus, India, Afghanistan, etc. *Publications*: *The Miracle* (By "Antrim Oriol", Constable, 1908); *The Orient Express* (Constable 1914). *Address*: "The Statesman," Calcutta.

WOOD, DR. F. N., M.D., B.S. (Lond.); D.P.R. (Eng.); D.T.M. & Hy. (Eng.); M.B., B.S. (Bombay); F.R.I.P.H. (London), Surgeon in Charge, Goculdas Tejpal Hospital, b. 22 Aug. 1893. *Educ.*: at Cathedral and New High Schools, Elphinstone and Grant Medical College, Bombay. Univ. Coll. and Hospital, London. Clinical Fellow in Medicine, Grant Coll., Bombay; Medical Registrar, J. J. Hospital, Bombay. House Surgeon, Metropolitan Hospital, London, Tuberculosis Medical Officer, Boies and Stoke Newington, Hackney and Poplar, London; Medical Referee, London. War Pensions Committee; Lecturer on Tuberculosis, University of Bombay; Hon. Physician, G. T. Hospital, Bombay. Fellow of the Royal Society of Public Health; Fellow University of Bombay. *Publications*: *Present Position of Tuberculosis. Prevention of Tuberculosis and Pandemic of Influenza*, 1918, etc., etc. *Address*: Alico Buildings, Northby Road, Fort, Bombay.

WOODS, NANABHOY A. F., D.Sc. (Edin.), L.C.E. (Bom.), F.R.S. (Edin.), Retired Director, Bombay and Alibair Observatories, b. 29 Oct. 1859. m. Bai Jeelobai, d. of Bhyramjee Jeelashbhai, Esq. *Educ.*: Bombay University and Edinburgh University; Prof. of Physics, Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; for some time Inspector of Factories, Bombay Presidency from 1896 to 1920 Director of Bombay and Alibair Observatories; Syndic and Dean in Science, Bombay Univ. and the Northern University, Delhi, on the Institute of Science, Bangalore, of the Bombay University on the Advisory Committee of the Coll. of Engineering, Poona; Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay, Board of Trustees of the Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay and Board of Trustees, Victoria Technical Institute. *Publications*: Papers in Royal Society, Edinburgh, and Publications in the series, Bombay Observatory's Publications 1890-1920, Bombay Magazine Data and Diagrams in 840-115. *Address*: Gownall Tank Road Bombay

MORENO, H. W. B., Dr., Ph.D., M.R.A.S. (London) b. 1875. *Educ.*: at Calcutta University and Merchiston, Edinburgh. Editor, *Century Review*, a weekly British India Recorder, Lecturer, Calcutta University; Hon. Magistrate, Sealdah, Calcutta. *Publications*: "History of the Bengali Newspapers," "Sohrab and Rustum," "Story of the Kings", etc. *Address*: 2, Wellesley Square, Calcutta.

MORSHEAD, LEONARD FREDERICK, C.S.I. (1924), I.C.S., Board of Revenue, Bihar and Orissa. b. 5 Sep. 1866. m. Sybil May, d. of Archibald Hills, Esq. *Educ.*: Winchester and Balliol. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1889. Collector of Customs, Calcutta, 1902. Inspector-General of Police, Bengal as Behar and Orissa, 1908-12; Commissioner Board of Revenue, 1919 to 1923.

MOTI CHAND, THE HON. RAJA, C.I.E. (1912) Banker, Landlord and Millowner. b. 2 Aug. 1876. *Educ.*: privately. First Non-Official Chairman, Benares Municipal Board, Chairman, Benares Bank, Ltd.; Chairman of Benares Cotton and Silk Mills, Ltd.; Chairman Benares Industries, Ltd., Member, U.P. Legislative Council from 1913-1920; Member Council of State since 1920; Hon. Treasurer and Member of the Court and the Council of the Benares Hindu University; Chairman of numerous local bodies, educational, industrial and social. Director of the British India Corporation, Ltd., Calcutta, and Member, U. P. Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta. *Address*: Azmatgarh Palace, Benares.

MOZUMDAR, RAI JADUNATH BANADUR, VRINDA YAGNANATH, M.A., B.L., Kaiser-i-Hind (1915). C.I.E. (1921). M.L.C., Advocate and Landholder. b. Oct. 1859. m. Srimati Saratkumari, d. of late Babu Aphyka Charan Sarkar. *Educ.*: Canning Coll., Lucknow and Free Church Coll., Calcutta. Professor, Sanskrit College, Calcutta. Editor, *Triune Lahore*; Secy., Finance Dept., Kashmir, Principal, Katmandu Coll., Nepal; Advocate, Calcutta High Court. *Publications*: *Amrita Prasara* in 2 parts in Bengali; *Commentary on Vedanta Philosophy* in Bengali; *Religion of Love* in English, essays and addresses in English; *Appeal to young Hindus* in English; and numerous other works; Editor, *Hindu Patrika*. *Address*: Jessore, Bengal.

MUDDIMAN, SIR ALEXANDER PHILLIPS, K.C.S.I. (1926). K.T. (1922); C. S. I. (1920), C.I.E., Governor of the United Provinces (1923), b. 14 Feb. 1875. *Educ.*: Wimbome Sch. Eng. I.O.S., 1897; served in Bihar and Bengal in various capacities. Dy. Sec., Govt. of India; Leg. Dept., 1910-15, Sec. to Govt. of India; Leg. Dept., 1915-20. President, Council of State, 1920-1924. Home Member, Governor-General's Council 1924-27. *Address*: Delhi.

MUHAMMAD ABDULLAH, SAYED, B. A. Zemindar and Member, Legislative Assembly. (1920), b. 1878. m. Mahinudatun Nesa Bibi, d. of late Chaudhury Keramatullah of Salar (Muzhidatun) 1887. *Educ.*: Calcutta Madrassa Presidency Coll. & Ripon Coll., Hon. Magistrate, Rampurhat, 1896; elected member, Local and Union Boards; Commissioner, Meherpur Muzhapit, 1904. Sub-Magistrate, Calcutta and Magistrate, 1908 and Sub-Magistrate, 1909.

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MURAMMAD ABDUL QUADIR, KHAN SAHIB MAULVI, B.A., LL.B., M.L.A., Pleader.
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MUHAMMAD MUKARRAM ALI KHAN, MUMTAZ-UD-DOWLAH NAWAB, Chief of Pahasu Estate and Tazimi Jagirdar (Jaipur State) b. 7 Sept. 1895, m. d. of late Maharaj Ali Khan, 2nd marriage, d. of Rao Abdul Hakeem Khan of Khairi Dist. Sharang-pore, Chief of Saadabad. Educ.: Maharaja's Coll., Jaipur and M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh; Publications: Sada-i-Watan Taught Nadir; Swarajya Home Rule. Address: Pahasu House, Aligarh.

MOUTR. WINGATE WEMYSS, Lieut-Col. C.B.E. (1926), M.V.O. (1928), O.B.E. (1918). Officer of the Crown of Roumania 1920; Commander of the Crown of Belgium 1926; Comptroller, Viceregal Household, b. 12th June 1879. Educ. Haileybury College and the R.M.C. Sandhurst. Was on the Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire Regiment and 15th Luchiana Sikhs (I.A.). Address: Viceregal Lodge, Delhi and Simla.

MUKANDI LAL, B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-law M.L.C., Dy. President, U.P. Legis Council, b. Oct. 1890, Educ. at Patna and Almora in colleges at Allahabad, Benares and Calcutta, and Christ Church, Oxford, Hist. Honrs. 1917. Called to Bar, Gray's Inn, 1918. Married in England; returned to India, 1919; enrolled Advocate, Allahabad High Court; elected to U.P. Legis. Council for Garhwal, 1923 and 1929. Writes to Hindi and English periodical papers, and is an exponent and critic of Indian Art. Belongs to Swaraj Party. Address: Laxadowne, Dist. Garhwal, U.P.

MUKERJI, MANMATHA NATH, The Hon. Mr. Justice, M.A. (Calcutta), B.L. Pusa Judge, High Court, Calcutta since 1924. b. 23 Oct. 1874. m. Sri. Purswari Delhi, eldest d. of Sir Gurooo Dass Banerji. Educ. Albert College School and College, Presidency College, Calcutta, and Ripon College Law Classes, Vakil, Calcutta High Court, from Dec. 1898 to December 1923. Address: S-1, Rara Street, Calcutta.

MUKHERJEE, BABU JOGENDRA NATH, M.A., B.L., Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. b. 23rd June 1861. m. d. of late Babu Hari-nath Chatterjee, of the Provincial Executive Service. Educ.: Presidency College and Hindu School, and Government Pathshala, Calcutta. Practised as pleader at Purnea, 1886-1903; was Municipal Commissioner, Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality; and Chairman altogether for about 28 years; Member of Bengal Legislative Council (1905-1907), practised Calcutta High Court from 1908; Prof. of Hindu Law in the Calcutta Law

College from 1899-1919; Chairman of Professors, Criminal Law in that Coll., 1918-19 Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23 Publications: (1) The Legislative Assembly and its work (brochure); (2) Dilatationism in Social Legislation; (3) An address on Hindu law delivered at Indian Museum salon held at Government House, Calcutta, on 7th Dec. 1920. Address: 13, Pran Kissen Mookerjee Road, Taltala, Calcutta.

MUKHERJEE, THE HON. SERJANT LOKU NATH, Zamindar having properties extending over many districts an Executive of Uttar para Municipality; Member of Council of State, b. April 1900. m. Sriniati Sahabala Devi d. of Lal Bahadur Samadani Chatterjee, Retired Mgt. of Bankura. Educ.: Uttar para Govt. High School and Presidency College, Calcutta Elected Commissioner, Uttar para Municipality in 1921; was Chairman for some time in 1924 and again in 1925, at present an executive of the Municipality now a Member, Council of State, for West Bengal Constituency. Address: "Rajendra Bhawan" Uttarpara, Beangal.

MULLA, DINGSHAH FARIDUNJI, M.A., LL.B., ex-Judge of the Bombay High Court. b. April 1868. m. Jeebai, d. of F. F. Karaka of Solapur. Educ.: at Sir Jamsetji Jijibhoy School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Fellow of the Bombay University, Lite President, Tribunal of Appeal, Bombay, 1919-1921. Publications: Commentaries on the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1920, 1921, 1922, 1923, 1924, 1925, 1926, 1927, 1928, 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934, 1935, 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1940, 1941, 1942, 1943, 1944, 1945, 1946, 1947, 1948, 1949, 1950, 1951, 1952, 1953, 1954, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1985, 1986, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033, 2034, 2035, 2036, 2037, 2038, 2039, 2040, 2041, 2042, 2043, 2044, 2045, 2046, 2047, 2048, 2049, 2050, 2051, 2052, 2053, 2054, 2055, 2056, 2057, 2058, 2059, 2060, 2061, 2062, 2063, 2064, 2065, 2066, 2067, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2071, 2072, 2073, 2074, 2075, 2076, 2077, 2078, 2079, 2080, 2081, 2082, 2083, 2084, 2085, 2086, 2087, 2088, 2089, 2090, 2091, 2092, 2093, 2094, 2095, 2096, 2097, 2098, 2099, 2100, 2101, 2102, 2103, 2104, 2105, 2106, 2107, 2108, 2109, 2110, 2111, 2112, 2113, 2114, 2115, 2116, 2117, 2118, 2119, 2120, 2121, 2122, 2123, 2124, 2125, 2126, 2127, 2128, 2129, 2130, 2131, 2132, 2133, 2134, 2135, 2136, 2137, 2138, 2139, 2140, 2141, 2142, 2143, 2144, 2145, 2146, 2147, 2148, 2149, 2150, 2151, 2152, 2153, 2154, 2155, 2156, 2157, 2158, 2159, 2160, 2161, 2162, 2163, 2164, 2165, 2166, 2167, 2168, 2169, 2170, 2171, 2172, 2173, 2174, 2175, 2176, 2177, 2178, 2179, 2180, 2181, 2182, 2183, 2184, 2185, 2186, 2187, 2188, 2189, 2190, 2191, 2192, 2193, 2194, 2195, 2196, 2197, 2198, 2199, 2200, 2201, 2202, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2206, 2207, 2208, 2209, 2210, 2211, 2212, 2213, 2214, 2215, 2216, 2217, 2218, 2219, 2220, 2221, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225, 2226, 2227, 2228, 2229, 2230, 2231, 2232, 2233, 2234, 2235, 2236, 2237, 2238, 2239, 2240, 2241, 2242, 2243, 2244, 2245, 2246, 2247, 2248, 2249, 2250, 2251, 2252, 2253, 2254, 2255, 2256, 2257, 2258, 2259, 2260, 2261, 2262, 2263, 2264, 2265, 2266, 2267, 2268, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272, 2273, 2274, 2275, 2276, 2277, 2278, 2279, 2280, 2281, 2282, 2283, 2284, 2285, 2286, 2287, 2288, 2289, 2290, 2291, 2292, 2293, 2294, 2295, 2296, 2297, 2298, 2299, 2300, 2301, 2302, 2303, 2304, 2305, 2306, 2307, 2308, 2309, 2310, 2311, 2312, 2313, 2314, 2315, 2316, 2317, 2318, 2319, 2320, 2321, 2322, 2323, 2324, 2325, 2326, 2327, 2328, 2329, 2330, 2331, 2332, 2333, 2334, 2335, 2336, 2337, 2338, 2339, 2340, 2341, 2342, 2343, 2344, 2345, 2346, 2347, 2348, 2349, 2350, 2351, 2352, 2353, 2354, 2355, 2356, 2357, 2358, 2359, 2360, 2361, 2362, 2363, 2364, 2365, 2366, 2367, 2368, 2369, 2370, 2371, 2372, 2373, 2374, 2375, 2376, 2377, 2378, 2379, 2380, 2381, 2382, 2383, 2384, 2385, 2386, 2387, 2388, 2389, 2390, 2391, 2392, 2393, 2394, 2395, 2396, 2397, 2398, 2399, 2400, 2401, 2402, 2403, 2404, 2405, 2406, 2407, 2408, 2409, 2410, 2411, 2412, 2413, 2414, 2415, 2416, 2417, 2418, 2419, 2420, 2421, 2422, 2423, 2424, 2425, 2426, 2427, 2428, 2429, 2430, 2431, 2432, 2433, 2434, 2435, 2436, 2437, 2438, 2439, 2440, 2441, 2442, 2443, 2444, 2445, 2446, 2447, 2448, 2449, 2450, 2451, 2452, 2453, 2454, 2455, 2456, 2457, 2458, 2459, 2460, 2461, 2462, 2463, 2464, 2465, 2466, 2467, 2468, 2469, 2470, 2471, 2472, 2473, 2474, 2475, 2476, 2477, 2478, 2479, 2480, 2481, 2482, 2483, 2484, 2485, 2486, 2487, 2488, 2489, 2490, 2491, 2492, 2493, 2494, 2495, 2496, 2497, 2498, 2499, 2500, 2501, 2502, 2503, 2504, 2505, 2506, 2507, 2508, 2509, 2510, 2511, 2512, 2513, 2514, 2515, 2516, 2517, 2518, 2519, 2520, 2521, 2522, 2523, 2524, 2525, 2526, 2527, 2528, 2529, 2530, 2531, 2532, 2533, 2534, 2535, 2536, 2537, 2538, 2539, 2540, 2541, 2542, 2543, 2544, 2545, 2546, 2547, 2548, 2549, 2550, 2551, 2552, 2553, 2554, 2555, 2556, 2557, 2558, 2559, 2560, 2561, 2562, 2563, 2564, 2565, 2566, 2567, 2568, 2569, 2570, 2571, 2572, 2573, 2574, 2575, 2576, 2577, 2578, 2579, 2580, 2581, 2582, 2583, 2584, 2585, 2586, 2587, 2588, 2589, 2590, 2591, 2592, 2593, 2594, 2595, 2596, 2597, 2598, 2599, 2600, 2601, 2602, 2603, 2604, 2605, 2606, 2607, 2608, 2609, 2610, 2611, 2612, 2613, 2614, 2615, 2616, 2617, 2618, 2619, 2620, 2621, 2622, 2623, 2624, 2625, 2626, 2627, 2628, 2629, 2630, 2631, 2632, 2633, 2634, 2635, 2636, 2637, 2638, 2639, 2640, 2641, 2642, 2643, 2644, 2645, 2646, 2647, 2648, 2649, 2650, 2651, 2652, 2653, 2654, 2655, 2656, 2657, 2658, 2659, 2660, 2661, 2662, 2663, 2664, 2665, 2666, 2667, 2668, 2669, 2670, 2671, 2672, 2673, 2674, 2675, 2676, 2677, 2678, 2679, 2680, 2681, 2682, 2683, 2684, 2685, 2686, 2687, 2688, 2689, 2690, 2691, 2692, 2693, 2694, 2695, 2696, 2697, 2698, 2699, 2700, 2701, 2702, 2703, 2704, 2705, 2706, 2707, 2708, 2709, 2710, 2711, 2712, 2713, 2714, 2715, 2716, 2717, 2718, 2719, 2720, 2721, 2722, 2723, 2724, 2725, 2726, 2727, 2728, 2729, 2730, 2731, 2732, 2733, 2734, 2735, 2736, 2737, 2738, 2739, 2740, 2741, 2742, 2743, 2744, 2745, 2746, 2747, 2748, 2749, 2750, 2751, 2752, 2753, 2754, 2755, 2756, 2757, 2758, 2759, 2760, 2761, 2762, 2763, 2764, 2765, 2766, 2767, 2768, 2769, 2770, 2771, 2772, 2773, 2774, 2775, 2776, 2777, 2778, 2779, 2780, 2781, 2782, 2783, 2784, 2785, 2786, 2787, 2788, 2789, 2790, 2791, 2792, 2793, 2794, 2795, 2796, 2797, 2798, 2799, 2800, 2801, 2802, 2803, 2804, 2805, 2806, 2807, 2808, 2809, 2810, 2811, 2812, 2813, 2814, 2815, 2816, 2817, 2818, 2819, 2820, 2821, 2822, 2823, 2824, 2825, 2826, 2827, 2828, 2829, 2830, 2831, 2832, 2833, 2834, 2835, 2836, 2837, 2838, 2839, 2840, 2841, 2842, 2843, 2844, 2845, 2846, 2847, 2848, 2849, 2850, 2851, 2852, 2853, 2854, 2855, 2856, 2857, 2858, 2859, 2860, 2861, 2862, 2863, 2864, 2865, 2866, 2867, 2868, 2869, 2870, 2871, 2872, 2873, 2874, 2875, 2876, 2877, 2878, 2879, 2880, 2881, 2882, 2883, 2884, 2885, 2886, 2887, 2888, 2889, 2890, 2891, 2892, 2893, 2894, 2895, 2896, 2897, 2898, 2899, 2900, 2901, 2902, 2903, 2904, 2905, 2906, 2907, 2908, 2909, 2910, 2911, 2912, 2913, 2914, 2915, 2916, 2917, 2918, 2919, 2920, 2921, 2922, 2923, 2924, 2925, 2926, 2927, 2928, 2929, 2930, 2931, 2932, 2933, 2934, 2935, 2936, 2937, 2938, 2939, 2940, 2941, 2942, 2943, 2944, 2945, 2946, 2947, 2948, 2949, 2950, 2951, 2952, 2953, 2954, 2955, 2956, 2957, 2958, 2959, 2960, 2961, 2962, 2963, 2964, 2965, 2966, 2967, 2968, 2969, 2970, 2971, 2972, 2973, 2974, 2975, 2976, 2977, 2978, 2979, 2980, 2981, 2982, 2983, 2984, 2985, 2986, 2987, 2988, 2989, 2990, 2991, 2992, 2993, 2994, 2995, 2996, 2997, 2998, 2999, 3000, 3001, 3002, 3003, 3004, 3005, 3006, 3007, 3008, 3009, 3010, 3011, 3012, 3013, 3014, 3015, 3016, 3017, 3018, 3019, 3020, 3021, 3022, 3023, 3024, 3025, 3026, 3027, 3028, 3029, 3030, 3031, 3032, 3033, 3034, 3035, 3036, 3037, 3038, 3039, 3040, 3041, 3042, 3043, 3044, 3045, 3046, 3047, 3048, 3049, 3050, 3051, 3052, 3053, 3054, 3055, 3056, 3057, 3058, 3059, 3060, 3061, 3062, 3063, 3064, 3065, 3066, 3067, 3068, 3069, 3070, 3071, 3072, 3073, 3074, 3075, 3076, 3077, 3078, 3079, 3080, 3081, 3082, 3083, 3084, 3085, 3086, 3087, 3088, 3089, 3090, 3091, 3092, 3093, 3094, 3095, 3096, 3097, 3098, 3099, 3100, 3101, 3102, 3103, 3104, 3105, 3106, 3107, 3108, 3109, 3110, 3111, 3112, 3113, 3114, 3115, 3116, 3117, 3118, 3119, 3120, 3121, 3122, 3123, 3124, 3125, 3126, 3127, 3128, 3129, 3130, 3131, 3132, 3133, 3134, 3135, 3136, 3137, 3138, 3139, 3140, 3141, 3142, 3143, 3144, 3145, 3146, 3147, 3148, 3149, 3150, 3151, 3152, 3153, 3154, 3155, 3156, 3157, 3158, 3159, 3160, 3161, 3162, 3163, 3164, 3165, 3166, 3167, 3168, 3169, 3170, 3171, 3172, 3173, 3174, 3175, 3176, 3177, 3178, 3179, 3180, 3181, 3182, 3183, 3184, 3185, 3186, 3187, 3188, 3189, 3190, 3191, 3192, 3193, 3194, 3195, 3196, 3197, 3198, 3199, 3200, 3201, 3202, 3203, 3204, 3205, 3206, 3207, 3208, 3209, 3210, 3211, 3212, 3213, 3214, 3215, 3216, 3217, 3218, 3219, 3220, 3221, 3222, 3223, 3224, 3225, 3226, 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3559, 3560, 3561, 3562, 3563, 3564, 3565, 3566, 3567, 3568, 3569, 3570, 3571, 3572, 3573, 3574, 3575, 3576, 3577, 3578, 3579, 3580, 3581, 3582, 3583, 3584, 3585, 3586, 3587, 3588, 3589, 3590, 3591, 3592, 3593, 3594, 3595, 3596, 3597, 3598, 3599, 3600, 3601, 3602, 3603, 3604, 3605, 3606, 3607, 3608, 3609, 3610, 3611, 3612, 3613, 3614, 3615, 3616, 3617, 3618, 3619, 3620, 3621, 3622, 3623, 3624, 3625, 3626, 3627, 3628, 3629, 3630, 3631, 3632, 3633, 3634, 3635, 3636, 3637, 3638, 3639, 3640, 3641, 3642, 3643, 3644, 3645, 3646, 3647, 3648, 3649, 3650, 3651, 3652, 3653, 3654, 3655, 3656, 3657, 3658, 3659, 3660, 3661, 3662, 3663, 3664

again in 1924 and of the Bombay Millowners' Association in 1909. served several periods on the Board of the Bombay Port Trust; is a member for a number of years of the Board of Trustees of V.J. Technical Institute; was a member of the Advisory Committee to the Director of Industries; and of the Advisory Board to the Development Department; is at present a member of the Advisory Committee of the B.C. & C.I. Railway. Represented Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Legislative Assembly, 1921-22; served on the Braithwaite Committee, Railway Advisory Committee, Railway Risk Note Committee, and Income-tax Committee. Elected Member of Council of State, June 1925 and re-elected in November 1929. Address: Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MURSHIDABAD, NAWAB BAHADUR OF K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., The Hon. Itisham-ul-Mulk, Ras-ul-Dowla, Amir-ul-Omrab, Nawab Asaf Kadr Syud Waseji Ali Meerza, Khan Bahadur, Mahabub Jung, premier noble of Bengal, Behar and Orissa; 38th in descent from the Prophet of Arabia; b. 7 Jan. 1876; m. 1898, Nawab Sultan Dula Fugoor Jahan Begum Sahoba. Educ. in India, under private tutors and in England, at Sherborne, Rugby, and Oxford; has six times been Mem. of Bengal Leg. Council. Address: The Palace, Murshidabad.

MURTRIE, DAVID JAMES, O.B.E., J.S.O.; Dy. Dir.-Gen., Post Offices, 1916-1921 (retired); b. 18 Dec. 1864, Educ., Doveton Prot. Coll., Madras. Int. Govt. Service in Post Office, 1884; Pres. Postmaster, Bombay, 1918-19. Address: "Looland," 8a, Canningham Road, Bangalore.

MUTALIK, VISHNU NARAYAN alias ANNASABER, B.A., Sardar of the Deccan, Inamdar and Saranjamdar; Member, Legislative Assembly, b. 6 Sept. 1870, m. S. Ramabai Sahab, d. of Mr. K. Bhiranni, Pearl Merchant. Educ. at Satara High School and the Deccan Coll., Poona. Member, Bombay Legislative Council for the Deccan Sardars, 1921-1923. President, Inamdar's Central Association, 1914 and onwards to the present day; Chairman, Satara City Municipality for 4 years; Member of Dist. and Taluka Local Board, Satara, for over 15 years. Was appointed non-official member of Army Accounts Committee, 1925-26 to represent Legist. Assembly on the Committee; President of the 1st Provincial Confr. of Sardars, Inamdar and Watondars 1926 and President Provincial Postal Confr. 1926. Publications: Currency System of India in Marathi. Address: Shauwar Peth, Satara City.

MUTELAH CHETTIAR, SIR M. CT., Kt. 1922. Banker b. 8 February 1887. m. to Thevanai. Educ.; Maharaja's College, Pudukottai. President, South India Chamber of Commerce; Chairman, Madras Stock Exchange; Director of Indian Bank Ltd., Madras, Ex-Minister, Madras Port Trust; Trustee, Panchappa's Educational Charities; Member, Advisory Board, South Indian Railway Co. Ltd., Sheriff of Madras, 1921 and 1922; Presid., United India Life Assurance Co.; was Member of Madras Legis. Council for a period before the Reformed Council and for one period after the Reformed Council and a Member of the Legis Assembly

Publications: Author of the Chapter on "Indigenous Banking" in Dr. Khan's book. Address: "Beitford House," Vepery, Madras.

MYSORE, H. R. THE MAHARAJA OF, COL. SR. SRI KRISHNARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR, G.O. S.T.; G.B.R. b. 4th June 1884; s. father, 1899. Invested with full ruling powers by Lord Curzon, at Mysore, 1902; present at Delhi Durbar, 1903. Area of State is 29,444 square miles, and its population is nearly 6,000,000. Address: The Palace, Bangalore, Mysore. Fern Hill, Nugiris.

MYSORU BH. HUNNRES YIVARATA OF, SR. SRI KANTHIRAJA NARASIMHARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR, G.O. S.T., Extraordinary Member of Council in Mysore; b. 3 June 1888; m. d. of late Maharaja Sri Channarayana Wadiyar Bahadur. Takes keen interest in welfare of people and in all matters of education, health and industry. Address: Mysore.

NABHA, MAHARAJA SRI REPUDAMAN SINGH MALAVENDRA, BAHADUR OF, F.R.G.S. M.B.A.S.; b. 14 March 1883; s. 1911. Educ. privately. Travelled good deal in India and abroad; Mem., Viceroy's Council, 1900-08. Pres. of Ind. Nat. Soc. Confr., 1909; attended Coronation of King, accompanied by Maharani, 1911; made handsome contributions towards various War Funds and Loans including gift of fully-equipped Hospital Ship for Mesopotamia. Abdicated 1923.

NAG, GURU CHANDRA, RAI BAHADUR, M.A. B.L. b. 14 Feb. 1864. m. Srimati Kanjalata, d. of Maj Sahib P. C. Deb of Sylhet. Educ.; Calcutta Presidency College. Professor, Ravenshaw Coll., Cuttack (1886-1890); Pleader, Sylhet Judge's Court, 1890-1892; Member, Assam Civil Service, 1892-1910; Member, Dacca University Court, and Member Leg. Assembly. Publications: "Back to Bengal." Address: Babul Bazar, Dacca.

NAGOD, RAJA JADURIND SINGH, RAJA OF; b. 30 Dec. 1855; s. 1874; dynasty has ruled at Nagod for over nine centuries; State has area of 501 square miles, and population of 31,097; salute 9 guns. Address: Nagod, Baghelkhand.

NAGPUR, R. C. BISHOP OF; see Coppel.

NAIDU, SABONJI, MRS., Fellow of Roy. Soc. of Lit. in 1914; b. Hyderabad, Deccan, 13 Feb. 1879. Educ.: Hyderabad; King's Coll., London; Girton Coll., Cambridge. Published three volumes of poetry in English, which have been translated into all Indian vernaculars, and some into other European languages; also been set to music; lectures and addresses on questions of social, religious, and educational and national progress; specially connected with Women's Movement in India, and winner of Indian students. Address: Hyderabad, Deccan.

NAIR, CHITTEER MAHAYAN, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE B.A., Bar-at-Law, Judge, High Court, Madras, b. 24th Jan. 1879. m. Srinivasammal P. Pat Parakkutty Aiyah, widow d. of Sir U. Sankaran Nair, B.A., Victoria Coll., Palghat, Panchayayam and Christian Colleges, Madras, Law Coll., Madras, Univ. Coll.

London, and also the Middle Temple, London, enrolled in the Madras High Court, 1904; educated as Vice Principal, Law Coll., Madras 1919, apptd. Prof. 1916-20; officiated as Principal Asst. Law Reporter 1915, Govt. Pleader 1919-23; Advocate-General, Madras 1922-24; Judge of High Court 1924, confirmed 1927. *Address*: Moorat's Garden's Numbarkam, Madras.

AIR MANNATH KRISHNAN, DEWAN BAHADUR (1915); Member, Madras Legislative Council b. August 1870. *Educ.*: Alathur; Calicut, and Christian College and Law College Madras. Vakil, Calicut Bar, Ch. Justice, Travancore High Court, for four years. Dewan, Travancore, May 1914 to July 1920. *Address*: Palghat, Malabar District.

Address see Sankaran Nair.

AMBIAR, CHANDROTH KUDALI THAZHATH VITHIL KUNHI KAMMARAN, Landlord. M.L.A. b. Dec. 1888. m. Kallhat Modhavi Amma, d. of V. Kyru Nambiar, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakils. *Educ.*: at the Mission High School, Brennan College, Tellicherry and Madras Medical College. Succeeded to the management of the Chandroth estate after the death of his brother in 1912; in 1914 was elected to the Tellicherry Taluk Board and in 1910 to the Malabar District Board of which he continues to be a member. In 1924 was returned to the Legislative Assembly as the representative of the Madras Landholders. *Address*: Panoor, via Mahe, N. Malabar.

ANAVATTY, Dr. BYRAMJI HOMIASJI, F.R.C.S. Ld F.O.P.S., L.M. & S. (Hon.); Khan Bahadur (1910), C.I.E., June (1925); Consulting Surgeon and Physician, Specialist in Eye Diseases. From Royal Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields, London; b. December 1862. m. daughter of the late Mr. M. N. Nanavatty (Treasury Officer, Surat) and cousin of Mr. M. Nanavatty, I.C.S. *Educ.*: Ahmedabad and Bombay and later on in London and Edinburgh; Held for many years the posts of Lecturer on Surgery (clinical) and operative and midwifery in one of the provincial medical schools of the Bombay Presidency. Was subsequently appointed Civil Surgeon, Surat. Appointed a Fellow of the Bombay University in 1897 and is now also an ordinary Fellow. Was for many years Examiner in Surgery and Midwifery in the L.M. & S., and M.B., B.S., Examinations of the Bombay University, and also in the L.C.P.S., and M.C.P.S. examinations of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Bombay. A Municipal Councillor of over 20 years standing and Chairman, Sanitary Committee. Was awarded by Government a gold medal for services rendered during the Ahmedabad riots of 1919. *Publications*: "Duties and Responsibilities of Practitioners and Students of Medicine," "On Different Methods of Cataract Extraction," "Uremia following on Catheterism," "Gloria Retinae etc. *Address*: Ahmedabad."

NANDY, MAHARAJA SIR MANINDRA CHANDRA, K.C.I.E. Maharaja of Kasimbazar, Bengal, b. 1860. Some time Member, Bengal Legis. Council, Imp. Legis. Council and Council of State; Chairman, Dist. Board, Murshidabad Hon. F. of C. India U. and Life Member, Hindu Univ. Benares.

Patron of several Clubs, Associations and Institutions in Bengal. *Address*: Rajbari, Kasimbazar, Bengal; or 302, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

NANDY MAHARAJA-KUMAR SRISCHANDRA, M.A. (1920), s. and z. of Maharaja Sir Manindra Chandra Nandy, Bahadur, K.C.I.E. of Kasimbazar, Bengal. b. 1897; m. 1917, second Rajkumari, d. of the late Hon. Raja Pritomda Nath Roy of Bishnupatia *Educ.*: Berhampore Coll., Bengal and Presidency Coll., Calcutta; Chairman, Berhampore Municipality; Hon. Magte., 1st class Berhampore, and Member, Bengal Legislative Council (Since 1924). Member, Bengal Historical Society and Asiatic Society of Bengal; Life Member, Viswa Bharati. *Address*: "Rajbari," Kasimbazar, or 302 Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

NANJUNDAYYA, H. VELPANEURU, C.I.D. b. 13 Oct. 1860; *Educ.*: Wesleyan Mission Sch., Mysore; Christian Coll., Madras; Madras Univ. (Fellow, 1895). Ent. service of Mysore Govt., 1885; Judge, Chief Court of Mysore 1904; Mem. of Council and Ch. Judge of Chief Court; retired 1918; Vice-Chancellor, Mysore Univ. *Address*: Malleswaram, Bangalore.

NARIMAN, SIR TEMULJI BHICAJI, KT., M.R.C. (P. Edinburgh), Hon. Causa, 1922; Sheriff of Bombay, 1922-23. Chief Physician, Parsi Lying-in Hospital; President, College of Physicians and Surgeons; b. Navsari, 3rd Sept. 1848; *Educ.*: Grant M.C.; Alphonstone Coll.; Fellow of Bombay Univ., 1883; J.P., a Syndic in Medicine, 1891; a Dean in Faculty of Medicine, 1901-02, Mem., Bombay Leg. Council, 1909; Mem. of Provincial Advisory Committee, 1910. Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1913. *Address*: Bombay.

NAROTTAM MORARJEE, Mill Agent and Merchant, b. 2nd April 1877. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay. *Address*: "Shanti Bhavan", 42-46, Pedder Road, Bombay.

NARSINGH GARGH, HIS HIGHNESS SRI HUZUR BAJA VIKRAM SINGH SAHIB BAHADUR, b. 21 September 1909; belongs to Paramar or Ponwar branch of Agnikul Rajputs; s. 1924 *Educ.*: Mayo College, Ajmer; State is 734 sq. miles in extent, and has population of 1,01,426; salute of 11 guns. Regent Her Highness the Rani Shiv Kuwver Sahiba D.B.E. *Address*: Narsinghgarh, C.I.

NATARAJAN, KAMARSHI, B.A. (Madras University), 1889, Editor, *The Indian Daily Mail* and *The Indian Social Reformer*, Bombay; b. 24th Sept. 1868. *Educ.*: St. Peter's H.S., Tanjore; Pres. Coll., Madras; Govt. Coll., Kumbakonam; and Law Coll., Madras Headmaster, Aryan H. S., "Tropicane, Madras; Asst. Editor, the *Hindu*, Madras, Pres., Madras Prov. Soc. Confee., Kurnool, 1911; and Pres., Bombay Prov. Soc. Confee., Bijapur, 1913. President, Mysore Civic and Social Progress Conference, 1921, and President, National Social Conference, Ahmedabad, 1921; General Secretary, Indian National Social Conference, 1923-24. *Publications*: Presidential addresses at above conferences. Report of Census of Hyderabad (Deccan) 1911. *Address*: *The Indian Social Reformer* Office Fort, Bombay and Talea Bungalow Khar Road Bandra, Bombay.

NATESAN, THE HON. MR. G. A., head of G. A. Natesan & Co., and Editor, *The Indian Review*; Member, Council of State. b. 25th August 1874. *Educ.*: High School, Kumbakonam; St. Joseph's School, Trichinopoly; H. H. School, Triplicane; Presidency College, Madras University, B.A. (1897). Fellow of the Univ. and Commissioner, Madras Corpn. Has taken a leading part in Congress work. Joined Moderate Conference, 1919. Sec., Madras Liberal League. Joint Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1922. *Publications*: chiefly patriotic literature and speeches, etc., of public men, "What India Wants," "Autonomy within the Empire." *Address*: George Town, Madras.

NATHUBHAI, TRIBHOVANDAS MANGALDAS, J.P., Hon. Mag. and Fellow of Univ., Bombay; Sheth or Head of Kapor Banya community, resigned presidency after tenure thereof for 25 years, 1912. b. 28 Oct. 1856. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay. Was for 20 years an elected Mem. of Bombay Mun. Corpn.; has been Hon. Mag. since establishment of Courts of Bench Magistrates in Bombay. *Address*: Sir Mangaldas House, Lamington Road, Bombay.

NAWAB SALAR JUNG DAHADUR, b. 13 June 1889. *Educ.*: at Niyam College; Prime Minister of Hyderabad, 1912-14. *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.

NAWANAGAR, H. H. MAHARAJA JAM SHRI KANITSINGJI, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., K.C.M.I., Hon. Lt.-Colonel in army; b. Sarodar, 10th September 1872; *Educ.*: Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot; Trinity Coll., Cambridge. First appearance for Sussex C. C. O., 1895; head of Sussex average same year; head of Sussex averages, 1895-1902; champion batsman for all England in 1896 and 1900, scoring 2,780 runs with an average of 59.91; went with Stoddart's All England XI to Australia, 1897-98; served European War, 1914-15; Represented India first Meeting of League of Nations at Geneva in 1920. Also 3rd Meeting in 1922, also 4th Meeting in 1923. *Address*: Jannagar, Kathiawar.

NEEDHAM, BRIEVE-COLONEL RICHARD ARTHUR, B.Sc., M.D., D.P.H., F.R.C.P. (Edinburgh), D.S.O. (1916), C.I.E. (1919), b. 1877. Inspector of Medical Education in India on behalf of the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom; on special duty, Railway Road. *Address*: Simla and Lahore.

NEHRU, PANDIT MOTILAL, Member, Legis. Assembly for The Seven Cities of U.P. b. 6th May 1861. President, U.P. Provincial Conference, 1907. Member U.P. Legis. Council; Founded *The Independent*, 1919. Presid., Indian National Congress in 1919. suspended practice at the Bar in pursuance of non-operation resolution, 1920; imprisoned for six months, 1921-22; Leader of the Swaraj Party in the second Legislative Assembly, 1924-26; elected President of the All-India Swaraj Party on the death of C. R. Das, 1925; appointed member, Indian Sandhurst Committee, but subsequently resigned on the fusion of the Swaraj Party into the Congress, 1926; elected Leader of the Congress Party in the present Legislative Assembly, 1927; resumed practice at the Bar, April 1927. *Address*: Anand Bhawan, Allahabad.

NEHRU, PANDIT SACHINDRANATH, b. 16 June 1879. Nath Bhukku. I. All-India Congress Committee, Provincial Congress Committee (J. P.), Allahabad Town Congress Committee, Allahabad Municipal Board; Chairman, Allahabad Public Health Committee; Member, Allahabad Improvement Trust; Member, Khilafat Committee; Member, Legis. Assembly; six months' imprisonment and fine for non-co-operation (1921-22). *Publication*: Founder of *The Democrat*, newspaper of Allahabad. *Address*: Allahabad, U.P.

NEILSON, WILLIAM HARNCASTLE, O.B.E. (1839), V.D., J.P., M.A., M.A.I., Chairman, Bombay Port Trust. b. 21 Feb. 1875; m. Ethel Maude, only d. of the late Frank Phillips of Plymouth, Eng. Mr. Strangways' School, Dublin; Trinity College, Dublin. Asst. Engineer, Koyah Dockyard Extension, Bevonport, 1900; Asst. Engineer, Calcutta Port Commissioners, 1905; Port Engineer, Chittagong Port Commissioners, 1907; Chief Engineer, Karachi Port Trust, 1916; Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust, 1922; Chairman, Bombay Port Trust, 1923. Controller of Munitions, Karachi Circle, 1917; Lt.-Col., Bombay District, A. F. L.; Member, Inst. Civil Engrs., Inst. Mech. Engrs., American Soc. C.E., President, Inst. Engrs. (India). *Publications*: Report on Grain Elevators in Canada and United States. *Address*: Bombay Port Trust.

NEOGY, KUNISH CHANDRA, M.L.A., representative, since 1921, the non-Mahomedan electorate, Dacca Divn., B. Bengal. Vaid High Court, Calcutta. Journalist. b. 1888. *Educ.*: Presy. Coll., Calcutta. Dacca Coll., m. Sreemati Lila Devi. Some time a member of the All-India Council of the Nat. Lib. Fedn.; Elected Member of the Dacca Univ. Coum., 1921-24; one of the Chairmen of the Leg. Assembly since 1924. *Address*: 48, Townline Circular Road, Wari, Dacca; and P. 393, Russa Road, Tollygunge P. O., Calcutta.

NEPAL, HIS HIGHNESS PROJJWALA-NEPALA TARADHISHA MAHARAJA CHANDRA SHUM SHREE JUNG BAHADUR RANA, G.C.B., (Hon., 1908), G.C.S.I., (Hon., 1903), G.C.M.G. (1919), G.C.V.O. (1911), D.C.L. (Hon., Oxford, 1908), F.R.G.S., (Hon., 1912), Thonglin Punma-Nokang-Wang-Syan, (Chinese, 1902), Grand Officer de la Legion d'Honneur (1924), Prime Minister, Marshal and Supreme 1863. m. b. Loka Rana. High Thakuri Kshatriya family of Nepal. died 1905; 2nd. 1905. Shri Bada-Maharaja Balakumari Devi (born 1888); eldest daughter of Colonel Hari Bikram Shah, a high Thakuri Kshatriya in the country. *Educ.*: Durbar High School, Katmandu, and is an alumnus of the Calcutta University. Entered Army as a Colonel, became Major-General in the Nepal Army, 1902; General Commanding Southern Division, 1897; Senior Commanding General (Western Command), Director of Public Instruction and in Charge of the Foreign Office of Nepal, 1887-1901; Appointed Commander-in-

Chief of the Nepalese Army March 1901; Became Maharaja Prime Minister, Marshal and Supreme Commander-in-Chief of Nepal, June, 1901; Honorary General in the British Army, 1919; Honorary Colonel, 4th Gurkha Rifles, 1906; Has instituted the most Refulgent Order of the Star of Nepal and himself is *Projwala-Nepala-Paradhisha*, i.e., Grand Master of the most Refulgent Order, 1923; Visited England, 1908; Rendered magnificent help to Britain in men, money and materials during the war, 1914-18; Presented 31 Machine Guns to the King-Empress on His Majesty's birthday, 1915; Substantial help to Britain during the Waziristan campaign and Third Kabul war, 1917-18; Concluded and signed a new Treaty of Friendship between the Governments of Nepal and Great Britain, 1923; Has effected decided administrative and other improvements in the country and has abolished slavery throughout the Kingdom after liberating 80,000 slaves at a cost of Rs. 35,00,000, 1924-26. *Publications*:—Has translated several military books into Nepalese. *Address*: Singha Durbar, Katmandu.

V. L. L. HENRY RIVERS, B.A.; O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1920); C.I.E. (1921), Offg. Commissioner, Jhansi Division. *b.* 24th May 1878. *m.* Buphan M.B.E., *d.* of T. Maxwell, Esq., of Irvine, Ayrshire. *Educ.* Charterhouse, Oriel College, Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1899; posted to U.P. Commanded U.P. Horse, 1913-17; services placed at disposal of C-in-C., Nov. 1917; Asstt. Adjutant-General at A. H. Q. and from August 1921 to April 1923 Director of Auxiliary and Territorial Forces; Collector and Magistrate, Agra, Nov. 1923; Offg. Commissioner, Meerut, 1927. *Publications*: *Dist. Gazetteers of the United Provinces.* *Address*: Meerut.

NEWBOULD, HON. SIR DABINGTON BENNETT. Kt. (1924), Puisne Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1916. *b.* 7 March 1867. *Educ.*: Bedford Sch.; Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Int. I.C.S., 1885. *Address*: Bengal United Service Club, Calcutta.

NICHOLSON, SIR FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, K.C.S.I. (1925); K.C.I.E. (1903); C.I.E. (1899); Kaisar-i-Hind Medal, First Class, 1st Jan. 1917. *b.* 1846. *m.* 1875, Catherine, O.B.E., *d.* of Rev. J. Lechler; three *s.* *Educ.*: Royal Medical College, Epsom; Lincoln Coll., Oxford. Entered Madras Civil Service, 1869; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1899; Member, Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1897-99, 1901-02, 1904-05, 1907-08, 1910-11, 1913-14, 1916-17, 1919-20, 1921-22, 1923-24, 1925-26. *Publications*: *District Manual of Coimbatore*; *Land and Agricultural Banks for India*; *Madras Fisheries Bulletins*; *Note on Agriculture in Japan.* *Address*: Suronden, Coonoor, Nilgiris.

NIHAL SINGH, REV. CANON SOLOMON, B.A., Evangelistic Missionary, Chawhan Rajput of Mainpuri and Jagdhar by birth. *b.* 15 Feb. 1852. *m.* 1870 *d.* of Subahdar Sundar Singh, a Tilok Chandi Raja *son* three *daughters* *Educ.* Govt. H. S. *put* *Quinn* *g* Co L. Lucknow *d* 1891 *Hon*

in All Saints' Cathedral, Allahabad, 1906. *Publications*: *An English Grammar for the use of the middle classes in Oudh. Translation into English of the Urdu Entrance Course Majnun Sakhsun, 1873-75; Khulasat ul Isaah (in two parts); Risala-e-Saf Gai or Plain Speaking; Verses on Temperance in Urdu; Munajat As; Verses on the Coronation of King Edward VII and George V in Urdu.* *Address*: 2, Pioneer Road, Allahabad.

NORMAND, ALEXANDER ROBERT, M.A., B.Sc. Ph.D., Prof. of Chemistry, Wilson Coll. Bombay. *b.* Edinburgh, 4 March 1880. *m.* 1909 Margaret Elizabeth Murray. *Educ.* Royal H. S. and Univ., Edinburgh. *Address*: Wilson College, Bombay.

NORRIS, ROLAND VICTOR, D.Sc. (London) M.Sc. (Manchester), F.I.C., Professor of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science Bangalore. *b.* 24 October 1887. *m.* Dorothy, only *d.* of Robert and Myrham Harro, Manchester. *Educ.*: Ripon Grammar School and Univ. of Manchester. Schumck Research Assistant, Univ. of Manchester, 1909; Research Scholar, Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine, 1910-11; Beit Memorial Fellow, 1911-13; Physiological Chemist, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Muktesar, U.P., 1914; war service, Captain T.A.R.O. attached 103rd Mahratta Light Infantry, 1915-18; Indian Agricultural Service; Agricultural Chemist to Govt. of Madras, 1918-24; appointed Prof. of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science, July 1924; Hon. General Secretary, Indian Science Congress. *Publications*: numerous scientific papers in various technical journals. *Address*: The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

NORTON, FARDLEY, Bar-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn). *b.* 19 Feb. 1852. Called 1876. *Educ.* Rugby Sch.; Merton Coll., Oxford. Advocate of the High Courts of Bengal (1888); and Madras (1879). *Address*: Bar Library, High Court, Calcutta.

NOYOR, FRANK, I.C.S., C.S.I. (1924), C.B.E. (1919); President, Indian Tariff Board, (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry), 1926 *b.* 4 June 1878. *Educ.*: Salisbury Sch. and St. Catharine's Coll., Cambridge. *m.* Lind, *d.* of W. M. Kirkus of Liverpool. Entered I.C.S., 1902. Served in Madras. Under-Sec. to Govt. of India, Revenue and Agricultural Dept., 1912-16; Sec., Indian Cotton Committee, 1917-18, Controller of Cotton Cloth, 1918-19; Vice-President and subsequently President, Indian Sugar Committee, 1919-20; Member, Burma Land Revenue Committee, 1920-21; Indian Trade Commissioner in London, 1922-23; Secretary to the Government of Madras, Development Department, 1923-24; President, Indian Coal Committee, 1924-25. *Publications*: *England, India and Afghanistan (1902).* *Address*: Madras Club Madras.

NUNAN, WILLIAM, B.A., T.C.D. (1902), M.B. B.Ch., T.C.D. (1905), M.D. (1906), Administrative Medical Officer, Boxbay Port Trust *b.* 26 Jan. 1880 *m.* Jeanne Honorine Thibault *d.* Manvelon Paris *Educ.* *Chapman Wood* *College, E. India* *University of Dublin* *T. I.* *ntly College* *g Surgeon* *y*

- 1914; Governor of Bombay, 1915-1919; Police Surgeon of Bombay; Prof. of Medical Jurisprudence, Grant Medical College, Bombay. *Publications*: Lectures in Medical Jurisprudence. *Address*: Dougall House, Colaba, Bombay.
- JATIN, HOWARD FARLEY, M.L.C., M.A., LL.B.**, Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, b. 21 Feb. 1884, *as* Dorothy Ellen Fegan 2nd d. of late F. G. Ellis *Educ.* Skinner's School, Tunbridge Wells, Tonbridge School; Salney Sussex College, Cambridge (scholar). On staff Llandudno Coll., 1908-9, 1908 as Prof. of History, Pembroke Coll., Cambridge, 1909-16; Trooper, Calcutta Light Horse to 1916; thence to 1919 in I.A.B.O. attached 21st K.B.C., Lancers in N.W. Frontier and in the Punjab, including Waziristan campaign, 1917; Lt., 1917. *Ag.* Captain, 1919. *Off.* Asst. Director for Mahomedan Education, Bengal, 1919, *Off.* Inspector of European Schools, Bengal, 1920, *Off.* Principal, Hughli College, 1921; Asst. Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, 1921; Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, 1924. Nominated member, Bengal Legislative Council, 1924, to present day. *Follow.* Calcutta University; Mayor, A.P. India 1927 in command of 2nd (Calcutta) En. University Training Corps. *Publications*: "A sketch of Anglo-Indian Literature"; "European Travellers in India"; "Glimpses of India's History", contributed to "Cambridge History of English Literature." *Address*: United Service Club, Calcutta.
- OREHHA, H. H. SARADAM-I-RAJAH-I-BUNDELKHAND, MAHARAJA MAHENDRA SAWAI, SIB PRATAP SINGH BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., K.O.I.E., G.C.S.I.** b. 1854. *as* brother 1874. State has area of 2,050 sq. miles and population of over 800,000. *Address*: Tikamgarh, Bundelkhand.
- JAGT, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE ARTHUR K.C.** (1822); Judge, High Court, Calcutta, 1823. b. 1876; *as* *son* of late Nathaniel Page, J.P., Carshalton Surrey, M. Margat, d. of E. Syms Thomson, M.D., F.R.C.P. *Educ.*: Harrow; Malden Coll., Oxford. Classical Honours Moderations, 1897; Literature Humanities, 1899; D.A. 1899. Bar-at-Law, 1901; Conservative Candidate, Derby Borough, Jan. 1910; served European War in France and Flanders, A.D., R.N.V.R. 1915; 2nd Lieut., Royal Marine Artillery; Captain, 1917. *Publications*: Licensing Bill, is it Just? 1933; Shops Act (joint author), 1911; Legal Problems of the Empire in Oxford Survey of the British Empire, 1914; Imperialism and Democracy, 1913; War and Africa Enemies, 1914, various articles on Political and Social subjects; Harrow School cricket and football elevens and fives player *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.
- PARENHAM-WALSH, Rt. Rev. HERBERT, D.D. (Dub.)**, Principal, Bishop's College Calcutta, b. Dublin, 22 March 1871; 3rd son of late Rt. Rev. William Pakenham Walsh, Bishop of Ossory and Clara Jane Ridley, *as* 1910, Clara Ridley, *as* d. of Rev. Canon F. C. Hayes. *Educ.*: Chard Grammar School; Birkenhead School; Trinity College, Dublin. Deacon, 1896; worked as a member of the Dublin University Brotherhood Chloa
- Nagpore, India, 1896-1902; Principal, S. J. G. College, Trichinopoly, 1904-07; Head of the S. P. G. Brotherhood, Trichinopoly, Warden, Bishop Cotton School, Bangalore, 1907-14; Bishop of Assam, 1913-23. *Publications*: St. Francis of Assisi and other poems; Nisbet Altar and Table (S.P.G.K.). Evolution and Christianity (A.L.S.). Commentary on St. John's Ep. (S.P.C.K.). Daily Services for Schools and Colleges (Longman's) and Divine Healing (S.P.C.K.). *Address*: Bishop's College, 224 Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.
- PALANPUR, NAWAB CAPTAIN H. H. ZUDDA TUL-MULK, DEWAN MAHAKHAN TALIF MUHAMMAD KIRAN BAHADUR, K.O.I.E.** (1920), K.C.V.O. (1922) b. July 7, 1888. State has area of 1,750 sq. miles and population of over 230,000. *Address*: Bangalore.
- PAT, BIPIN CHANDRA**, Journalist b. 7 Nov 1858. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta. Sub-Editor, "Bengal Public Opinion," 1883-84. Sub-Editor, "Tribune", 1887-88, Secretary and Librarian, Calcutta Public Library 1890-92; License Inspector, Calcutta Corporation, 1892-93; visited England and America worked as a Brahmo Missionary, started "New India," 1901 and afterwards "Banda Mataram"; convicted in 1907 to simple imprisonment for 6 months for contempt of court; left for England 1908 when he started "Swaraaj" (monthly); in 1911 sentenced on landing at Bombay to simple imprisonment for one month on a charge of sedition; started "The Hindu Review" in 1912. *Address*: Calcutta.
- PALMER, Rt. Rev. H. J.**; see Bombay, Bishop of.
- PANANDIKAR, SATYASHRAYA (GOPAL, MA (Bombay), 1916; Ph.D. (Econ. London), 1921. D. Sc. (Econ. London), 1920. Professor of History and Political Economy, Elphinstone College, Bombay, b. 18 July 1864 *as* to Indira d. of S. A. Salunkhe, Esq., Solicitor, High Court Bombay. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay and School of Economics, Univ. of London. Some time Professor of Political Economy University of Dacca (1921-23). *Publications*: Economic Consequences of the War for India. Wealth and Welfare of the Bengal Delta. *Address*: Elphinstone College, Fort, Bombay.**
- PANCKRIDGE, RUCH KASHERI, B.A.**, Barrister, Standing Counsel, Bengal, b. Oct 2, 1885. *Educ.*: Winchester Coll. and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Called to Bar Inner Temple 1909; Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1910 Indian Army Reserve of Officers, 1914; Capt 1918; mentioned in despatches by Field Marshal Lord Allenby; served in France and Palestine. *Address*: Bengal Club Calcutta; and Oriental Club, Ranover Square London.
- PANNA, H. H. MAHENDRA MAHARAJA YADVEN DRA, SINGH OP; K.C.I.E.** (1922). b. 1893. *S. cousin* on his deposition, 1902, m. 1912 Kunwari Shri Mahar Kunwarba, *as* d. of Maharajah of Bhavnagar State. Has area of 2,596 sq. miles and population of about 200,000. *Address*: Panna, Bundelkhand.
- PARANJPE, GOPAL RAMCHANDRA, M. Sc** (1912). Professor of Physics Royal Inst

Institute of Science, Bombay. b. 30 January 1891. *m. M.A. Malini P. Manjpe. Educ.*: Poona, Heidelberg and Berlin Bombay University Research Scholar at Bangalore for three years; then for some time Assistant in the Physical Chemistry Department of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, since 1920; Professor of Physics in the Indian Educational Service at the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay. Fellow of the Univ. of Bombay. *Publications*. Papers on "The cathode fall in several gases Helium Neon, etc."; "Vapour pressures of concentrated solutions"; "Elastic constants of certain materials"; "Use of neon lamp for intermittent illumination". "Use of Carbon Dioxide Gas in Mercury Interrupters." *Address*: Royal Institute of Science, Mayo Road, Bombay.

ARANJPEY, RAGHUNATH PURUSHOTTAM, DR., M.A. (Cantab.); B.Sc. (Bombay); D.Sc. (Calcutta). Member, India Council (1927). b. Murdi, 16 Feb. 1876. *Educ.*: Maratha H.S. Bombay; Fergusson Coll., Poona; St John's Coll., Cambridge (Engl.); Paris and Göttingen: First in all Univ. exams. in India; went to England as Govt. of India scholar, bracketed Senior Wrangler at Cambridge. 1899; Princ. and Prof. of Math., Fergusson Coll., Poona, 1903-24; has taken prominent part in all social, political and educational movements in Bombay Pres.; Vice-Chancellor of new Indian Women's Univ., 1916-20; Bombay Leg. Council, 1913; represented the University of Bombay, 1916-23, 1926. Awarded the Maharajah Gold Medal in 1916. Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23, 1927; Member, Reforms Inquiry Committee, 1921; Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Committee, 1921; Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee, 1924-25; Elected to Bombay Council to represent Univ. in 1926; appointed Minister, 1927; resigned on appointment to India Office. *Publications*: Short Lives of Gokhale and Karve. *Address*: India Office, Whitehall, London.

ARKER, EDWARD ARTHUR, M.A., Ph.D., M.P. Ed. (Dharm). Mitglied der Universität Graz (1920); J.P. (Bombay, 1927), Professor of English, Elphinstone College, Bombay b. Oct. 21, 1889. *Educ.*: School for the Sons of Missionaries, Blackheath, London, Birmingham University, Harding Traveling Scholar, Birmingham, 1911; Lektor for English, Graz University, Austria, 1913-14; Professor of English, Wilson Coll., Bombay, 1914-26; Fellow of Bombay Univ. and Member of the English Board of Studies, 1923. Hon. Secy., Bombay Branch, Royal Asiatic Society, Bombay, 1922-25 and 1926-28; Chairman, Board of Studies in English, Bombay University, 1927; Member of the Board of Directors Prince of Wales Museum, 1925. *Publications*: Sixty-three Poems by W.H. Gibson with Critical Introduction (Macmillan); How to Understand Poetry (Macmillan). Longer Modern Verse with Introduction (O.U.P.); Editions of Selections from Ruskin's "Stones of Venice", Browning's "Pippa Passes", Browning's "Ballads and Epics" *Address*: Bara Bhatta, Wardeo Road Bombay 6

PARTAB BAHADUR SING, RAJA, TALUQDAR OF KILA PARTABGARH, C.I.E., Hon. Magistrate; Hon. Mem. of U. P. Leg. Council, s. 1866. *Address*: Kila Partabgarh, Oudh

PARTABGARH, H. H. SIR RAGHUNATH SINGH BAHADUR, MAHARAJA OF; K.C.I.E. b. 1859. s. 1890 State has area of 886 sq miles and population of 62,704; salute of 15 guns. *Address*: Partabgarh, Rajputana,

PASCOE, SIR EDWIN HALL, Kt. (1928). M.A. D.Sc. (Cantab.). D.Sc. (London). F.R.S. Director, Geological Survey of India since 1921; Editor, Memoirs and Records of the Geological Survey of India; Mining and Geological Institute of India, President in 1911; Treasurer and Editor of Transactions hitherto and since President of the Governing Body Indian School of Mining and Geology; Corresponding Member, Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau Trustee, Indian Museum, Calcutta Member of Court and Council, Indian Institute of Science; b. 17 Feb. 1878. *m. Ma. d. of James MacLean of Beauty, Inverness Educ.*: King's College and Univ. College London; St. John's College, Cambridge (Foundation Scholar). Jointed Geological Survey, 1905; Kangra Earthquake Investigation 1905; Survey of Burma Oil fields, 1905-09; accompanied Makwari Punitive Expedition, Naga Hills, 1910; deputed Persian Gulf, Arabian Coast and W. Persia 1913; Slade Oilfields Commission in Persia and Persian Gulf, 1913-14; Punjab and N.W. Frontier, 1914-15; Comm. as 2nd Lt in I.A.R.O., 1915; on Active Service, Mesopotamia, 1916-17; promoted to Superintendent Geological Survey of India, 1917; on Detachment to Mesopotamia, 1918-19. *Publications*: The Oilfields of Burma. The Petroleum Occurrences of Assam and Bengal; Petroleum in the Punjab and N.W. Frontier Province. Geological Notes on Mesopotamia, with special reference to occurrences of Petroleum; and several shorter papers in the Records, Geological Survey of India and elsewhere. *Address*: Geological Survey of India, 27, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

PATIALA, MAJOR-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS FARZAND-I-KHAS-I-DAULAT-I-INGLISH I A MANSUR-I-ZAMAN AMIR-UT-UMRA MAHARAJA DEHRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SINGH MAHARAJA-I-RAJGAN BHUPINDER SINGH MOHINDER BAHADUR, Ruler of Patiala State, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., F.R.G.S., F.Z.S., M.B.A.S., M.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.R.H.S. b. Oct. 1891. The premier Ruling Prince of the Punjab; is one of the Ruling Princes of India; a member of the Standing Committee of Indian Princes Chamber (Narendra Mandal); Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, 1926; Commander-in-Chief Patiala Forces; Hon. Major-General in British Army, and Hon. Colonel, 15th Ludhiana Sikhs; served with Indian Expeditionary Force during European War, 1914, on the staff in France, Belgium, Italy and Palestine in 1918, Afghan War, 1919 (Grand Cross of the Legion de Honour, Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy Grand Cordons of the Order de Leopold, Grand of the

Order of the Nile, Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania; represented India at the Imperial War Conference and Cabinet, 1918; represented Indian Princes at the League of Nations, 1925. *Gr. G.C.I.E.*, 1911, *G.B.E.*, 1918, *G.C.S.I.*, 1921, *G.C.V.O.*, 1922; *A.D.C.* to His Majesty the King-Emperor, 1922; received the order of Grand Cross of St. Saviour of Greece (1926). *Address:* (Winter) Patiala; (Summer) Chail, Simla Hills, Punjab, India.

ATTANI, SIR PRABHASHANKAR DALPATRAM, *K.C.I.E.*, President of Council of Administration Bhavnagar State, 1920, Member of Exec. Council of Government of Bombay, 1912-1915; of the Bombay Legislative Council, 1916; of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1917; of the Council of India, 1917-19. *b.* 1862. *Educ.:* Morvi, Rajkote, Bombay. *Address:* Anantwadi, Bhavnagar.

ATLIERSON, STEWART BLACKLEY AGNEW,

Queen's Royal Regt., 1892; 30th Dogras, 1894, served in Waziristan Expedition, 1894-5; (Medal and Clasp), *N. W. Frontier*, Malakand, Chakdara, Marnad Valley, 1897-8, (Medals and two Claps); subsequently served in Political Department, Govt. of India, in *N. W. Frontier*, Kashmir and Rajputana; acted as Political Secretary to Govt. of India and was appointed *A.G.G.* in Rajputana in 1925. *Address:* The Residency, Mount Abu.

PAUL, KANAKARAYAN TIRUSELVAM, O. B. E. (1918), *Nat. Sec.*, *Y. M. O. A.* of India; Burma and Ceylon. *b.* 24 March 1876. *Educ.:* Madras Christian College; Law College; Teachers' College. *m.* Miss K. Narasinga Rao. Teacher, Headmaster, College Lecturer. Municipal Commissioner, General Secretary, *N.M.S.* of India; Member, Fraser Commission on Village Education in India; President, all-India Christian Conference, 1923; Moderator, General Assembly of the South India United Church, 1925-27. *Publications:* "Citizenship in Modern India. *Adult Education*." "An Urgent Need of Modern India." "The British Connection with India." Editor, *Young Men of India*. *Address:* 6, Russell Street, Calcutta.

PLABS, STEWART EDMUND, O.I.E. (1916), *C.S.I.* (1923), Resident in Mysore. *b.* 25 Nov. 1875. *m.* Winifred M. Barton. *Educ.:* Edinburgh University and Trinity Hall Cambridge. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1898; served in *N.W.F. Province* from 1901 onwards, as Political Agent in Tochi, Kurram, Khyber and Malakand. Delegate to Anglo-Afghan Conference at Mussoorie in 1920; Resident in Waziristan, 1922-24, *Offg. A.G.G.* in Baluchistan, May to October 1924; Resident in Mysore (June 1925). *Address:* Bangalore, Southern India.

PERCIVAL, PHILIP EDWARD, B.A. (Oxon.), *O.I.E.*, *I.C.S.*, Judicial Commissioner of Sind. *b.* 11 Nov. 1872. *m.* Sylvia Baines. *J.* of the late Sir J. A. Baines. *C.S.I. Educ.* Charterhouse and Balliol Oxford. Served under the Government of

Colfr., Asstt. Judge, Under-Secretary, Judicial Dept., Registrar, Bombay High Court Dist. and Sessions Judge, Acting High Court Judge, and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs. *Address:* Karachi.

PERIER, MOST REV. FERDINAND, S.J., Coadjutor Archbishop of Calcutta, since 1924. *Antwerp*, 22 Sept. 1875. Joined Society of Jesus, 1897, nominated Superior of Jesuit Mission in Bengal, 1913. Consecrated Coadjutor Bishop, Dec. 1921. *Address:* 32 Park Street, Calcutta.

PERINI, Rt. Rev. PAUL, S.J., D.D., Bishop of Calicut, since June 1923. *b.* Brindisi, Italy, Jan. 1867. *Educ.:* various Colleges of Society of Jesus in Austria, England and Belgium. Joined Society of Jesus, 1883; Rector and Prin of St. Aloysius Coll., Mangalore, for six years; Bishop of Mangalore, 1910-23. *Address:* Bishop's House, Calicut.

PETIT, SIR DINSHAW MANOCKJEE, 2nd Baronet; s of late Framjee Dinshaw Petit 2nd son of 1st Baronet. *b.* 7 June 1878 s. his grandfather, Sir Dinshaw Manockjee, under special remainder, 1901, and changed his name from Jeejeebhoy Framji Petit to Dinshaw Manockjee Petit. Merchant and cotton millowner; at one time Member Bombay Legislative Council; *J.P.* for Bombay; a Delegate of Parsee Ch. Matrimonial Court of Bombay; Pres. of Association for Amelioration of Poor Zoroastrians in Persia; the Petit Charities Funds, Petit Institute, and Parsee Orphanage, and Chairman and Member of Managing Committees of the principal Parsee charitable institutions in Bombay. *m.* Dinbai, d. of Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, 3rd Bart., and has issue. *Address:* Petit

Merchant and *m.* Miss Jaijee Sorabjee Patuck, *M.B.E.* Kaiser-i-Hind Silver medalist. *Educ.:* Fort High and St. Xavier's Institutions. *J.P.*, merchant, mill owner and banker; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation. The Bombay Improvement Trust Board; Bombay Development Board and the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute. Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners' Association (President, 1915-16) Indian Merchants' Chamber (President 1919-20) and Indian Industrial Conference (President, 1918); President, Bombay Textile Association; Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Assocn.; Trustee of Parsee Panchayat, Founder and Proprietor of *The Indian Daily Mail*; Founder and President of the B. D. Petit Parn General Hospital, Indian Economic Society, Bombay Progressive Assocn., Bombay Symphony Orchestra, Tariff Reform League, Landlords' Association and New High School for Girls (Bombay); Founder and Hon. Secy of the Imperial Indian Citizenship Association and the Victoria Memorial School for the

Chief Mstrl of Bombay. *Disputes* Committee (1921), and the University Reform Committee (1924). *Address:* Mount Road, Pedder Road, Hill, y

ITMAN, CHARLES EARLE BEVAN, C.I.E., b. 1 September 1863. *m.* 1926, Amy, widow of John William Hensley, deceased. Late Director of Indian Govt. Telegraphs and d. of Gov. Edwin Pope. *Educ.*: Privately and at Trinity College, Cambridge. Advocate, Calcutta H. Court, 1892, and of Chief Court, Punjab, 1892. Government Advocate, Punjab 1909; Judge of the High Court, Lahore, from April to Aug. 1920 and from Oct. 1920 to Febr. 1921. *Publications*: "Report on Frauds and Bribery in the Commissariat Department"; "P. W. D. Contract Manual" (Revised Edition). *Address*: Lahore.

ETRIE, DAVID, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., Director, Intelligence Bureau, Home Department, Government of India, 1924. b. 1879. *Educ.*: Aberdeen Univ. Ent. Ind. Police, 1900; Asst. Dir., C.I.D., Simla, 1911-12; Spec. duty with Home Dept., since 1915; on special duty with H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, 1921; on staff of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-22; Senior Superintendent of Police, Lahore, Member of the R. Comm. on Public Services, 1923. *Address*: C/o Lloyds Bank, Bombay.

JYARE LAJ, LATA, M.L.A., Gold Medallist in Law (1890), Punjab Univ., Vakil, High Court, b. 21 Aug. 1858. *Educ.*: Delhi Govt. College; Lahore Govt. College. President, Delhi Bar Association. Had been a member of the All-India Congress Committee before the introduction of Civil Disobedience; Vice-president, Municipal Committee, Delhi; Hon. Secretary, Board of Trustees, Hindu College, Delhi; Member, Executive Council, Delhi Univ.; represented Delhi provinces in the Imperial War Conference at Delhi in 1918. Represented Delhi General Constituency in the Legislative Assembly from 1924-26; is connected with various Jain Institutions. *Address*: Chandni Chowk, Delhi.

CHAKHANAWALA, SORABI NUSSEERWANJI, Certificated Associate of the Institute of Bankers (London), 1910; Managing Director, Central Bank of India, Ltd. b. 9 Aug. 1881. *m.* Bai Sakarbai Ruttonji. *Educ.*: New High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China and after serving the Bank for 7 years and the Bank of India for 5 years; founded the Central Bank of India. Was appointed member of the Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee by the Govt. of India in 1921. *Address*: New Worli Reclamation, Worli, Bombay.

OSA, MAUNG, I.S.O. (1911), K.S.M. 1899. b. Taunggy, 30 May 1862. *Educ.*: St. Paul's R.C. Sch., Taunggy. Asstt. to Civil Officer; Nungyal Column II, B. Expeditionary Field Force, 1885-87; Burma Medal with clasp, 1885-87. Senior Member, Burma Provincial Judicial ser. since 1911. Interpreter to Prince of Wales during visit to Burma Jan. 1906. Also to three Viceroys, 1898, 1901, 1908; Dist. Judge, 1918; Offg. Divisional Sessions Judge, 1918. Retired, June 1919; Asstt. Dir. Recruiting, July to Dec. 1918. Mentioned in despatches. *Address*: Tintal.

PRADHAN, GOVIND BALWANT, B.A., LL.B. Minister of Excise and Forests, Government of Bombay. b. May 1874. *m.* Ramabai d. of Mr. P. B. Pradhan, retired Assistant Engineer. *Educ.*: B. J. High School, Thana Elphinstone College; and Govt. Law School Bombay. Practised at Thana; became Public Prosecutor of Kolaba, 1907; resigned in 1920; for 20 years a member of Thana Municipality, for several years its Vice-President and for 7 years its elected President. Member of District Local Board, Thana, for 3 years; was one of the Directors of Thana Dt. Co-operative Credit Bank; President Thana Dist. Boy Scout Movement; is one of the Vice-Presidents of the Chandrasena Kayastha Prabhu community elected at the Indore Parishad, elected to the Bombay Council in 1924; re-elected in 1926 by the Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts Non-Mahomedan Rural Constituency and was appointed Minister of Forest and Excise on 20 Feb. 1927. *Address*: Balwant Bag Thana, and "Tintona", Narayan Dabhollar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

PRASAD, GANESH, M.A. (Cantab.), D.Sc., Harting Professor of Higher Mathematics in the Calcutta University; Life President of the Benares Mathematical Society; President, Calcutta Mathematical Society; Patron, Allahabad University Math. Assocn. b. 25th Nov. 1876. *Educ.*: Ballia Allahabad; Cambridge; Göttingen. Member of Court, Council and Senate, Hindu Univ. (1924); Member of Court, Executive and Academic Councils and Faculty of Science, Allahabad Univ.; Fellow of Calcutta University and Vice-President, Indian Association for Cultivation of Science. *Publications*: "Constitution of Matter and Analytical Theories of Heat." (Berlin, 1903); textbooks on Differential Calculus and Integral Calculus (London, 1909 and 1910); "Mathematical Research in the last twenty years" (Berlin, 1922); "The place of partial differential equations in Mathematical Physics" (Calcutta, 1924); and many other original papers published in the mathematical and scientific journals of England, Germany, Italy and India during 1900-1924. *Address*: 2, Samavaya Mansions, Corporation Street, Calcutta; and 37, Benares Cantt.

PRASAD, THE HON. JUSTICE SIR JWALA, B.A., LL.B., Puisne Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916; Acting Chief Justice, 1921. b. 1876. *m.* 1888, d. of Munshi Mangul Sen Singh, Zamindar and retired Dy. Commissioner. *Educ.*: Patna College, Calcutta University; Muir Central College and Allahabad University; Vakil, Calcutta and Allahabad High Courts, Fellow of Patna University Rai Sabeh, 1914; Rai Bahadur, 1915. A2 Chief Justice in 1924. *Address*: Patna.

PRENTICE, WILLIAM DAVID RUSSELL, M.A. (Hon. in Classics), Edinburgh, C.I.E. (1923), I.C.S., Chief Secretary to Govt. of Bengal. b. 5th September 1877. *m.* Florence Mary youngest d. of J. F. Kane (died). *Educ.*: George Watson's College, Fettes, Edinburgh University, and Christ Church, Oxford. *Address*: United Service Club, Calcutta.

AWAN, CHANDRASHEKHARA VINAYAKA, M.A., Hon. B.Sc. (1923), F.R.S. (1924), Palit Professor of Physics, Calcutta University, b. 7th November 1888, m. Lokasundarammal, Educ. A. V. N. College, Vizagapatam and Presidency College, Madras. Enrolled Officer, Indian Police Dept. 1907, Palit Prof., Calcutta Univ. 1927; Hon. Secy., Indian Association to the Advancement of Science, 1919; Hon. Prof. Hindu Univ., Benares, 1917; British Association Lecturer (Toronto), 1924; Fellow of the Institute of Physics, Asiatic Society of Bengal Publications: Experimental Investigations on Vibration; Theory of Bowled Instruments; Molecular Diffraction of Light; Music-Instruments; X-ray Studies, and numerous scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Physics which is conducted by him, and in British and American journals. Address: 210, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta.

AYIA RAYANNINGAR, SRI P. RAJA SRI, PATIL OF PANAGAL, M.A., K.C.I.E. b. 1866, Educ.: Triplicane Hindu High School; Presidency College; was nominated Fellow of the Madras University Represented Zemindars of this Presidency in Imperial Legis. Council from 1912-1915, was invited to Imperial War Conference in 1918; again returned to Imperial Legislative Council in 1919; gave evidence before Joint Committees of Parliament on behalf of All-India Zemindars; presented also the cause of non-Brahmins of Madras. Elected leader of the non-Brahmin Party; President, South Indian Liberal Federation; presided over the All-India non-Brahmin Congress, Amritot, 1925; Chief Minister to Government in charge of Local Self Government, Madras, 1921-26. Address: Tawker's Gardens, Royapettah, Madras.

AYIASWAMI, ATYAR, SRI CHETPAT P & C.I.E. (1925); U.A., B.L. C.I.E. (1923); Law Member, Madras Executive Council, b. 12 Nov. 1879, m. Sri Lakshmi, d. of C. V. Sankarasastry and sister of Justice Kumaraswami Sastri. Educ.: Wesley College, Presidency College and Law College, Madras. English and Sanskrit University Prizeman. Enrolled as Vakil, 1908 and as Advocate, 1923. For many years member of the Madras Corporation and Standing Committee. Fellow and Syndic of Madras University; Trustee of various educational institutions. Member of Congress, before Joint forms, 1919, also before Weston and Southborough Committees. Member of Committee to draft Bill for Madras under the Reform Act. Agency at War to Legislative Council by University of Madras, 1918, and by City of Madras, 1920-1923. Member of the Legislative Assembly of Madras. Vice President, Executive Council, April 1925. Represented India at the League of Nations Assembly at Geneva, 1925.

in 1926 and as delegate in 1927. Published on various pamphlets and articles on Financial and Literary topics. Address: The Grove Cathedral, Madras and De-Lisle, Ootacamund.

RAMCHANDRA RAO, DEWAN RAHADEE M. B.A., B.L., Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, Vakil High Court; Member, Legislative Assembly, b. September 1868, m. Al. Viyyamma, Educ. at Presidency College, Madras. Member Madras Legislative Council, 1924-1928. Member of the deputation of the All-India Moderates in 1919 and Member of the Lytton Committee on Indian Students; Member Indian Sandhurst Committee. Publications: Development of Indian Policy. Address: Ellore, Madras Presidency.

RAMADAS PANTULU, THE HON. V. P. A. B.L., High Court Vakil, Madras, b. Oct. 1873. Educ.: Madras Christian Coll. Member, Council of State since 1925, Leader of the Swarajist Party in the Council of State since 1926; President, Madras Central Urban Bank Ltd. (Provincial co-operative Bank for Madras); President, Madras Provincial co-operative Institute, Member of Senate and Academic Council of Madras University, Chairman, Telugu Board of Studies and Member, Board of Studies and Faculty of Law. Publications: Commentaries on the Madras State Land Act (Land Tenures). Address: Farhatbagh, Mylapore, Madras.

RAMESAM, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE VTPA B.A., B.L., Judge, High Court, Madras, b. 27 July 1875, m. Lakshminarasamma, Educ. Hindu Coll., Vizagapatam; Presidency Coll. Madras, and Law Coll., Madras. Practised as High Court Vakil at Vizagapatam from 1896 to 1900; Govt. Pleader 1916-20. Address: Gopal

RAMPAL, RAJA; see Kutichr.

RAMPUR, COL. H. H. ALIYAH, FARZAND I-DILPURI-D-AL-ULAT-I-INGLISHIA, MUKHLES UD-DAULAH, NASIR-UL-MULK, AMH-UL-UMARA, NAWAB SIR SAYED MOHAMMAD RAMU ALI KHAN RAHADEE, MUSTAID JUNG, G.O.S.I. (1921), G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O.; A.D.C. to King Emperor, b. 31 Aug. 1875, S. 1889. State has area of 892 sq. miles and population of 531,712. Salute of 15 guns. Address: Rampur State, U. P.

RANGACHARIAR, DEWAN RAHADEE TIREVEN KATA, B.A., B.L., C.I.E. (1925), M.L.A. since 1920. Vakil, High Court, Madras, b. 1865, m. Ponnammal, d. of S. Rajagopala Aiyengar or Srihangan. Educ.: S. P. G. College, Chinopoly; Law College, Madras Schoolmaster for 3 years; enrolled as Vakil, High Court, Madras, 1891; Professor, Law Coll., 1898-1900; Member, Madras Corpn., since 1908; Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1918-1919. Member, Indian Bar Committee; Mercantile Marine Committee; Escher Committee. Elected Dy. President, Leg. Assembly, Member, Indian Colonies Committee on deputation at London with the Colonial Office, President, Telegraph Committee, 1921. Member, Frontier Committee.

Madras Publicity Board. *Publications*: A book on Village Panchayats. *Address*: Lighthouse House, Vepery, Madras.

RANGANATHAM ARJUN, B.A., B.L., Minister for Development, Madras 5, 29 June 1879. *Educ.*: Christian and Law Colleges, Madras. Entered Government Service in 1901, resigned Deputy Collectorship in 1915; entered Legislative Council in 1920 for Bellary District, re-elected in 1923 and 1926. Went to England as a member of the National Convention Deputation in 1924. *Publications*: Editor, "Prabandhu", a Telugu Magazine devoted to the education of the Electorate; author of "Indian Village—as it is." *Address*: Olcott Gardens, Adyar, Madras, S.

RANGASWAMI IYENGAR, A., B.A. (1897); B.L. (1901), Editor, *The Hindu*, Madras 6 1877. *Educ.*: Coimbatore High School and the Presidency Coll., Madras. Clerk in the Chief Secretariat; practised as a pleader in Tanjore, joined *The Hindu*, then bought and took up the editorship of *The Swadesandham*, and from Jan. 1928 is Editor of *The Hindu*. Elected to the second and third Legis. Assembly. *Publications*: The Indian Constitution. *Address*: 45, Mowbray's Road, Mylapore, Madras.

RANGASWAMY AYYANGAR, K. V., Landholder and Member of the Council of State from 1920-25, 4. 1888. Member of the old Imperial Legislative Council from 1916-1920, elected by the Zamindars of Madras Presidency, elected representative of the Legislative Assembly from 1926 again by the Madras Landlords, and a Congressman of the Nationalist Party. Connected with the founding and management of National College, Trichinopoly; President of the Onitpur Conference; Chairman of the Madras Prov. Confee, and Trichinopoly Dist. Confee and President, Madras Provincial Conference, 1926. *Address*: Veandeva Vilas, Srirangam, Madras Presidency.

RANGOON, BISHOP OF, since 1910; **BT. REV. ROBERTSON STERRATT FYFE, D.D. M.** 1914. *Annis Kathleen, d. of late Herbert Hardy of Danehurst, Sussex, three s.* *Educ.*: Clifton Coll., Emmanuel Coll., Cam. Ordained 1894. Curate of Bishopwearmouth, Sunderland, 1894-98; Curate of St. Agnes, Bristol; in Charge of Clifton College Mission, 1898-1900; Vicar of St. Agnes, Bristol, 1900-1904. S.P.G. Missionary, Mandalay, 1904-10. *Address*: Bishopscourt, Rangoon.

RANJITSINGH: see Nawanagar.

RANKIN, THE HON. CHIEF JUSTICE SIR GEORGE CHAS. KT. (1923), High Court, Calcutta. 6. 12th August 1877. m. Alice Maud Amy Sayer. *Educ.*: Trinity College, Cambridge. Barrister (Lincoln's Inn) 1904. Practised on Northern Circuit. R. Garrison Artillery 1916-18. *Address*: 9, Carnac Street, Calcutta.

RAO, RAO SAHIB S. M. RAJA RAM, Editor, *The Wednesday Review*, 6. 24th December 1876. *Educ.*: S. P. G. and St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly. Started *The Wednesday Review* in 1905 and *The Zamindar and Progress* (monthly) incorporated into the *Y and Zamindari India* in 1909. *Publ*: Life of Sir Sa la A yar

R.C.L.E. for sometime At. Chief Justice of Madras. *Address*: Trichinopoly and 18 Harrington Road, Chetpet, Madras.

RAO, VINAYAK GANPAT, B.A. (Bom.), 1908 B.A., LL.B. (Cantab), 1913; called to the Bar, 1914. Professor of French at the Elphinstone College, Bombay. 5. 24 September 1888. m. Miss C. R. Kothare, d. of Mr. R. N. Kothare, Solicitor. *Educ.*: Elphinstone Middle School; Elphinstone High School; Elphinstone College; St. John's College, Cambridge, Grenoble University (France). Hon. Professor of French at the Elphinstone College, 1914-1917. Hon. Professor of French at the Wilson College, 1914-1917, 1921-1924. Recipient of the title of Officier d'Academie For some time private Tutor to Hon. Inigo Freeman Thomas, son of Lord Willingdon. Ex-Governor of Bombay; Prof. of Law at the Government Law College, Bombay 1923-1924 (June); Asst. Law Reporter India Law Reports, Bombay Series for some time; joined the Educational Service; Prof. of French at the Elphinstone College from June 1924. Justice of Peace 1927; Co-opted Member of the School Committee, Bombay Municipality, Asst. District Commissioner, Municipal Boy Scouts Association. *Address*: 347, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay (2).

RATNAM, COL. H. H. SIR SAIJAN SINGH K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H.R.H. The Prince of Wales, Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of Ratnam, 6. 13th Jan. 1880. S. father (Sir Ranjit Singh), K.C.I.B., 1893; m. 1902, d. of H.H. Rao of Kutch; descended from younger branch of Jodhpur family, and maintained moral supremacy over Rajput Chiefs in Malwa served European War (France) from April 1915 to May 1918, mentioned in despatches presented with Croix d'officier of the legion d'Honneur. Served Afghan War, 1919. Member of Managing Committee, Mayo College, Ajmer; Mm., Managing Committee, Daly College, Indore; Vice-President Central India Rajputa Hit Karini Sabha Salute 16 guns. *Address*: Ranjit Vilas Palace, Ratnam.

RAWLINSON, HUGH GEORGE, Principal Deccan College, Poona; Fellow, Bombay University, 6. 12th May 1890; m. 1910 to Rose, only d. of Lt.-Col. J. F. Fitzpatrick I.M.S. *Educ.*: Market Bosworth Grammar Sch. and Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge (Exhibitioner and Scholar; B.A., 1st Class; Classical Tripos, 1902; M.A., 1908); Lecturer in English and Classics, Royal College, Colombo, 1908-08; Rare University Prize, 1908. Entered I.E.S. as Professor of English Literature, Deccan Coll., Poona, 1908. Ag. Principal, Gujarat Coll., Ahmedabad, 1914; *ditto*, Deccan Coll.; 1915; Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, 1916; Principal, Karnatak Coll., Dharwar, 1917-23. *Publications*: Bactria, the History of a Forgotten Empire; Indian Historical Studies; Shivaji, the Maratha; Intercourse between India and the West; The Beginnings of British India, an Account of the Old English Factory at Surat; New Edition of Forster's *Raj. Mala*. Contributor to Vol. II of Cambridge History of India. *Address*: College Poona

AY, PRITHWIS CHANDRA, Editor of *The Indian World* (Calcutta). *b.* 1870. *m.* 1888. *Educ.*: Mymensingh Zilla School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Founder of the National Liberal League (the first Indian liberal organisation), Calcutta; Secretary, 21st and 26th Sessions of the Indian National Congress, held in Calcutta in 1906 and 1911; Secretary, Bengal Social Reform Association from 1904 to 1914; Member of the Liberal Deputation to England, 1919, and the Bengal Landholders' Delegate to England in 1920. Donor of a library (in the name of the late Mr. Gokhale) to the Indian Association of Calcutta (1919). Editor-in-Chief of the *Benquees* from January 1921 to June 1924, joined the Swaraj Party in April 1925. *Publications*: "Poverty Problem in India," "Indian Famines," "Our Demand for Self-Government," "A Scheme of Indian Constitutional Reforms," "A Catalogue on Indian Politics" and the "Life and Times of C. R. Das" (Published by the Oxford University Press). Member, National Liberal Club, London, S. W. *Address*: 5, Rife Road, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

AY SIR PROFULLA CHANDRA, Kt., C.I.E., D.Sc. (Edin.), Ph.D. (Cal), Patit Prof. of Chemistry, Univ. Coll. of Sc., Calcutta. *b.* Bengal, 1861. *Educ.*: Calcutta, Edinburgh Univ. Graduated at Edinburgh. D.Sc.; Hon. Ph.D., Calcutta Univ., 1908; Hon. D.Sc., Durham Univ., 1912. President, National Council of Education, Indian Chemical Society; Founder and Director, Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works, Ltd. *Address*: College of Science, Calcutta.

LADYMONEY, SIR JEHANGIR COWASJEE JEHANGIR; see Jehangir.

LEED, SIR STANLEY, Kt., K.B.E., LL.D. (Glasgow), Editor, *The Times of India*, Bombay, 1907-1923. *b.* Bristol, 1872. *m.* 1901, Llian, *d.* of John Humphry of Bombay. Joined staff, *Times of India*, 1897; Sp. Correspdt., *Times of India* and *Daily Chronicle* through famine districts of India, 1900; tour of Prince and Princess of Wales in India, 1905-06; Amir's visit to India, 1907, and Persian Gulf, 1907; Jt. Hon. Sec., Bombay Pres., King Edward and Lord Hardinge Memorials; *Es.* Lt.-Col. Commdg. Bombay L. R. Represented Western India at Imp. Press Confe., 1909. *Address*: *The Times of India*, 187, Fleet Street, London. E.C.

LEID, COLONEL CARTWRIGHT, C.B. (June 1917) M. Inst. C.E., Engineer in Chief, Vizagapatam Harbour. *b.* 7 Nov., 1864. *m.* Julia, only *d.* of late Henry Miller. *Educ.*: Kirkby Lonsdale Grammar School. Articled to Thomas Reid, C. E. Wakefield and Normanton. Entered Admiralty Service (1888) as Asstt. Civil Engineer; served at Pembroke, Halifax, Invermalt and Chatham; was Superintending Civil Engineer, Malta, Chatkam and Rosyth and Deputy Civil Engineer-in-Chief Admiralty Lt.-Col. Royal Marines for reconstruction of Belgian Ports; Acted as a Consultant to Calcutta Port Trust in connection with proposed King George's Dock Scheme and Raza Port re Arab. Loan by A

(1921) for construction of Vizagapatam Harbour. *Address*: Vizagapatam Harbour, Vizagapatam.

REID, SIR WILLIAM JAMES, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Member and Vice-President, Executive Council, Assam. Acting Governor, Assam (1925). *b.* 1871. *Educ.*: Glasgow H. S.; Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge; ent. I.C.S., 1891. *Address*: Shillong, Assam.

REYNOLDS, JOHN RICHARDSON, V.D., C.I.L. (1919), Manager, Bombay Port Trust Railway. *b.* 8 Aug. 1873. *m.* Beryl Margaret, *d.* of J. A. Reinold P.W.D., Bombay. *Educ.*: Fettes Coll., Edinburgh. B. B. & C. L. Railway 1894; Port Trust 1914, I. & R.O. Lieut.-Col. *Address*: Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay.

REYNOLDS, LEONARD WILLIAM, B.A. (Oxon) J.T.E. (1911); M. C. (1916). President of Council of Regency, Jaipur State. *b.* 26 Feb. 1874. *m.* Blanche Mortlock Lias, 1919. *Educ.*: Bradfield Coll., Exeter Coll., Oxford. I.C.S. 1898, Asstt. Collector, Allahabad, Div., U.P. 1902; Asstt. to the A.G.G. in Central India. Asstt. Secretary, Foreign Department, Government of India, 1908; Dy. Secretary, Government of India, Foreign Department, 1911. Commissioner, Ajmer Merwara, 1916; Resident, Western States of Rajputana, 1918. President, Council of Regency, Jaipur State Rajputana, 1921-27; Agent to the Governor General, Rajputana, Chief Commissioner Ajmer-Merwara, 1927. *Address*: The Residency, Mount Abu.

RIEU, THE HON. MR. JEAN LOUIS, I.C.S., C.S.I. (1920). Member of Council, Bombay. *b.* 23 Nov. 1872. *m.* to Ida Augusta Edwards (deceased). *Educ.*: University Coll. School, London and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1893; served as Asstt. Collr. and Collr. in the Bombay Presidency till 1911, when appointed Secy. to Government, General Department; Collr. of Karachi, 1917; Secretary to Govt., Revenue and Financial Departments, 1918; Commissioner in Sind, 1919-1925. *Address*: The Secretariat, Bombay.

RIVETT-CARNAC, JOHN CLAUDE THURLOW, *b.* 1888, *s.* of John Thurlow Rivett Carnac, retired Dy. I. G. of Police. *m.* 1923, Jill Lambert of New York City. *Educ.*: Eastbourne College. Entered Indian Police, 1909; served during War with 13th Bengal Lancers in Mesopotamia (M.C. and medals), awarded King's Police Medal, 1923, is Supt. of Police, United Provinces, and Captain. I.A.R.O. (Cavalry). *Address*: Gonda, U. P.

RIVETT-CARNAC, JAMES THURLOW, I.B., Insp.-General of Police, Calcutta. *b.* 1888, *s.* of J. A. Carnac, 2nd *s.* of J. A. Carnac, Bengal Civil Service, and *gr. s.* of Sir James Rivett-Carnac, Bart., Governor of Bombay, 1898-41. *b.* 1856. *m.* 1887, Edith Emily, *d.* of late H. H. Brownlow and has issue four sons and one daughter. Entered Indian Police, 1877, retired 1911, served in Burma campaign 1886-7 (medal), and in Chin Lusha expedition, 1890-90. *Address*: Shillong, Assam.

ING, N. R. CPOL STANFED
Kassar-Hind Gold Medal (1918); Mission
Priest in Diocese of Bombay; Hon. Canon of
St Thomas' Cathedral, Bombay. b. London.
1858. *Educ.*: Rugby; Solicitors Examina-
tion, London; Cuddesdon College Priest,
1878. *Publications*: Commentaries on the
Psalms, St. Luke and St. John, a Manual
of Theology, Meditations on the Gospel of St.
Mark (all in Marathi) *Address*: Betgeri-
Gadag, Dhairwar District, Bombay.

JOHNSON, JOHN ALEXANDER, Manager,
Mercantile Bank of India. b. 19 March, 1878.
Annabella Rungman. *Educ.*: privately.
1897-1897 in Union Bank of Scotland-Fraser-
burgh, then after in the service of the Mercan-
tile Bank of India. *Address*: Mercantile Bank,
Jinnahow, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

ROBINSON, SIR SYDNEY MADDOCK, KT., Chief
Justice, High Court, Burma (1922). b. 3 Dec.
1860. *Educ.*: Hereford Cath. Sch.; Brase-
nose Coll., Oxford; Called to Bar., Middle
Temple, 1888; Govt. Adv. and Leg. Coun-
cil to Punjab Govt., Puisne Judge, Ch. Court
of L. Burma, 1903-1920; Chief Judge, 1920-
1922. *Address*: 1, Leeds Road, Rangoon.

ROGERS, PHILIP GRAHAM, B.A. (Oxon), O.I.E.
(1924), I.O.S. b. April 3, 1877. *m.* Eirene
Scott O'Connor. *Educ.*: Christ's Hospital,
Kettle College, Oxford. Joined Bengal
Civil Service, December 1901 and served
as Assistant, Joint and District Magistrate
and Collector, Personal Assistant to Ch.
Commissioner of Assam, 1904; Private
Secretary to Lieut.-Governor of Eastern
Bengal and Assam, 1906, joined Post
Office, 1909; Postmaster-General, Bombay,
1922-27.

ROUSE, ALEXANDER MACDONALD, O.I.E.,
I.C.E., Chief Engineer, Delhi. b. 14 Sep.
1878. *m.* Jean Lois Jameson, March 1912;
two s. *Educ.*: St. Paul's Sch.; R.I.E.C.,
Cooper's Hill. *Address*: Delhi.

**ROW, DEWAN BAHADUR CONJEEVERAM KRI-
SHNA-SWAMI**, Vakill, High Court, Madras.
o Aug. 12, 1867. *Educ.*: Presy. Coll., Madras.
m a gr. d. of the late Raja Sir T.
Madhava Row, K.C.S.I., Vakill, Madras
High Court, 1889. Joined Provincial Judicial
Service, 1894; Rao Bahadur in 1911; gave
evidence before the Public Services Com-
mission, 1913. M.L.A. (nominated); acted
as Judge, High Court, Madras, 1921, retired
as District Judge in 1922, rejoined the Bar;
made Dewan Bahadur, 1922; appeared in
the High Court at Madras in 1923 in the
Succession Case relating to the Tanjore
Palace Estate for the Senior Prince of
Tanjore. *Address*: Masihu Baug, St. George's
Cathedral Road, Madras.

**ROW, DIWAN BAHADUR RAGHUNATHA ROW
RAMACHANDRA, C.S.I.**, b. 27 September
1871. *Educ.*: Trivandrum and Presidency
College, Madras. Statutory Civil Service,
1890-92, transferred to Provincial
service; Collector; Registrar, Co-op. Credit
Societies; Secretary to Govt. of Madras.
Collector of Madras. *Address*: Madras.

ROY R. RAY ABRAHAM, Bishop of
tore since 1904. b. 1868 *Address*.

P
Member of the Institute of Electrical Engi-
neers; b. 6 Feb. 1872. *m.* Merla
Goodeve (Chackerbudiy). *Educ.*: Cooper's
Hill. Appointed Assistant Superintendent
of Telegraphs on 1st Oct. 1894; Superinten-
dent of Telegraphs on 4th Nov. 1907; Direc-
tor of Telegraphs on 1st Oct. 1916 and 1st
master-General, Bengal and Assam on 1st Feb.
1920; was Postmaster-General, Burma, from
14th Dec. 1921 to 15th April 1922, Post-
master-General, Bengal and Assam from
1st December 1922 to 25th April 1923.
Dy. Chief Engineer, 1923 to 29th Feb.
1923 to 29th Feb.
Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs
1923-27. *Address*: Simla.

ROY, SURENDRA NATH, SASTRA VACHASPATHI
B.A., B.L. (Calcutta Univ.); Vakill, High
Court, Calcutta, and Landholder. b. Apr.
1862. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College; Hindu
School and Presidency College, Calcutta.
Enrolled as Vakill of the High Court, 1885
enrolled Advocate, 1924; elected Vice-Chair-
man of the Garden Reach Municipality (first
Mill Municipality in Bengal) in 1897 has
been elected Chairman, South Suburban
Municipality since 1900, Commissioner Cal-
cutta Corporation from 1895-1900; Member
Dist. Board of 24 Perganas from 1916
1922; elected Member, Bengal I.C.
Council in January 1913 and elected to Coun-
cil at subsequent elections; elected by the
Members of the Bengal Legis. Council as
President of High Tribes Committee; elected
first Deputy President of the Reformed
Council in Feb. 1921; acted as President from
May 1921 to Nov. 1922; introduced
the Bengal Primary Education Bill in the
Bengal Legis. Council and got it passed by
the Council in 1919. *Publications*: (1) 'A
History of the Native States of India
Local Self-Government in Bengal, Financial
Condition of Bengal, "Suggestions for the
solution of the present Economic problem
etc. *Address*: Behala, Calcutta.

RUNCHOREE, SIR CHINMUL MADHON
LAL, Second Baronet, cr. 1913. b. 18
April 1906. S. of 146 Baronet and
Subchama, d. of Chundil Khushshah &
father, 1916. m 30th November 1924
with Tanumai, d. of Javerlal Bulakhiron
Mehta of Ahmedabad. (Father was first
member of Hindu community to receive a
Baronetcy). *Wife*: Nona. *Address*: "Shan-
tikun", Shahbag, Ahmedabad, Bombay

**RUSHBROOK-WILLIAMS, LAURENCE FRE-
DERIC, M.A., B. Litt. (Oxon)**, 1920. O.B.E.
1920, O.B.E. (1923), Foreign Member, Parli-
am Cabinet. b. 10 July 1891. m. 1923, Fran-
d. of Frederick Chance, one s. one d. *Educ.*
University College, Oxford; Private Study in
Paris, Venice, Rome. Lecturer at Trinity
College, Oxford, 1913, travelled Canada and
U.S.A. 1913; Fellow of All Souls, 1914; at-
tached General Staff, Army Headquarters, India
1916. Professor of Modern Indian History
Allahabad University. 1915-1919 on
special duty with the Govt. of India,
8-8-1919 in India, England and
Official on the Tour of H.E.H.

the Prince of Wales, 1921-22; Secretary to the Indian Delegation at the Imperial Conference, 1923. Director of Public Information, Government of India, to end of 1925. Political Secretary to the Prince of Wales, 1925 and Substituted Secretary. *Publication:* *St. Albans*; Four Lectures on the Handling of Historical Material; Students Supplement to the *Ain-i-Akbari*; A Sixteenth Century Empire Builder: India under Company and Crown; India in 1917-18; India in 1919; India in 1920; India in 1921-22; India in 1922-23; 20-4; 1924-25; General Editor "India of Today" and India's Parliament, Volumes 1, 2, 3, seq. *Address:* Patiala.

ABNIS, RAO BAHADUR SIR RAGHUNATHRAO V. K.T. (1925), B.A., O.I.E. & 1 April 1957. *Educ.*: Rajaram H.S., Kolhapur; Elphinstone Coll., Bombay. *Ent. Educ. Dpt.*: held offices of Deputy Chitnis and Ch. Rev. Officer, Kolhapur; Diwan, Kolhapur State, 1898-1915, retired (1926). Fellow of Royal Soc., of Arts, Asiatic Soc., Bombay Br. *Address:* Shahupuri, Kolhapur.

ACHIN, MAJOR H. H. NAWAB SEEDEN IBRAHIM MOHAMMED YAKUT-KHAN-MUBARZAT DAWALA NASRAT JUNG BAHADUR, NAWAB OF; A.D.C. & 1886, and succeeded as an infant in following year. Installed May 1907; Hon. Captain, 1909; Major, 1921. State has area of 48 sq. miles and population of 60,000. Salute of 9 guns, personal 5 guns extra. *Educ.*: Rajkumar Coll., Rajkote; Mayo Coll., Ajmer; Imp. Cadet Corps. Served G.E.A. in 1914-15. *Address:* Sachin, Surat.

ADIQ HASAN, S. B.A., Barr-at-Law and Member, Legis. Assembly; President of Messrs. K. B. Shaikh Gulam Hussain & Co., Carpet Manufacturers, & 1888. *Educ.*: Amritsar, Lahore and London. President, Muslim League, Amritsar; Municipal Commissioner for last 9 years; takes active interest in Muslim education and Khilafat movement; President, Punjab and N.W.F. Province Iest Office and R. M. S. Association. *Address:* Amritsar.

AGAR, DALA MOTI, RAI BAHADUR. B.A., LL.B. Rai Bahadur (1922); Advocate, High Court of Judicature at Lahore & 23 Nov 1873. *Educ.*: Forman Christian College, Lahore. Passed LL.B. in 1896. Began to practise as a pleader at Delhi in 1897, where he soon acquired a lucrative practice. Shifted to Lahore in the Chief Court in 1915, officiated as a Judge of the High Court in 1911 for 4 months, was appointed an additional Judge of the High Court in 1922; made an Advocate in August 1921; resigned Judgeship and reverted to the Bar in October 1924; appointed Honorary Vice-Chancellor of the Delhi University in May 1926; has been a Fellow of the Punjab University for several years, having been elected by the registered graduates. *Address:* Advocate, Lahore.

AGRADA, RT. REV. EYMANUEL; Vicar Apostolic of Eastern Burma and Titular Bishop of T-ma since 1909 & Lodi 1880 *Address:* T

SAIYID ABDUR RAHMAN, KHAN BAHADUR M.L.C., Retired Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar), & 1884. *Educ.*: St. Francis de Sales, Nagpur. Supdt., Commissioner's Office, Hoshangabad; Extra Asstt. Commissioner, Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar), 1919-1921. Dy. Commissioner, Yeotmal; Per. Asstt. to Commissioner of Berar in C. P. Commission Official Receiver, Berar; President of many Municipalities and District Boards; Berar Mahomedan representative in C. P. Council. *Address:* Akola.

SAILANA, HIS HIGHNESS RAJA SAWAR BHARAT DHARMA NIDHI TILKAT SINGH BAHADUR of & 18 March 1891. Succeeded the Gadi, 14 July 1919. m. first to the d. of H. H. the Maharawat of Partabgarh and after her death to the d. of the Rawat of Meja in Udu pur. *Educ.*: Mayo College, Ajmer. Salute 11 guns. *Address:* Sailana, C. P.

SAIYED MAHMUD PADSHAH, THE HON. SAHIB BAHADUR, B.A., F.A.C., Member Council of State, Vakil & 1887 m. d. of the late Sowar Syed Mir Hussain Saib Bahadur a Mahomedan millionaire of Chittoor. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Madras. Joined the Bar in 1916; became Member of the Reformed Madras Legislative Council, 1921; agitated in the Council for the separation of the Judicial and Executive Functions, the Temperance Movement, encouragement of cottage industries etc. First joined the Council of State in 1924 and got re-elected to it in 1925; became a Fellow of the Andhra University and President of Madras Presidency Muslim League in 1926. Presided over All-India Press Employers Conference held in Calcutta in 1927. *Address:* Bellary.

SAKALVALA, NOWROJ BARUJI, C.I.E. (1928) J.P., Director, Tata Sons, Ltd. & 10 Sept. 1875. m. Goolbai, d. of Mr. Hormasji & Bathivala. *Educ.*: at St. Xavier's College, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1916; Employers' Delegate from India to the International Labour Conference, Geneva; 1922. Assembly representative Association, 1922. Port, Bombay.

SALMOND, SIR GREGORY, K.C.B. (1928) K.C.M.G. (1919); C.M.G. (1919); C.I. (1918), D.S.O. (1917). R.A.F., late R.A. Commanding Air Force in India, & 19 Aug. 1887. s. of Major-General Sir W. Salmond m. 1910, Margaret d. of late William Carr of Ditchingham Hall, Norfolk; one s. three d. *Educ.*: Wellington College; Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. Joined Royal Artillery, 1898; Staff Coll., Camberley 1911-12; served South African War, 1900-1902 (Queen's Medal, seven clasps); China 1900 (medal); European War, 1914-18. G.S.O. 2, R.F.C.H.Q.; Commanded No 1 Squadron, R.F.C., 1915; 5th Wing, 1915-16. R.A.F. Middle East, 1916-21 (K.C.M.G., C.B., D.S.O., despatches, Orders of the Nile and St. Saviour of Greece); Air Member for Supply and Research, Air Ministry, 1922. *Address:* Shering Castle, Simla.

ST. JOHN, LT.-COLONEL HENRY BEAUCHAMP, M.T.E. O.P.R. Agent to the Governor-General Punjab States & 22 Aug 8 m. Oll & d

of Colonel C. Herbett, C.S.I., 1897. *Educ.*: Sandhurst. *Ent. Army*, 1893. *Address*: Lahore.

SAMALDAS, LAURHAT, see MEHTA.

SAMIULLAH KHAN, M. B.A., LL.B., M.L.A. Member; President, Railway Mail Service Association (Branch) Nagpur (1926). *b.* 1889. *m.* Miss Irasunna A. Jahl. *Educ.*: M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Worked on many war committees during the war; Secy., Prov. Khilafat Committee, C.P., 1920-24; Secy., Anjuman High School, Nagpur (1923-); Vice-Presdt., Nagpur Municipal Committee since 1921, one of the secretaries of the Silver Wedding Fund at its start; was Member, All-India Congress Committee and the Central Khilafat Committee from 1921-23; non-co-operated from practice from 1921-23; at present a member of Swaraj party, Whip of the Swaraj Party in the Legislative Assembly, 1925, and a Member of the Executive Committee of the Anjuman High School Institute since 1915. *Address*: Sadar Bazar, Nagpur, C.P.

SAMS, HUBERT ARTHUR, C.I.E. (1919). Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs, April 1927. *b.* 5 May 1876. *m.* Millicent Helen Langford. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School and Peterhouse, Cambridge, B.A., (1907). Entered I.C.S., 1898 Punjab Commission, 1899-1907; P.M.G., 1907; Director of Postal Services, M.L.E., 1917-19; Temp. Lt.-Col., R.E., Aug. 1917-May 1919. Three times mentioned in "The Gazette". *Post-General*, Bombay 1922-23. *Post* 1922-23, 1924. *Office of India* 1924. *c/o* Lloyds Bank, Simla.

SAMTHAR, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR BIR SINGH DEO, MAHARAJA OF, K.C.I.E. b. 8 Nov. 1865. S. 1896. Address: Samthar, Bundelkhand.

SANDERSON, SIR LANCELOT, Kt., K.C., On Justice of Bengal since 1915. *b.* 24 Oct. 1863. *Educ.*: Rhetoric; Harrow; Trin. Coll. Camb. Called to Bar, Inner Temple, 1886; King's Counsel, 1908; M.P. (U.) Appleby Div., Westmorland, 1910-15; Recorder of Wigan, 1901-15. *Address*: 7, Middleton Street, Calcutta.

SANGSTER, WILLIAM PETER, C.S.I., C.I.E. (1915), M.I.C.E., Chief Engineer, Irrigation Works, Punjab. *b.* 23rd June 1872. *m.* Agnes Knox, *d.* of the late Neil Kennedy of Ayrshire, Scotland. *Educ.*: Blaslogdo School in Scotland and at Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill. In 1894 entered P.W.D. (Irrigation Branch, Punjab), India from Coopers Hill College; Rose through the various ranks to Chief Engineer: constructed among numerous other Works the Headworks of the Lower Jhelum Canal, and the Headworks, Main Canal and branches of the Upper Swat Canal, including the Malakand Tunnel. *Publications*: Numerous departmental pamphlets and papers. *Address*: Irrigation Secretariat, Lahore, Punjab.

SANJANA, SHAMS-UL-ULEMA DASTUR DARAB PASHOTAN, B.A., J.P., Senior Head Priest of the Parsis, Bombay. *b.* 18 November 1857. *m.* Shirinbai Rustomji B. Badshah. *Address*: High School, Proprietor.

tary School, and Elphinstone College, Hon. Fellow and Examiner in Avesta and Pahlavi, University of Bombay, since 1887; awarded Sir Jamsetji Fellowship, 1885; and Sir Jamsetji Gold Medal, 1889; Principal, Sir Jamsetji Zarthosti Madressa since 1898. Editor of "Pahlavi Vendidad," "Nirangistan" and "Maimo-i-Kherad," Editor and Translator of "Pahlavi Karname Ardastir," and "Pahlavi Dinkard," of which Vol. 18 was published very recently. Has translated into English German works and papers by Geiger, Spiegel and Windischmann (Clarendon Press Oxford). Has preached a number of religious sermons and published many English and Gujarati essays and papers on Parsi history and religion and on "The Alleged Practice of Consanguinous Marriages in Ancient Iran." "The Position of Zoroastrian Woman in Remote Antiquity and Dastur Tansar's letters to the 'Court of Tabaristan.'" Early in 1926 European and Indian Scholars have issued a Commemorative Volume in Honour of the Dastur, Entitled "Indo-Iranian Studies," *Address*: Gole-reh-treat, Cum balla Hill, Bombay.

SANKARANARAYANA, S., M.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Tinnevely. *b.* 14 May 1866. *Educ.*: Presidency Coll., Madras, Law Colleges Madras and Trivandrum. Graduated in Arts 1920, and in Law 1922. *m.* Rukmani Ammal of Kodanagudi, Tanj. Dist. (1926). Zamindar of Nayinuragaram, Tinnevely District. Proprietor of Kayatar Estate, Tinnevely Dist. Winner of S.P.C.A. Gold Medal 1920. Special Lecturer, Elementary Teachers' Conferences at Tinnevely, 1923. Chairman of the Reception Committee first Tinnevely Postmaster's Conferences 1924. Withness, Tamil University Committee 1927; Author of several articles on Metaphysics, and Education, as "Do Finite Individuals have a substance or an Adjectival Mode of Being," "The Necessity for a Consensus Clause in Indian Educational Institutions," etc. Has contributed much to public discussion on the Madras Univ. Act. Madras Hindu Religious Endowments Act and other enactments of the Legislature. *Address*: Zamindar of Nayinuragaram's Bungalow, Vannarpet, Tinnevely.

SANKARAN NAIK, SIR CHETUR, Kt. or 1912; C.I.E., 1904; B.A., B.L., Member, Council of State, (1925). *b.* 11 July 1857. *Educ.*: Madras Presidency College, High Court Vakil, Govt. Pleader and Public Prosecutor to the Govt. of Madras; Advocate-General Judge, High Court, Madras; for many years a member of Madras Legis. Council; President of the Indian National Congress at Amraoti; President of the Indian Social Conference at Madras; President of the Indian Industrial Exhibition, Madras, Founder and for some time Editor, Madras Review and Madras Law Journal; Member of Governor-General's Executive Council in India, 1915-1919; Mem. of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 1919-1921. Elected Member, Council of State, Nov. 1925. *Address*: Cosmopolitan Club, Madras.

SANT, MAHARAJA SRI JOKAWARSINEJI, RAJA OF b. 24 March 1881 - S. 1896. Address: Santampur Rewa Kantha.

APRU S RETEY BAHADUR MA LL D T G S I (1923). b. 8 Dec. 1875. Widower. *Educ.*: Agra College, Agra. Advocate, High Court, Allahabad, 1896-1926; Member, U.P. Leg. Council, 1918-16; Member, Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20; Member, Lord Southborough's Functions Committee, 1918-1919; Member of Moderate Deputation and appeared as a witness before Lord Selborne's Committee in London, 1919; Member, All-India Congress Committee (1906-1917); Presdt., U.P. Political Confee., 1914; Presdt., U.P. Social Confee. (1913); Presdt., U.P. Liberal League, 1918-20; Fellow, Allahabad Univ., 1910-1920; Member, Benares Hindu University Court and Senate and Syndicate; Law Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, retired (1922). Member of the Imperial Conference in London (1923); presided over the All India Liberal Federation, Poona (1923); Member of the Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924. *Publications*: has contributed frequently to the press on political, social and legal topics; edited the *Allahabad Law Journal*, 1904-1917. *Address*: 10, Albert Road, Allahabad.

JARDAR GHOSH BAKSH KHAN RAISANI, SR., K.C.I.E., premier Chief of Sarawak, Baluchistan.

ARKAR, JADUNATH, M.A. (English Gold Medal), C.I.E., Premchand Roychand Scholar (Mount Gold Medal). Hon. Member of Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain (1923); Sir James Campbell Gold Medalist Bo. Sr. R.A.S., Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University (1926) Indian Educational Service (ret.) b. 10 December 1870, m. Kadamini Chaudhuri. *Educ.*: Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Some time Univ. Professor of Modern Indian History, Hindu University of Benares (1917-19), Reader in Indian History, Patna University (1920-22). *Publications*: *India of Aurangzib*, Statistics, Topography and Roads (1901); *History of Aurangzib*, 5 Vols; *Shivaji and His Times*; *Mughal Administration*; *Studies in Mughal India*. *Anecdotes of Aurangzib*; *Chaitanya: His Life and Teachings*; *Economics of British India*; Edited and continued W. Irvine's *Later Mughals*, 2 Vols. *Address*: Calcutta and Darjeeling.

ARMA, SIR B. NARASIMHA, b. Jan. 1867. *Educ.*: Hindu Coll., Vizagapatam; Rajamundry Coll. and Presy. Coll., Madras. Subsequently teacher Professor, and at the Bar in Vizagapatam and Madras.. Law Member of Governor-General's Executive Council, 1920-25 President, Railway Rates Advisory Committee (1926). *Address*: Simla.

ARMA, S. K. B.A., B.L., Pleader, b. 4 April 1880. *Educ.*: S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly. Founded the *Wednesday Review* in 1905 and Asstt. Editor till 1917. Asstt. Editor and leader writer, *Indu Prakash*, Bombay, 1906-07. Witness Royal Commission On Indian Currency and Finance (1919 and Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee (1924). *Publications*: "Monetary Problems", "A Note on the Rise of Prices in India" and "The Exchange Crisis". *Address*: T. P. P. P. P. O. Trichinopoly.

ARVADRIKARY, SIR DEVA PRASAD, KT., B.L., C.I.E.; M.A., B.L. (Calcutta), LL.D.,

Ab d n LL D s nd y Su r tn (Navadwip), Vidyaratnakar (Dacca), Vidyut Sudhakar (Benares), Jnan Sindhu (Puri) Vakil and Solicitor Fellow, Calcutta University, Benares University, and Delhi University; Dean, Faculty of Arts and late Vice-Chan., Calcutta Univ.; Mem. of Council of State, late member of Indian Legislative Assembly, and Bengal Council, b. 1862 m. 1883, Nagendranandini. 2 s. and 3d. *Educ.* Ramsheshwarpore Sanskrit College, Hare and Howrah Schools. Presidency College, Calcutta. For several years Mem. of Mun. Corp. or Calcutta; Mem. of Imp. Lib. Vice-President Calcutta Rotary Club, S. W. Lodge Anchor and Hope. Trustee, Imp. Museum; Pres., various literary, social and philanthropic societies and President, Calcutta Licensing Board; Calcutta Temperance Federation Anti-Smoking Society "The Refuge"; Calcutta University Corps Committee. Incorporated Society of Law, Vice-President, Indian Association and National Council of Education Sahitya Parishad, Sahitya Society, and Calcutta University Institute of ... and Extracts," "The ... Travels in South Africa. *Address*: Prasadpur, 20, Suri Lane, Calcutta.

SASSOON, SIR (ELIJAH) VICTOR, 3rd Baronet, cr. 1909, b. 30 Dec. 1881. s. of 2nd Baronet and Leontine, d. of A. Levy; s. 18thbr 1924. *Educ.*: Harrow; Trinity College, Cambridge. Chairman E. D. Sassoon & Co. Ltd., etc. late Capt., R.A.F. *Address*: Bombay.

SASTRI, SIR CALAMUR VEDRAVAM KUMARA SAMI, KT. (1924), b. July 1870. *Educ.*: Presy and Law Colls., Madras; B.A. (1890); B.L. (1893), Vakil, 1894, Judge, Small Causes Court, 1905-06; Judge, Madras City Court, 1906-12; District and Sessions Judge, Ganjam, 1912-14; Member of the Rowlett Committee, 1918, Chairman, Labour Committee, 1920; Judge, Madras High Court, 1914-20, Member, Criminal Procedure Code Committee, 1917; Offg. Chief Justice, Madras High Court from July 1926. *Address*: Kalamur House, Madras, N. E.

SASTRI, THE RT. HON. V. S. SRINIVASA, P.C. 1921, b. Sept. 22, 1869. *Educ.*: at Kumbakonam. Started life as a Schoolmaster; joined the Servants of India Society in 1907; succeeded the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale in its Presidentship in 1915; Member Madras Legis. Council, 1918-16; elected from Madras Presidency to Imperial Legislative Council, 1920. *Address*: ... 1918, ... committee on Indian Reform Bill, 1919; served on Indian Railway Committee; represented India at Imperial Peace Confee., 1921, and at the meeting of the League of Nations at Geneva and the Washington Confee. on the reduction of naval armament during the same year. Appointed Privy Councillor and received the freedom of the City of London, 1921 undertook a tour in the Dominions as the representative of Government of India, 1922, elected Member, Council of State, 1921. *Address*: Servants of India Society, Bombay or Poona.

- ANDREWS, COLONEL M. CAV., D.S.O., D.P.H.** Director, Military Intelligence, Army Headquarters, India. *b.* 9 Nov. 1881. *m.* Marjory, *d.* of Francis Bacon. *Educ.*: Malvern College; R.M.A., Woolwich. *Lieut.*, Royal Field Artillery, 1903; *Lieut.*, Indian Army, 1907. *Capt.*, 1912; *Major*, 1918; *Bt.-Lieut.-Col.*, 1919; *Col.* 1923, in India till 1914, except for a year in Russia; *Staff Capt.*, 2nd Royal Naval Brigade, 1914, operations in Belgium and siege of Antwerp; Operations in Gallipoli 1915, from 1st landing to evacuation; *G.S.O.* 3rd in Egypt to March 1916; *Brig-Major*, Eastern Persian Field Force to April 1917; Operations in Mesopotamia, 1917-18; *G.S.O.* 1, 1918; *Officer* with *Major-Gen.* through N. W. Persia. *G.S.O.* 1, Caucasus. *Salonika Force*, 1919 (wounded, despatches four times, *D.S.O.* *Bt. Lt.-Col.*); *P.S.O.* Camberley, 1920; *Military Attache*, Teheran, Persia, 1921-24; *Appointed D.D.M.I.*, Army Headquarters (1924). *Address*: General Staff, Army Headquarters (India), Simla.
- AVANTVADI, HIS HIGHNESS CAPTAIN KHEM SAYANT V. alias BAPUSAHAB BHONSLE, RAJA BAHADUR SARDAR MAHARAJ OF.** *b.* Aug. 20 1897. *m.* Princess Shri Lakshmi Devi of Baroda. *Educ.*: Malvern College, England. Served in the Great War at Mesopotamia from Oct. 1917 to March 1919; attached as *Hon. Officer* to 116th *Mahrattas*. *Address*: Savantvadi.
- COFF, GAVIN, M.A., C.I.E. (1922), I.O.S.** Municipal Commissioner for the City of Rangoon. *b.* 10 Aug. 1876, *m.* Eileen Marie Nolan. *Educ.*: Glasgow University. Joined *I.O.S.*, 1899; posted to Burma, 20 Dec., 1899. *Address*: Kilmorie, 14, Kokine Road, Rangoon.
- DEAL, SRI BRAJENDRANATH, KT. M.A., Ph.D. D.Sc.** Vice-Chancellor, Mysore University, George V., Prof. of Mental and Moral Science, Calcutta Univ., 1914-1920. Extra Member of Council, Mysore Government, 1925-28. *b.* 8 Septem. 1864. *Educ.*: Gen. Assembly Institution, Calcutta University. *Del.*, Orientalist Congress, Rome, 1899; opened a session at 1st Univ. Races Congress, London 1921; *Mem.*, Simla Committee for drawing up Calcutta Univ. Reg., 1905; *Chairman*, Mysore Constitutional Reforms Committee, 1922-23. Author of *New Essays in Criticism*, *Memoir on Co-efficients of Numbers*, *Comparative Studies in Vaishnavism and Christianity*; *Race Origins*, etc. *Address*: Mysore, S. India.
- DELL, REV. CANON E., B.D. (Lambeth), D.D. (Edin.).** *Kaisari-Hind Gold Medallist*, *b.* 1839; *Educ.*: O.M.S. Coll.; London. Arr. in India, 1865; Numerous publications on the history of Islam and on Old Testament Literature. *Address*: Vepery, Madras.
- EN, JYENDRANATH, M.A.;** Calcutta Univ. Sen Prof. of Phy. Sc., City Coll., since 1903; *b.* 1875. *m.* 1899. *Educ.*: Hindu Sch.; Presidency Coll.; City Coll. and Sc. Assoc. Calcutta. *Magdalen Wave Theory of Light and other small* *A*
- 1, Muddug Mohun Sen's Street.** *A*
- SI, RA BAH DUR N'S KANTA, B.A., B.L.** *M.L.A.*, General Manager, Estate, Nuzurgun, Purnea City, and *Vakil*. *b.* 8 March 1868. *m.* Mrs. Sen. *Educ.*: Dacca College. Elected *Bar* in 1894; was *Govt. Pleader* up to 1912; nominated member, Behar and Orissa Leg. Council in 1914; renominated in 1916. Elected Member, Legis. Assembly in 1921, acted for 6 months as member, Special Tribunal during Arrah-Gaya Bakri-d disturbances; was *Vice-Chairman*, Purnea Municipality for 7 years; *Vice-Chairman*, Purnea Dist. Board, for 12 years up to 1921 when elected *Chairman*, Purnea District Board. Again Re-elected as *Chairman*, Dist. Board, Purnea in 1924. *Address*: Sen Villa, Purnea (Bihar).
- SETALVAD, SIR CHIMANLAL HARILAL, K.C.I.E. (1924) I.C.S.** *rt.*, Bon bay *b.* July 1864. *Northern* *Rajins* *Ahmedabad* *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay. *Pleador*, High Court, Bombay; Admitted as *Advocate* High Court; Member, Southborough Reforms Committee, 1918; Member, Hunter Committee, 1919; *Additional Judge*, Bombay High Court, 1920, of Governor of Bor 1923. *Address*: Hill, Bombay.
- SETALVAD, RAO BAHADUR CHUNILAL HARILAL, C.I.E., Bar-at-Law,** formerly *Chief Presidency Magistrate*, Bombay. *Address*: Bombay.
- SETIL, KUNWAR HIRSHESHWAR DAYAL, B.A., M.L.C., F.C.S. (London), M.R.A.S. (London)** *Talukdar* of Muzaffarpur. *Educ.*: at *Cambridge* College Lucknow. Member of the Board of High School and Intermediate Education in U. P.; Member of the Court of Lucknow University, President of the Board of Trustees of Seth Jai Dayal High School Banwan Member of the managing body of Chota Talukdar's School Lucknow; Trustee of Raja Raghubar Dayal High School Sitapur Member of the Board of Agriculture U. P. Member of U. P. Cattle-breeding Committee Member of the Court of Wards Advisory Committee Sitapur; Member of the Executive Committee of British Indian Association of Oudh; Member of the United Provinces Legislative Council as one of the representatives of British Indian Association of Oudh. *How Special Magistrate*. Gave evidence to the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee in 1925. *Address*: Kotra, Banwan, Dist. Sitapur Oudh.
- SETHNA, THE HON. SRI PHIROZE CURSETJER KT., B.A., J.P., O.B.E. (1918);** Member, Council of State, *b.* 8 Oct. 1866. *Manager* for India Sun Life Assurance Co. of Canada; *Chairman*, Central Bank of India, Ltd.; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation; Trustee, City of Bombay Improvement Trust; Trustee, Bombay Port Trust. *Address*: Canada Building, Hornby Road, Bombay.
- SHADI LAL, SRI, M.A. (Punjab), 1895, B.A. Honours (Oxford) 1898; B.C.L. Hon. (Oxford), 1899; Baden Sanskrit Scholar (Oxford) 1896.** *Arden Law* (Gray's Inn), *1899 H* of Council of Legal *Ed* 890 *Special* *m*

Constitutional Law, 1899; Chief Justice, High Court, Lahore, 6 May 1874. *Educ.*: at Govt. Coll., Lahore; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Practised at the Bar 1899-1913; *Off.* Judge, Punjab Chief Court, 1913 and 1914. Permanent Judge, 1917; Judge, High Court, Lahore, 1919; Chief Justice, May 1920. Elected by Punjab Univ. to the Leg. Council in 1919 and 1913. Fellow and Syndic, Punjab University. *Publications*: Lectures on Private International Law, Commentaries on the Punjab Alienation of Land Act and Punjab Pre-emption Act, etc. *Address*: Lahore.

HAFI, MIAN SIR MUHAMMAD, KHAN **BAHADUR, K.C.S.I. (1922); C.I.E. (1916);** D. Litt. (Aligarh); LL.D. (Delhi); Presdt., Punjab National Liberal League, Punjab Muslim League, Anjuman-i-Rafayani Hind and Cosmopolitan Club, Lahore. Pro-Chancellor, Delhi University, 1922-1925, President, Anjuman-i-Himayat-i-Islam, Lahore; Legal Adviser, Bhawalpur State, 10 March 1869. *Educ.*: Govt. College and Forman Christian College, Lahore. Scholar and Barrister, Middle Temple, President All India Urdu Conf., 1911; President Islamic College, Comstock 1907-19; President, All-India Muslim League, 1913. Member, Court of Muslim University, Aligarh; President, All-India Mohammedan Educational Conference, 1916, President, High Court Bar Association, 1917-1919; President, Punjab Prov. Bar Conf., 1919; Member, Punjab Legislative Council and Imperial Legislative Council from 1909-1919; Education Member, Government of India, 1919-22. Vice-President of the Executive Council and Law Member, Govt. of India (1922-24), President, Indian Soldiers' Board 1924 and Punjab Muslim Educational Conference, 1926. *Publications*: "Punjab Tenancy Act with notes," "Provincial and Cause Courts Act with notes" and "Law of Compensation for Improvements in British India". *Address*: "Iqbal Manzil," Mozang Road, Lahore.

HAHAB-UD-DIN CHAUDHRI, KHAN **BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B.,** High Court Vakil. Editor and Proprietor, "Indian Cases," Member, Legislative Assembly for 3 years, President, Municipal Committee, Lahore, for 4 years and elected President, Punjab Legislative Council. Elected President, Punjab Legislative Council in January 1927. *Educ.*: Government Coll. and Law Coll., Lahore. Started Criminal Law Journal of India in 1904 and Indian Cases in 1909. Was first elected member, Lahore Municipal Committee in 1913, President of the Corporation in 1922, Elected member, Punjab Leg. Council, re-elected President, Lahore Municipal Committee, 1924. *Publications*: The Criminal Law Journal of India, Indian Cases and two Punjabi poems. *Address*: "Al-Manzil," 3, Durand Road, Lahore.

HAHANI, SAHIBSING CHANDASING, M.A., Principal, D. J. Sind College, Karachi, Zamindar and Member, Legislative Assembly (1920). b. 1867. m. Rujhi Tejumal. *Educ.*: Munsukhan. *Educ.*: Bombay and Poona. Professor, Wilson College, Bombay 1897-98. Prof. Sind Coll. since 1900. b. 6.

pal, D. J. Sind College, 1916-27; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; President Sind Hindu Association 1925-27; President Sind Hindu Zemindar's Sabha, 1927. *Publications*: Urdu Khayyam; Shah-jon-Rasid; Sind Grasses, Compositae, etc. *Address*: D. J. Sind College, Karachi.

SHAH MOHAMMAD ZUBAIR, Barrister at Law b. 1884 m. d. of Shah Mohammad Ayub of Moughli. *Educ.* Middle Temple, Practised as barrister at Patna 1912-13; at Moultiv 1914-1920. Non-co-operated and gave up practice in 1920. Presided over Annual session of Bihar Provincial Council, in 1925 at Patna, elected President, Bihar Provincial Congress Committee in 1925 and again in 1926, elected to Council of State in November 1926. Resumed practice in Oct. 1927, Elected Chairman, District Board in 1924 and 1927. *Address*: Fort, Moughly.

SHAHPURA, RAJADEHARAJA SIR NAHAR SINGH **K.C.I.E. b. 7 Nov. 1855. S. Shahpura** Gaafdi by right of inheritance, 1870. *Address* Shahpura, Rajputana.

SHAKESPEAR, ALEXANDER BLAKE, C.I.E. Merchant; partner in firm of Begg, Sutherland & Co. b. 1873. *Educ.*: Berkhamstead Was Sec., Upper India Chamber of Commerce 1905-12. *Address*: Cawnpore.

SHAMSHER SINGH, SIR SARDAR, SARDAR **BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.; Ch. Min., Jind** State. b. 1860. *Educ.*: Jullundur and Hoshiarpur H. S. and Govt. Coll., Lahore. Served during Afghan War, 1878-80, with march from Kabul to Kandahar; Ch. Jud. or State High Court, 1899-1903. *Address* Sangrur, Jind State.

SHANKARSHASTRI, NARASINGHSHASTRI **PANDIT JOTIRMAREND, Astronomer, Astro-** loger and Landlord, b. 19 Dec. 1844, m. Anna Purnabai, d. of Vedamurti Chendramadhar of Lakshmeshwar Miraj Senior. *Educ.*: Bolaratti, Taluka Haveri, Dhawar. Compiler of the Annual Indian Calendar known as "Hosentti Panchang"; Publisher of the annual general predictions; *Publications*: Annual Indian Calendar; Munim-Dipika in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology); Kalachandrika in Sanskrit Sanhita Tajak-Sara (a treatise on Astrology) with Commentary in Marathi. Dahanja Ramnagar in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology); Gniha Ratna Mala in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astronomy), and booklets regarding the administrations of H. E. Lord Irwin, Viceroy of India and of H. E. Sir Leslie Wilson, Governor of Bombay, and Life of Pant Dale-Kumari Maharaj of Belgaum. *Address* Haveri, Taluka Haveri, Dhawar Dist.

SHASTRI, PRABHU DUTT, Ph.D. (Kiel), B.Sc. Litt. Hum. (Oxon.), M.A. B.T., Hon. M.O.L. (Punjab); Vidyasagar (Calcutta); Shastri Vachaspathi (Nadul); I.E.S.; Sen. Prof. of Mental and Moral Phil. in Presidency Coll., Calcutta, 1912-1926; off. Principal, Moughli Govt. College, 1927. b. 20 June 1885. *Educ.* Universities of Lahore, Oxford, Kiel, Bonn and Paris. Del. to and Sectional Pres. at 4th Int. Congress of Phil. held at Bologna, 1911. Head of Dept. of I. since 91.

St Paul's School and Magdalen College, Harriette May Shettle of Toronto, U.S., 1901. Served 1910. Transferred to Bihar and Govt. in Financial and Municipal Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi Secretary to Govt. of Bihar 1925-27. Address: Ranchi, Bihar.

RAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR YAL K.O.I.E. (1928). b. 26 Oct. Maharaja Sir Thutob Namgyal of Sikkim, m. grand daughter Sholokhang (Regent of Tibet). Coll., Ajmer; St. Paul's Sch., Darjeeling. Address: The Palace, Gangtok, Sikkim.

BISHOP OF, since 1911, MOST REV. J. KENEALY. b. 1861. Entd. Order, 1879; Priest, 1887; Franciscans, Cawley, Sussex, later Provincial for England, Director of the Franciscan College, Oxford, 1906; elected life member of the Order, 1907; Definitor-General Rome English-speaking provinces, 1908; General, Irish Province, 1910. Address: Bishop's House, Simla E.

REVOR CLAUDE, C.I.E., King's College (1919), C.I.E. (1927), Inspector of Police, Bengal. b. 9th February 1871. St Paul's School, London, W. joined the Indian Imperial Police by order of State after open competition in London in Novr. 1896: 1st of Police, 1906; Inspector of Police, 1919; Inspector-General of Police, 1923. Address: 16, Harrington Mansions, London.

MR BAWA JIWAN, C.I.E. (1918). b. 6 May 1863. Educ.: Government Medical Colleges, Lahore and St. Paul's Medical School, London. 1891 Served in Military Department as Civil Surgeon, Meiktila, 1896; G. Prisons, with Civil Medical Officer, Burma, 1897-1899. Supt. of Prisons, Burma, from 1899 to 1909; 1st of Prisons, E. Bengal and Assam, 1912. Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, Assam, from 1912-1920; Director, Sanitation Departments, H. E. H. Govt., 1920-23; and Director, Prisons and Jail Depts., H. E. H. Govt., 1923-24. Address: 1, Nagpur.

U. BAKSHI RAGHUBIR, RAO (1925), C.S.I., Retired Finance Member of State Council, 1883. Educ.: privately. Served hereditary jagir, Sardar's allowance from the State. Entered State service at an early age. Member of the Council of Sardars in the time of Maharaja Jaswant Singh Bahadur subsequently appointed guardian to the Minor Maharaja of Indian Students' Advisory Board for Rajputana and Ajmer. Address: Bharatpur.

SINGH, GAYA PRASAD, B.A., B.L., M.L.A. Pleadar, Muzaffarpur. Educ.: Muzaffarpur and Calcutta. Was a sub-deputy magistrate and collector for a few years but resumed subsequently; now practising as a pleader: was a member of the Muzaffarpur Municipal Board of the Sudh. and of the Local Assembly since 1924. Address: Muzaffarpur (Bihar).

SINGH, RAJA SURJ BAKSH, O.B.E. (1919), Taluqdar of Oudh. b. 15 Sept. 1868. m. grand daughter of Raja Gangaram Shah of Khairgarh (Oudh). Educ.: at Sitapur and Lucknow. Vice-President, British Indian Assocn. of Taluqdars of Oudh. Member, first Leg Assembly. Publication: "A Taluqdar of the Old School" by "Heliogorus" and "Arbitration." Address: Kanlapur P. O., Sitapur Dist. (U.P.).

SINGH, THE HON. SIRDAR JOGENDRA, Member of Council of State. Taluqdar, Aira Estate, Khori District. Minister of Agriculture (1928). b. 25 May 1877. m. Winifred May O'Donoghon. Contributes to several papers in India and England. Has been Home Minister, Patna State. Fellow of the Punjab Univ.; Presdt. of Sikh, Educ. Conree., served on India Sugar Committee. Member, Indian Taxation Enquiry Commission: Editor of *East and West*. Publication: "Kamla"; Nurjahan; Nasrin. Life of B. M. Malahari. Address: Aira Holme Simla (East).

SINGH, KUNWAR MAHARAJ, M.A. (Oxford), Barrister-at-Law. C.I.E. b. 17 May 1878, m. to Mrs. Maya Das, d. of the late Rai Bahadur Maya Das of Meerapur (Punjab). Educ.: Harrow Ball. Coll., Oxford; Barrister-at-Law, Middle Temple, 1902. Ent. Prov., C.S.U.P. as Dy. Coll., 1904; Asst. Sec. to Govt. of India Dept. of Education, 1911; Mag. and Coll. of Hamirpur, U. P., 1917. Secy. to U.P. Govt., 1919; Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India Education Dept., 1920-23. Dy. Commissioner, Balaich 1923 Commissioner, Allahabad 1927. Publications: Annual Report on Co-operative Credit Societies in the U.P., 1908-1909; Reports on Indian Emigration to Mauritius and British Guiana and various contributions to the press. Address: The Manor, Simla.

SINGH, SIR RAMESHAR, G.C.I.E., K.B.E. D.Litt. Maharajadhiraja of Darbhanga; Mem., Exc. Council, Bihar and Orissa, (1912-1917). Mem. of Imp. Council, 1899-1900. b. 16 Jan. 1860. Twice married; two s. one d. b. Maharaja Bahadur Sir Lakshmeshwar Singh, G.C.I.E., made hereditary Maharaja Bahadur, 1907. hereditary Maharajadhiraja, 1920. Educ. Queen's Coll., Benares; privately; Life-Pres., Behar Landholders Assoc., Mithel Mahasabha Bharat Dharma Mahamandal and also Pres. Hindu Univ. Soc., Behar Panchayat Assoc., etc. A member of the Indian Police Commission and of Indian Famine Trust; Pres., Prince of Wales Reception Committee for Bengal, 1903; Indian Industrial Conference, 1908, Religious Convention held at Calcutta, 1910, and Allahabad, 1911; All-India Hindu Conference, April 1915, All-India Landholders

Assoen. and Bengal Landholders' Assoen. Member, Council of State, since 1920. *Address*: Darbhanga.

SINGH, COL. MAHARAJ, SRI SIR BHAIRUN BHADUR, K.C.S.I., A.D.C.; Vice-Pres. of State Council, b. 1879; s. of Maharaj Sri Khet Singhji Sahib and c. of H. H. the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of Bikaner. *Educ.*: Mayo Col., Ajmer. *Address*: Bikaner, Rajputana.

SINGH, THE HON. RAJA SIR RAMPAL, K.C.I.E., (1916). Member, Council of State, Taluqdar. b. 7 Aug. 1847, m. niece of Thakur Jagamohan Singh, late Taluqdar of Dhanawan Estate in Gonda Dist. *Educ.*: at Rae Bareilly High School and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. President-elect of the second U. P. Social Conference held in Lucknow in 1908 and of All-India Social Conference in 1910; presided over 5th All-India Hindu Conference at Delhi in 1918; elected President, British Indian Association of Oudh in 1921 and was re-elected in 1924. Was Fellow of Allahabad Univ. until 1909 and is Secretary of Kshatriya College, Lucknow; Member of the Executive Council of the Lucknow University and of the Court of the Hindu University of Benares. President of the Trust for the Bhadri Estate and of the Board of Directors of Mahaluxmi Sugar Corporation, Lucknow, also Director of the Allahabad Bank. *Publications*: Pamphlets entitled "Taluqdars and the British Indian Association" (1917), and "Taluqdars and the Amendment of Oudh Rent Law" (1921); and contributions to the press on social, political and religious topics. *Address*: Kurri Sadauli Rd., Dist. Rae Bareilly, Oudh.

SINGH, BEOHAR RAGHURAJ; Zamindar and Jagirdar. *Educ.*: Government College, Jabalpur. Hon. Magt., 2nd Class, sitting singly, has been member of the C.P. Council on behalf of Zamindars for two terms; elected Member, Legislative Assembly on behalf of C.P. Zamindars. Title Beohar recognised by Government, as hereditary distinction Khos and Ann Darbari of H.E. the Governor, C.P. exempted from Arms Act. *Publications*: Hindi Shastra Siddhanta Sar. *Address*: Jabalpur.

SINGH, THE HON. MR. ANUGRAH NARAYAN, M.B.B.L., Zamindar, July 3, 1880. *Educ.*: Patna and Calcutta. Joined the High Court, Patna, as Vakil; appeared in the famous "Burma Case" of the Durman J. as junior to Mr. C. R. Das. Sir Shivaya Agarwal and the late Sir Ashutosh Mukherji, found Non-Cooperation Movement 1912, at present Chairman of Gaya District Board and Member Council of State representing Bihar and Orissa; Chairman, Reception Committee of the All-India Untouchable Conferences held at Patna in 1926. *Publications*: Translated History of Ancient Magadh from Bengali into Hindi. *Address*: VIII Town, P. O. Aurangabad, Dist. Gaya (Bihar and Orissa).

SINGH, KUMAR GANGANAND, M.A. (1931); M.L.A., Hon. Research Scholar of the Calcutta University, (1922-23). Proprietor, Srinagar Raj. b. 24 Sept. 1898. *Educ.*: at Moughs Zilla School 1917. b. 1917. 7th School Presidency College. a Government Sanskrit

Coll., Calcutta; and Post-Graduate Department, Calcutta University. Elected to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland in 1921; Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1922, Bihar and Orissa Research Society in 1924 and to the Fellowship of the Royal Society for the encouragement of arts, manufacture and commerce, etc. in 1923. a commissioner of the Purnea Municipality and a member of the Purnea District Board (1904-37); President of the Social and Religious Department of the Mathil Sammelana, one of the founders of the Nationalist Party in the Legislative Assembly. Joined the Swarajya Party in the Assembly (1925) President of the Purnea District Congress Committee 1925-26. President of the Bihar Provincial Hindu Sabha, Member of the Executive Committee of the All-India Hindu Sabha. President of the Bihar Provincial Kavi Sammelana (1926). *Publications*: "The Place of Vidya in the Ancient and the Medieval India" (read in the second Oriental Conference); "A Note on the Janaka Dasa" and "Discovery of Bengali Dramas in Nepal" and "On some Mathil Dramas of the seventeenth and eighteenth Centuries" (published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal); "Is Dharmat religion Buddhism?" (read in the third Oriental Conference, Madras, 1921) joint editor of the typical selections from Mathil proposed to be published by the Calcutta University, an Editor of the "Bauhit Inscriptions" published by the Calcutta University in 1926 and author of several works under preparation. *Address*: "Srinagar Barbar," P.O. Srinagar, Dist. Purnea, (Bihar).

SINGHA, THE HON. LALA SURENDRA, Land lord, Jaguadar, and Banker b. 5 Jan. 1868. *Educ.*: Agra College. Member, U. P. Legislative Council from 1909-1920; Member, Council of State from 1920-26 when re-elected to the same Council from the four Northern Divisions of the Agra Province; Hon. Secy. U.P. Zamindar's Association; President Rikhtal Assam and founder Ayurvedic College Hardwar Member (1) Indian Central Cotton Committee (2) Board of Agriculture, U.P. (3) Member, Hardwar Improvement Committee; (4) Patron, Edward High School Muzaffarnagar Director of the Muzaffarnagar Bank, Ltd., Ex-General Secretary All-India Hindu Sabha and Ex-Economy Secretary, Meerut College. Member, U.P. Cattle Breeding Committee. *Publications*: Translation of the "Gita" and "Yoga Patanjali" in Hindi. *Address*: "Anandbhawan" Muzaffarnagar, U. P.

SINGHA, NARENDRA PRASADNA, Major, I.M.S. retired; Consulting Physician; Mem., Advisory Council, India Office, b. 30 Sept. 1858. *Educ.*: Calcutta; Univ. Coll. London. The I.M.S., 1886; retired 1905.

SINGHA, THE HON. MR. SACHCHIDANANDA Barrister, First Indian Finance Member Ex-Member, Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1921-1926 also President of Legislative Council 1921-22 b. 10 Nov. 1871. m. the late Sri n. ti Ra. and o. the late M. S. Raj of Lalpur. *Educ.*: Patna College

and City College, Calcutta. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1893; Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1893; Allahabad High Court, 1896; Patna High Court, 1916. Founded and edited *The Hindustan Review*, 1899-1921. Twice Elected Member Imperial Legislative Council, Elected Legislative Assembly, 1920, also elected its first Deputy President, Feb. 1921. Established and endowed in 1924 the Srimati Radhika Institute in memory of his wife, which building contains, besides the largest public hall in Patna, the Sachchi Gopintha Sinha Library, a splendid collection of classical and current works in English. Visited England in 1927 where he in writings and speeches made notable contributions to the discussion of Indian Reforms as embodied in the system known as Dyaichiy. *Publication*: "The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Behar." *Address*: Patna, Behar and 7, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

II DADR ALI KHAN, SYED, created Nawab Nawaz Jung Bahadur, 1921; Postmaster-General of H.E.H. the Nizam's Dominions since 1922. b. 20 March 1879; *et. surviving* of late Nawab Sinder Diler Jung, Sardar Diler-ud-dowla, Sardar Diler-ul-mulk Bahadur C.I.E., some time Home Secretary at Hyderabad. m. 1896; four s. one d. *Educ.*: privately. Entered the Nizam's service, 1911; has held several responsible positions, including the Commissionership of Gulbarga Province, presented Georgian and Queen Mary Historical Furniture to the National Collection at Victoria Memorial Hall, Calcutta, 1908. *Publications*: Lord Curzon's Administration of India 1908, Historical Furniture, 1908; Life of Lord Morley, 1927; The Way of Reading, 1924, contributions to the English and Indian Press with regard to the Indian political situation. *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.

IRMOOR, LIEUT.-COL. H. H. MAHARAJA SIR AMAR PRAKASH BAHADUR, K.O.S.I., K.O.I.E. b. 26 Jan. 1888, m. d. of the late His Excellency Maharaja Deb Shamshat Jung, Rana Bahadur ex-Prime Minister of Nepal in 1910. *Educ.*: under European and Indian Private tutors. *Address*: Sirmoor, Nahau.

IROHI, H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJ, MAHARAJA SIR SARUP RAM SINGH BAHADUR, K.O.S.I. b. Sept. 27, 1888. s. to the gadi, April 29, 1920. *Address*: Sirahi, Rajputana.

ITAMAU, H. H. SIR RAJA RAM SINGH, RAJA OF, K.O.I.E. b. 1889; descended from Rathor House of Kachi Baroda. m. thrice. *Educ.*: Dely Coll., Indore, Hindi and Sanskrit poet, and keen student of science and ancient and modern philosophy, is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. S. by selection by Govt. of India in default of direct issue, 1900. *Address*: Ramnivas Palace, Sitamau, C. I.

IVAGNANAM PILLAY, THE HON. BEWAS BAHADUR SIR TINNEVELLY NELLAIAPPA, B.A., b. 1 April, 1861. *Educ.*: Madras Christian College, service under Government; Retired as Dy. Collector; President, Dist. Board, Tinnevely 1920-21. *Address*: 10, De-
ment, Madras, 1923-24. *Address*: 77, North Car Street, Tinnevely.

SIVASWAMI AYYAR, Sir P. S., K.O.S.I. 1915; C.S.I. (1912); C.I.E. (1908) Retd. Member, Executive Council, Madras b. 7 Feb. 1864. m. no c. *Educ.*: S. P. G. College, Tanjore; Government College, Kumbakonam; Presidency College, and Law College, Madras, High Court Vakil, 1885; Asstt. Professor Law College, Madras, 1898-99; Joint Editor, Madras Law Journal, 1893-1907; first Indian Representative of the University of Madras in the Madras Legislative Council, 1904-07 Advocate-General, 1907; Member of Executive Council, Madras, 1912-17; Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras, 1918-18, Vice-Chancellor of Denares Hindu University, 1918-19, Elected to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the districts of Tanjore and Trichinopoly, 1920; President of the Second and ninth Sessions of the National Liberal Federation at Calcutta, 1919; and Akola 1920 Member of the Indian Delegation at the Third Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva, 1922. Nominated Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1924. *Address*: Sudharma Edward Elliot Road, Mylapore, Madras.

SKEEN, LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR ANDREW, K.O.D. (1925), K.O.I.E. (1920), C.M.G. (1916), Chief of the General Staff, India. b. 20 Jan. 1873. *Address*: Army Headquarters Delhi and Simla.

SMITH, SIR HENRY MOSCHIEFF, Kt. (1923) C.I.E. (1920), President, Council of State (Dec. 1924), b. Dec. 23, 1873. *Educ.*: Blundell's School, Tiverton, Sidney Sussex Coll., Cambridge, I.C.S., 1897. Assist. Commr. in U.P. Dist. and Sessions Judge, 1908; Addl. Sec. to U.P. Govt., 1914; Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India, 1915; Joint Sec., 1919. Secretary, Council of State, 1921-23; Sec. to Govt. of India, Leg. Dept., and Secretary, Leg. Assembly, 1921-24. *Address*: Simla or Delhi.

SMITH, SIR THOMAS, Kt. (1921), V.D. (1914) Chevalier of the Order of the Crown (Belgium) (1918). Managing Director, Muir Mills Co., Ltd., Cawnpore. b. 28 Aug. 1875. m. Elsie Maud, d. of Sir Henry Ledgerd in 1907; 2 s. 1 d. Member of the Hunter Committee on Punjab disorders, 1919. Presdt., Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1918-1921; Member, U. P. Leg. Council, 1918-20; Fellow of Allahabad University, 1918-22; Commandant, 16th Cawnpore Rifles, 1918-22 Representative of Employers in India at International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921. *Address*: Westfield, Cawnpore, and Merlewood, Virginia Water, Surrey.

SOAMES, GEOFFREY EWART, B.A. (OXFORD) C.I.E. (1927), I.C.S., Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam. b. 11 Jan. 1881 in Una Swath (1915). *Educ.*: Eastbourne College and Merton College, Oxford. But a Indian Civil Service, began service in 1901 in the Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam and the Province of Assam later.

constitution of the Provinces. *Address*: Hilton, Assam

LA, THE REV MARYAN, S. J., PH. D., M.A., former Principal of the Ateneo de Manila institution from 1916-1920. Professor of Logic and Philosophy at St. Xavier's College, Bombay. b. Nov. 7, 1872 in the province of Barcelona, North of Spain. Ordained at St. Louis, Mo. U. S. A. in 1906. *Educ*: Vienna and at St. Louis University, Mo. U. S. A. Went to the Philippines. On the staff of the Manila Observatory under the Spanish and the American Governments from 1897 to 1903. A Delegate to the World's Fair held in St. Louis, U. S. A., in 1904. Prof. for several years at the Ateneo de Manila, Philippines, and Principal of that Institution from 1916 to 1920. On the Staff of St. Xavier's College, Bombay, since 1922. *Publications*: Author of "The Meteorological Service of the Philippine Islands." "A study of Seismic Waves". Contributor to the monthly review "Razon y Fe" edited in Madrid. *Address*: St. Xavier's College, Trunkshank Road, Fort, Bombay

RABJI, CORNELIA; Kaiser-i-Hind Gold 1st class medal (1909). Legal Adviser to Purdandashins, Court of Wards, Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and Assam, and Consulting Counsel. *Educ*: Somerville Coll., Oxford, Lee and Pemberton's, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London; Bachelor of Civil Law Examination, Oxford, 1892; obtained special privileges, Lincoln's Inn, London, 1903; propounded in 1902 scheme to India Office for connecting Woman Counsel with Prov. Exec. Govts. of India; in 1904 app. by Govt. of Bengal to position she now holds. *Publications*: *Sun-Babies* (1904); *Between the Twilight* (1908); *The Purdandashin* (1916); *Sun-Babies* (2nd Series Illustrated) 1920; contributions to the *Nineteenth Century*, *Westminster Gazette*, *The Times* and other newspapers and Magazines. *Address*: Board of Revenue, Calcutta.

PFYCE, SIR REGINALD ARTHUR, Kt., Managing Director, Philipson & Co., Ltd. b. March 1, 1850. *Educ*: Christ's Hospital. Arrived in India Feb. 1901 formerly Lieut. Bombay Light Horse; Hon. Secretary, Bombay Natural History Society and Pechey Philipson Sanitarium, Nasik; Hon. Treasurer, Bombay Education Society; Vice-Prest., Bombay B. P. Boy Scouts Association; Dy. Dist. Grand Master Masons, E. C., Bombay and Dist. Grand Mark Master, E. C., Bombay; was member Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923; Editor, Journal of Bombay Natural History Society. *Address*: Byculla Club, Bombay.

SPENCER, HON. JUSTICE SIR CHARLES GORDON, Kt. (1925), I.C.S., Bar-at-Law, Puisne Judge of Madras High Court, since 1914 Officiated thrice as Chief Justice. b. 23 Feb. 1869, m. Edith Mary, 3rd d. of Brig. General H. P. Pearson, C. B. *Educ*: Marlborough; Keble Coll., Oxford; Lincoln's Inn. Rut. I.C.S. 1888. *Address*: Rutland Gate N. Madras

SRINIVASA RAO, RAI BARADUR PATRIVEN KATA, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Guntur and Member, Legis. Assembly. b. 1877 m. to d. of Rao Chhabadur Baru Ramamanna Pantulu Gara. *Educ*: Town High School and Christian Coll. Cocanada Bar Vice-President Guntur Dist. Board, for 8 years; was Municipal Councillor for some years; was member Kistina Flood Committee; Secretary of the First Dt. Congress Committee. *Address* Guntur.

STANDLEY, ALFRED WILLIAM EVANS, Associate of Coopers Hill College, Member of Council of the Institution of Engineers (India); Chief Engineer and Secretary, P. W. D., Bikaner State. b. 20 Nov. 1866. m. Una, d. of H. F. D. Bunington, I.C.S. (ret'd). *Educ*: Royal College of Mauritius and then at Royal Indian Engineering Coll., Coopers Hill. Joined P. W. D. in U.P., Irrigation Branch, as Asstt. Engineer in 1891; Construction of Gangao Dam, Upper E. J. Canal in 1895 services lent to Benares Municipality in 1896 as Resident Engineer for construction of drainage and sewerage and water-works. Promoted Ex. Engineer in 1899; services lent to Bikaner State, 1902-06, during which several irrigation schemes, water works and central electric power station were designed and constructed; also originated the investigation of the feasibility of irrigating the North tracts of the State from the Sutlej river which has eventually led to Bikaner getting a share of the water in the Sutlej Valley Project now under construction; Sanitary Engr. to Govt. U.P. in 1903 and 1909. Promoted to Superintending Engineer, 1912, and then Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government P.W.D., Irrigation Branch, U.P. in 1918 and retired in 1921. *Publications*: Papers on "Subsoil Percolation" and "Flood Absorption of Reservoirs" in the Journal of the Institution of Engineers (India), Vol. II. *Address*: Bikaner, Rajputana.

STEIGT, ... (University of ... Physics. b. 17 January ... of Luxemburg, Theological Studies in the Society of Jesus. Scientific training in the University of Göttingen. Professor of Physics, St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay. *Publications*: Contributions to various scientific journals. *Address*: St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay.

SPEIN, SIR AUREL K.O.L.E., Ph.D., D. Litt (Hon. Oxon.), D. Sc. (Hon. Camb.), D. O.L. (Hon. Punjab); Fellow, Brit. Acad., Correspondant de l'Institut de France, Gold Medalist, R. Geogr. Soc. etc.; Indian Archaeological Survey, Officer on special duty. b. Budapest 26 Nov. 1862. *Educ*: Budapest and Dresden studied Oriental Languages and Antiquities at Vienna and Tübingen Universities and in England, 1888-99. Principal, Oriental College and Registrar, Punjab University; app. to I. E. S. as Prince of Calcutta Madrasah, 1899 Inspector-General of Education, N. W. P. and Baluchistan 1904. Carried out ... cal explorations for Indian Govt., in Oudh.

- Turkestan, 1900-1, and in C. Asia and W. China, 1906-08; transferred to Archaeological Survey, 1909; carried out geographical and archaeological explorations in C. Asia and Persia, 1913-15. *Publications*: *Kalhana's Chronicle of the Kings of Kashmir*; Sanskrit text, 1892; trans. with commentary, 2 vols., 1900; *Sand-buried Ruins of Khotan*, 1903; *Ancient Khotan*, 1908 (2 vols.); *Ruins of Desert Caravan*, 1912 (2 vols.); *Serindia*, 1921 (5 vols.); *The Thousand Buddhas*; *Memor on Maps of Chinese Turkestan and Kansu* (2 vols.), and numerous papers on Indian and Central Asian Archaeology and Geography. *Address*: Simnagar; E. I. United Service Club, London.
- FEYENS, LE-COL. CECIL ROBERT, I.M.S., M.D., B.S., Lond., F.R.C.S., Rag., Prof. of Clinical and Operative Surgery, Medical Coll., Calcutta. 14 Mar. 1887. *Educ.*: Malvern Univ. Coll., London; St. Bartholomew's. *Address*: 5, Middleton Street, Calcutta.
- SEWART, DAVID MACFARLANE, C.I.E., (1927), M.A., Indian Civil Service. b. 31 Oct. 1878. m. Louisa Tolme Longmuir. *Educ.*: Hutcheson's Grammar School, Glasgow, Glasgow Univ., and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. District Officer, Settlement Officer, and Provincial Training Officer (Civil Service) in the United Provinces. *Address*: Moradabad.
- STILEMAN, CYRIL GEORGE, M. INST. C.E., M.I.C.E., (Ind.). Representative, Sir Alexander Gibb & Partners, Consulting Engineers. b. 7 October 1880. m. Lilian Mylani, d. of the late Capt. Evan Thomas, R. N. *Educ.*: The Abbey School, Beckingham, and Burney's Royal Naval Academy, Gosport. Articled pupil to his father Frank Stileman, M.I.C.E., 1899-1903 and employed on the construction of Railways and Docks with the Furness Railway Company; Assistant Engineer, Bombay Port Trust, 1903-1910; Executive Engineer, Bombay Port Trust, 1910-18; Deputy Chief Engineer, Construction, Bombay Port Trust, 1918-1922. Appointed Sir Alexander Gibb & Partners' Representative in the East, 1924. *Address*: c/o Sir Alexander Gibb & Partners, 41, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay, and Queen Anne's Lodge, Westminster, London, S. W. I.
- STILL, CHARLES, C.I.R.; Indigo Planter. b. 1849. *Educ.*: privately. *Address*: Sathi Factory, Champaran.
- STOKES, HOPKINSON GABRIEL, C.I.E., B.A. m. Alice Henrietta, d. of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, Bart., Decr. 1922. 1st Member Madras Board of Revenue, 1925; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1903-11; Fin. Dept., 1911-13; Fin. Mem., Imp. Delhi Committee, 1914-15; Priv. Sec. to Govr. of Madras, 1915; Pol. Ag., Ranganapally, Madras; Secy. to Madras Govt., Local and Municipal Dept., 1918-19; Administrative Adviser, Klagenfurt Plebiscite Commission, 1920; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1921; Secy. to Madras Govt., Development Dept. 1922; 3rd Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1924. *Educ.*: Clifton; Oriel Coll., Oxford Ent. 2 C.S. 1896. *Address*: c/o Birm. & Co. Madras.
- STONE, EDWARD WALLER, C.I.E., M.E. M.I.C.E.; M.Inst.C.E.; late Ch. Eng. of Madras Ry. (retired), 1904; 4th s. of late T. G. Stoney, J.P., of Kyle Park and Arranhill, Co. Tipperary, Ireland; m. 1875; Scholar, Gold Medalist and M. B., Queen's University, Ireland; Fellow, Madras University. *Publications*: various engineering papers. *Address*: The Gables, Coonoor.
- STUART, THE HON. SIR LOUIS, C.I.E., I.C.S., Chief Judge, Chief Court of Oudh since 1925. b. 12 March 1870. *Educ.*: Charter house; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1891, Jud. Sec. to Govt. and nom. as Mem. of U. P. Council, 1910-12. Addl. Judl. Commissioner, Oudh, 1912; Judicial Commissioner Oudh, 1921, Puisne Judge, High Court, Allahabad, 1922. *Address*: Lucknow.
- STUART, CAPT. MURRAY, D.Sc. (Birm.), Ph.D. (Lond.), B.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.C.S., M. Inst. P.T. Consulting Geologist. b. 5 Nov. 1882. *Educ.*: King Edward's H. S. Birmingham and Birmingham Univ., attached Waziristan Expedition, 1919-21; attached Mahsud Expedition, 1919-20 (mentioned despatches) British War Medal 1914-18 and India General Service Medal with two clasps. Retired with rank of Captain, 1920; I.E.S., as Prof. of Geol., Presidency Coll., Madras, 1911-14. Prof. of Geology in Poona Coll. of Engineering in addition to other duties 1916-17; Ag. Superintendent, Madras Government Museum and Ag. Dir., Madras Govt. Marine Aquarium, 1912; Univ., Lecturer in the Madras University, 1913-14. Geo. Survey of India, 1907-1921. *Address*: Milestone, 7th Mile, Promenade Road, Rangoon, Burma, and Royal Societies Club, London.
- STUART-WILLIAMS, SYDNEY CHARLES, M.A. (Cantab.); B.A. (London). Chairman, Calcutta Port Commissioners. b. 9 May 1874; m. Feb. 1903, Elizabeth Mary Stuart; 3 sons. *Educ.*: Kingswood Sch. Bath Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth and Trinity College, Cambridge Private Sec. to Sir Edward Holden, 1900 Junior Sec. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1900-03; Dy. Sec. to Agent, E. I. R., 1903-06; Secy. to Agent, E. I. R., 1906-14; Sec., Port Commissioners, Calcutta, 1914-16; Vice-Chairman, 1916. Dy. Chairman, 1921; Chairman, since Novr. 1922. *Publications*: *The Economics of Railway Transport*, 1909; *Article on Indian railways in Modern Railway Practice*, 1913 *History of the Port of Calcutta, 1870-1920*. *Address*: Port Commissioners' House Calcutta.
- SUBBARAYAN, DR. PARAMASIVA, M.A., B.C.L. (Oxon.), LL.D. (Dublin), Zemindar of Rumarangalam, Chief Minister to the Govt. of Madras. b. 9 Sept. 1889. m. Radhubai Kulkarni, d. of Rai Salih K. Rangarao of Mangalore. *Educ.*: Newington School Madras, the Presidency and Madras Christian Colleges and Wadham College, Oxford. Was Comm. Secretary for a few months in the first reformed Legislative Council; has been a member of Madras Legislative Council representing with Central

Was a member of All-India Congress (Amritsar),
In 1920. *Address*: 'Fairlawns,' Egmore,
Madras.

SUBEDAR, MANU, B.A., (Bombay). Dalshina
Fellow of the Elphinstone College, B.Sc.
(Eco) London, First class honours in Public
Finance, Banking and Currency. Barrister-
at-Law, Gray's Inn, 1912. Director, Penin-
sular Locomotive Co., Ltd.; Managing Director,
Acme-Bala Trading Co., Ltd. *Educ.*: New
High School, Bombay, First in Matric from
the School, Elphinstone College, Bombay.
James Taylor Scholar & Prizeeman,
London School of Economics, London
University, South Kensington Gray's Inn.
Returned to India in 1914. Lecturer in Eco-
nomics, Bombay University. Professor of
Economics, Calcutta University. Examiner
in M.A., Bombay and Calcutta. Secretary,
Sholapur spinning and Weaving Mills Co.,
Ltd., (1917); Secretary, Morari Gosalas
Spinning and Weaving Mills Co., Ltd.;
Managing Director, Western India Small
Industries Corporation Ltd. (1919); Partner,
Lalji Narani & Co., Managing Agents of Ju-
piter General Insurance Co., Ltd.; Representa-
tive of the Indian Merchants' Chamber in the
Bombay Port Trust, sent to England by the
Government of India to give evidence on be-
half of the Indian Commercial Community
before the Babington-Smith Committee;
Managing Agent of the Pioneer Rubber Co.
(1920), Director of the Peninsular Locomotive
Co., Ltd. (1924); Managing Director, Acme-
Bala Trading Co., Ltd., (1925); Representa-
tive of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the
Advisory Board of the Development Depart-
ment. Wrote separate dissenting report on
Back Bay Reclamation Scheme and also on
Housing Scheme. *Address*: Sudama House,
Ballard Pier, Bombay.

**SUBRAHMANYAM, RAO BAHADUR CALAGA
SUNDARAYYA, B.A., B.L., Landowner. b.**
Nov. 1862. *Educ.*: *Address*: *Vin-*
ras Presidency: *of C. Munaksh*
in Mysore Practised as *Vakil* at Bellary,
Chairman, Bellary Municipality, 1904-10;
Vice-President District Board, Bellary,
1911-1918; Member, Liberal League, Madras;
has taken interest in co-operative work and
social and political movements; elected to
the Legislative Assembly, 1920. *Appnt.*
President of Bench of Hon. Magistrates
Mayavaram Town in 1923. *Publications*:
Pamphlets on Bubonic Plague and Irrigation
Problems of the Ceded Districts. *Address*:
Mayavaram, S. India.

**SUHRAWARDY, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE
FAHADUR RANIM ZAHID, M.A., B.L., Kt**
Bar-at-Law, Judge, Calcutta High Court. b.
1870. *Educ.*: Dacca and Calcutta. *Address*:
3, Wellesley 1st Lane, Calcutta.

SUKHDEO PRASAD, SIR, B.A., Rao Bahadur
(1895); Gold Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (1901).
C.I.E., 1902; *Address*: *of C. Munaksh*
Judicial and *of C. Munaksh*
1924-26, *of C. Munaksh*
Pranath *of C. Munaksh* at *of C. Munaksh*
Ambala, 188. *Judicial B*

ary, Morwar, 1889; Member of Council
1887. Senior Member, 1901, Minister, 1903
Union Minister, 1911-15; Political and
Judicial Member, Regency Council, 1922
23. Officiated as its Vice-President, 1920
is *Sardar* of first rank with judicial pow-
ers. Holds 3 villages in jagir of an annual
rental of Rs. 25,000. *Publications*: *Tramline*
Report, 1899-1900; *Origin of the Rathores*
Agricultural Indebtedness. *Address*: Sudh
Ashram, Jodhpur, Rajputana.

SURTHANKAR, VISNU SITARAM, M.A.
(Cantab, Ph.D. (Medic) Research Scholar
and Lecturer in the Post-graduate Department
of the Bombay University. b. 4 May 188
m. Khamat nee Bawing (died 6th Aug. 1928)
Edue.: Marathi High School and St
Xavier's College, Bombay, St. John's College,
Cambridge (Engl) and Delhi University
Assistant Superintendent, Archaeological
Survey Western Circle. Lecturer in the Post
Graduate Department of the Bombay Uni-
versity. Director of the Mahabharata Depart-
ment of Bhamburda Oriental Research In-
stitute, Poona; and Editor of *The Mahabharata*
Publications: *Die Chronistik Mahabharata*
Bhopal, 1921. Vasantavatta, Oxford Univ
Press, 1923. First Critical Edition of the
Mahabharata, 1927; Editor-in-Chief, Journal
of the Bombay Branch, Royal Asiatic Society
Address: Shantaram House, Mahatma Hill
Bombay; and Bhamburda Oriental Research
Institute, Poona.

SULAIMAN AHMAD KHAN, SIRDAR SAHIBZADA
MONTAZIM-UD-Daula, C.I.E. (1924), M.A.
LL.M. (Cantab), Barrister-at-Law, son of
Imtiaz-Ud-Daula Nawab Ghulam Ahmad
Khan Bahadur Ahmad; Appeal Officer since
1918, b. 1869. m. 1912, Lucy Pelling Hall
of Bristol. *Educ.*: at the Aligarh Mahomedan
Anglo-Oriental College and Christ's College
Cambridge (elected to the Bar at the Inner
Temple, London, April 1894, B.A., LL.B.
June 1894, M.A. and LL.M., 1900); was
Chief Justice, Gwalior State, 1906-8, Law
Member of Council, 1909-12, Finance Member
1912-16, and Army Member, 1917; a Member
of the Hunter Committee to inquire into
causes of Disturbances in Delhi, Punjab, and
Bombay, 1919-20. *Address*: Gwalior, India.

SULAI SINGH, CAPTAIN BAHADUR, O.B.E., I.O.
M. Marshal of the Legislative Assembly, b. 10
Feb. 1878. m. Katanakour. *Educ.*: under pri-
vate tutors. Entered army in 1893 as a
private soldier; served in Somaliland 1903-04,
mentioned for good service; Viceroy's Com-
mission 1907; served as Indian Staff Officer
of the Cavalry School, Sangor, 1910-14 and
1919-21; served on the staff of General M.
F. Remington, Commander of the Indian
Cavalry Corps in France 1914-16, France to
1918, Egypt and Palestine to 1919; Afghan
War 1919. clothed on amalgamation of the
Forces in 1921, granted hon. rank of Captain
1923 & *appnt.* Marshal of Indian Legislative
Assembly 1921. *Publications*: *Khialat Marcus*
Amelins (Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius
in Urdu), Guide to Physical Training for
Youths; *Other Military books* in 1901, 1907
90 and 101 *Address* *Facha Khel*,
Indra Karam Singh Amritsar

UTHERLAND, LIEUT.-COL. DAVID WATERS, C. J.E., I.M.S. (Retired). Late Prof. of Medicine, Med. Coll., Lahore. b. Australia, 18 Dec. 1871. m. 1915 Princess Bamba Duleep Singh, d. of late Maharaja Duleep Singh. *Educ.*: Melbourne and Edinburgh Univ. M.D. (Edin.), M.B. CM (Edin.), F.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.R.S. (Edin.) Fell. Roy Soc., Med., London. *Address*: 28 Jail Road Lahore.

WAIN, WALTER, C.I.E. (1922), M.L.C., Inspector General of Police, Behal, 1923. b. Jan. 17, 1876. m. Annie Matilde, sec. d. of Chas. Fox, Esq., of Carse-of-Gowrie, Scotland. *Educ.*: Boston Grammar School. Assistant Superintendent of Police, 1895; Supdt of Police, 1908; Dy. Inspector-General of Police, 1919; Offg. Inspr.-Genl. of Police, 1920; Delhi Durlar Medal, 1912; Volunteer Long Service Medal, 1919, King's Police Medal, 1918. *Publications*: "Instructions for Constables" (1901) in English, Kaiti and Bengali.

Advice on the Construction of Police Buildings (1921). *Address*: The Imperial Bank of India, Patna, R.L.R. and P.O. Kitale Trans: Nzola, Kenya Colony

WILD ABUL AAS, Zamindar b. 27th Sept. 1880, m. Bibi Noor-Aysha. *Educ.*: Govt. City School, Patna, studied privately English, Arabic, Persian and Urdu: has always taken keen interest in matters educational. Apptd. Hon. Magte. at Patna 1906, served 20 years as Hon. Magte. 1906-26; elected member, Patna Municipal Board 1906 and 1909; elected member, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1908; elected member of Bihar and Orissa Research Society Nov. 1916; member of Council of All-India Muslim League, Hon. Asstt Secy., Bihar and Orissa Provincial Muslim League; Apptd. Member of the proposed London Mosque Committee, 1911; apptd. Member of the first Universal Races Congress held at Univ. of London, 1911; joined Muslim Deputation which waited upon Lord Hardinge in 1914; elected Member of Aligarh Muslim Assocn., 1922; elected Vice-Presidents of Bihar Students' Association and Anjuman-Islamia, Patna, 1914; served 2 years as Director, Bihar and Orissa Provincial Co-operative Bank, Patna, 1917-18, nominated non-official member, Mental Hospital, Patna, 1923. *Address*: Abulhas Lane, Bankipur Patna

YED MOHAMMED FAKHRUDDIN, The HON. KHAN BAHADUR, SIR, KT (1924), B.A., P.L. Minister of Education, Bihar and Orissa since 1921. b. 1876 m. Musannat Kama Banoo of Shakhpura. *Educ.*: at Patna Practised as a vakil in the Moulvi courts and then in the Patna High Court, was the first Government Pleader in the Patna High Court; Member, Legislative Council, Bengal in the first reformed Council under Morley-Minto Reforms Scheme; served two terms in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, was for a long time Secretary of the Bihar Provincial Moslem League. *Address*: Moradpore, Patna

SYED, SIR ALI IMAM, K.C.S.I. (1914), C.S.I. b. 1904 (Patna) 12 Feb 1860. *Address*: Nawab 9 d Imdad Imam Shamsululama

m. 1891; five s four d. Called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1890; Standing Council, Calcutta High Court; President, 1st Session of the All-India Moslem League held at Amritsar 1908; Mem., Moslem League Depn. to England, 1909; Member of Governor's Legislative Council, Bengal, 1910; Fellow of Calcutta University, 1908-12; Law Member of Governor-General's Council, 1910-16; Pulpit Judge of Patna High Court, 1917; Member Executive Council of Bihar and Orissa, 1918. President, Executive Council of the Government of the Nizam of Hyderabad, 1919. First Indian Representative to sit at the first meeting of the League of Nations, Nov. 1920. *Address*: Mariam Manzil, Patna also Bella Vista, Hyderabad (Deccan).

SYED RAZA ALI, C.B.E. Member Public Service Commission (1926), B.A., LL.B. (Allahabad Univ.) b. 29 April 1882. m. d. of his mother's first cousin. *Educ.*: Government High School, Moradabad and Mahomedan College, Aligarh. Studied practice at Moradabad in 1908 and was a radical in politics; returned to U.P. Legis. Council 1911. took prominent part in Cawnpore Mosque agitation; elected Trustee of Aligarh College gave evidence before Islington Commission and Southborough Committee; returned unopposed to U.P. Council in 1916 and 1920. was one of those responsible for introducing separate Moslem representation in Municipal Boards in U.P.; took active part in negotiating the Congress League Compact in 1916 same year settled at Allahabad; identified himself with Swaraj and Khilafat movements but strongly differing from non-co-operation programme; became independent in politics 1920. member of Council of State 1921-1928. elected member of Delhi University Court; was member of North West Inquiry Committee and signed majority report; headed two deputations of Moslem members of Indian Legislature to Viceroy in 1922 and 1923 in connection with Turkish question; gave non-party evidence before Reforms Inquiry Committee in 1924; President, All-India Moslem League, Bombay Session, Decr. 1924. Member, Govt. of India's Deputation to South Africa (1925-26). *Publications*: Essays on Moslem Questions (1912). *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

TAGORE, ABANINDRA NATH, C.I.E.; Vice-Prin., Govt. Sch. of Art, Calcutta, since 1907, Zemindar of Shazadpur, Bengal; b. 1871. *Educ.*: Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta, and at home. Designed Memorial Address to Lady Curzon. Gasket presented to King by Corp. of Calcutta 1911; principal work consists in reviving School of Indian Art. *Address*: 5, Dwarkanath Tagore's Lane, Calcutta

TAGORE, MAHARAJA BAHADUR SIR PRODYOT GOOMAR, KT. b. 17 September 1873. *Educ.*: Hindu Sch., Calcutta; afterwards privately; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1909; Trustee, Victoria Memorial Hall; Trustee, Indian Museum. Fellow, Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain. Mem. of Asiatic Soc. of Bengal formerly Mem. Bengal Council. *Address*: Tagore at Calcutta

AGORE, SIR BABENDRANATH, Kt., D.Lit. (Calcutta Univ.); b. 1861. *Educ.*: privately. Lived at Calcutta first; went to country at age of 24 to take charge of his father's estates; there he wrote many of his works; at age of 40 founded school at Shantiniketan, Bolpur, in 1921. This has been his life-work ever since; visited England 1912, and translated some of his Bengali works into English: Nobel Prize for Literature, 1913. *Publications*: In Bengali about 30 political works, dramas, operas about 30; Story books, Novels 16; Essays about 40; Song books 25 (1912). *The Gardener* (1912); *The Crescent Moon* (1912); *The King of the Dark* (1912); *Post Office, a Play*, 1914 (1916); *Nationalism* 1917; *Personality*, 1918; *Stray Birds*, 1916; *Sacrifice*, 1917; *Lover's Gift*, 1918; *Reminiscences*, 1919; *The Wreck*, 1921; *Creative Unity: The Fugitive*, 1922. *Greater India* (1923); *Gora, Fables in China and Letters from Abroad* (1924); *Broken Tiles* (1927). *Address*: Shantiniketan, Bolpur.

AMBE, SHRIDHAR BAIWANT, B.A., LL.B., Home Member, Central Provinces Government. b. 8 Dec 1875. *Educ.*: Jabalpur (Hikarim School), Amraoti, Anglo-Vernacular and High School and Bombay Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School. Pleader at Amraoti, Member and Vice-President of Amraoti Town Municipal Committee; President, Provincial Congress Committee; Member C. P. Legis. Council 1917-1920 and 1924; President, C. P. Legis. Council, March 1925. *Address*: Nagpur, C. P.

FANNAN, MOHAN LAL, B. Com. (Birm.), Bar. at Law, I.E.S., J.P. College of Commerce b. 2 May 1885. m. at Govt. High School, Gujrat, Forman Christian Coll., Lahore, and the University of Birmingham. Official Liquidator of the Industrial Bank of India, Ltd., in liquidation and the Jt. Official Liquidator, the Indian Army Uniforms Supplying Co., Ltd., in liquidation (both of Ludhiana, Punjab). President, 10th Indian Economic Conference, 1927. Vice-President, the Indian Economic Society, 1921-28; Member of the Finance sub-Committee of the Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, Bombay (1921-22), Syndic of the Bombay University, 1923-24 to 1926-27; Secretary, Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay, from 1st March 1923; Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Bombay, 1924; Member, Auditors' Council, Bombay; Principal and Prof. of Banking, the Sydenham Coll. of Commerce and Economics, Bombay; Chairman, Ex. Committee of the Seventh Indian Economic Conference (Bombay). *Publications*: "Banking Law and Practice in India," "Indian Currency and Banking Problems" jointly with Prof. K. T. Shah, B.A. (Bom.), B.Sc. (Econ.) London, and several pamphlets such as the "Banking Needs of India," "Indian Currency and the War," etc. *Address*: The Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Hornby Road, Bombay.

FATA, SIR DORABJI JAMSETJI, K. J.P. Tata Sons Ltd b. 27 Aug

1859. s. of late Jamsetji Nusserwanji Tata m. 1898, Meherbai, d. of H. J. Dhabha. *Educ.* Catus Coll. (Honr. Fellow), Camb.; Bombay Univ. *Address*: "Esplanade House," Waud by Road, Bombay.

FAVEGGIA, Rt. Rev. SANTINO; Bishop of Krishnagar since 1906. b. Italy, 1855. Went to India, 1879. *Address*: Krishnagar.

TAW SHIN KO, C.I.E., I.S.O., K.I.H.; Examiner in Chinese, Burma, since 1906. b. 7 Dec. 1864. *Educ.*: Christ's Coll., Camb. Burmese and Pali Lecturer, Rangoon Coll., 1882-85; Asst. Sec. to Govt. of Burma 1889-91; Burmese Lecturer, Cambridge 1892-93; Supdt., Archaeological Survey Burma Circle, 1899-1919. *Publications*: Burmese Sketches, Vols. I and II; Selections from the Records of the Hlutaw; Translation of Maha Janaka Jataka; Elementary Handbook of the Burmese Language. *Address*: Peking Lodge, Mandalay; Underwood, Maymyo.

TEGART, CHARLES AUGUSTUS, C.I.E., M.V.O. Indian Police; officiated as Dy. Insp.-Gen. of Police, Calcutta. b. 1881. *Educ.*: Portora Royal Sch., Baniskillen; Trinity Coll. Dublin. Joined Indian Police, 1901.

TEHRI, CAPTAIN H. H. RAJA NARENDRA SHAH SAHEB BAHADUR, C.S.I., of Tehri-Garhwal State. b. 4 Aug. 1808. m. 1918. Ensign-apparat born 1921. Succeeded 1912. *Educ.* Mayo Coll., Ajmer. *Address*: Tehri, Garhwal State.

THAKORRAM KAPILRAM, DIWAN BAHADUR B.A., LL.B., C.I.E., Vakul, High Court and Dist. Govt. Pleader and Public Prosecutor b. 18 April 1863 m. Ratnagiri, d. of Keshavnai Amritrai. *Educ.* at Bhavnagar, Alfred High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Appntd. teacher in Govt. Sorathi J. J. High School or Surat and began practice at Surat in 1894. Entered Municipality in 1904 became Chairman, Schools Committee 1909 1909 and 1911 and Chairman, Managing Committee in 1906 and 1917-18. Vice-President of the Municipality in 1911 to 1914 and President in 1914-17. Appointed Chairman Committee of Management in 1922-1923. Chairman of School Board in 1923. Appointed a member of the Port Committee; and witness before the Royal Reforms Commission 1918. *Address*: Athwa Lines, Surat.

THAKUR, RAO BAHADUR KASHINATH KESHAV, I.S.O.; Sen. Div. and Sess. Judge, Nagpur since 1911; b. 15 Feb. 1860. *Educ.*: Saugor and Jabulpore H. S.; Muir Central Coll. Allahabad. *Address*: Nagpur.

THESIGER, VICE-ADMIRAL BERTHAN SACKVILLE C.B. (1916), C.M.G. (1911); Commander in Chief, East Indies Squadron. b. 14 Jan 1875 m. 1921, Violet, widow of W. Bickrick Cloete and d. of late J. A. Henley. Entered Royal Navy, 1887. Lieut., 1895; Commander, 1906. Captain, 1913; Rear-Admiral, 1922; served European War, Battle of Jutland Bank 1914-18 (dispatches C.B.), A.D.C. to the King, 1922. 2nd Class Order of St. Anne of Russia with w r u s t Vladimir Russia

with crossed swords. *Publications*: *Queries in Seamanship*. *Address*: H. M. S. Eppingham.

HOMAS, GEORGE ARTHUR, B.A., C.I.E. (1925), Collector of Bombay. *b.* 4 May 1877. *m.* Gwenllan Dorothy, *d.* of Dean Howell. *Educ.*: Clifton College and Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge; 1st Class Classical Tripos; Joined I.C.S. in 1900; Asstt. Collr., Belgaum, Bijapur and Dharwar; Asstt. Collr., Customs, Bombay; Collr. of Customs, Madras, Collr. of Kolaba and Hyderabad, Sind; Secretary, Revenue Department, General Department and again Rev. Department and Chief Secretary. *Address*: Ridge House, Bombay.

HOMPSON, SIR JOHN PERONET, K.C.I.E. (1926), C.S.I. (1919); *b.* 3 March 1873. *m.* Ada Lucia, *d.* of the late R. Y. Tyrrell, Litt. D. Secr., Fellow, Trinity Coll., Dublin. *Educ.*: Leeds Gr. Sch. and Trin. Coll., Cambridge. 1st Class Classical Tripos; President of the Union (1895); Entered I.C.S., 1897, Revenue Sec. to the Punjab Govt., 1913. *Ch. Sec.* 1916. Member of Indian Leg.-Council, 1918-19; Member of Reforms Committee, 1918-19; President, Railway Police Committee, 1921; Political Secretary, Foreign and Political Department, Member of Council of State and Secretary of the Chamber of Princes. Secretary to the Order of the Star of India and Indian Empire (1922-27), formerly President, Punjab Historical Society and Fellow and Syndic of the Punjab University. *Address*: Delhi or U.S. Club-Simla.

HORTON, HUGH AYMER, C.I.E., B.A., I.C.S.; Commissioner. *Educ.*: Cheltenham Christ Church, Oxford (B.A.). Ent. I.C.S. 1895. *Address*: Sagaing, Upper Burma.

THULRAI, TALQADAI, OF RANA SIR SHEORAJ SINGH BAHADUR OF KHAJURGAON, K.C.I.E., Rai Bareil District. *b.* 1865. *m.* 1st *d.* of Babu Amarjit Singh, *y. b.* of the Raja of Mayhoul; 2nd, *d.* of Raja Somesurdatt Singh; a Raja of Kundwar; 3rd *d.* of the Raja of Bijapur District. *Educ.*: Govt. H. S., Rai Bareil. *S. father*, 1897; descended from King Salbahan, whose Sumvat Era is current in India. *Rev.*: Kunwar Lal Elma Natti Singh Bahadur. *Address*: Thulrai, Khajurgao.

TODHUNTER, SIR CHARLES GEORGE, K.C.S.I. (1921). Fellow of the Royal Asiatic and Royal Historical Societies; *a.* 16 Feb 1869. *Educ.*: Aldenham Sch., and King's Coll., Cambridge, Members' prizeman, Cambridge University, 1888; *m.* Alice, O.B.E., K.-i.-H., *d.* of Captain C. Lossack, 9th Highlanders. Served in I.C.S., Madras; also conducted special inquiries into Customs and Excise matters in Kashmir, the C.P. and C.M. States. Sec., Indian Excise Committee, 1906; I.G. of Excise and Salt to the Govt. of India, 1909-1920. President, Life Saving Appliances Committee, 1913; Secretary to Govt. of Madras, 1915; Member of Board of Revenue, 1915; Member of Executive Council, 1919-21; President, Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee, 1924-25; Member, Council of State, 1926. Private Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore. *Address*: Fa K. ooso, Mysore.

TOL HENRY Q.L.R., I.O.S. Lahore J

Coll., Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1893. *Address*: Lahore.

TOMKINS, SIR LIONEL LINTON, K.T., C.I.E. Ent. Indian Police Dept. in 1891; Dy. Insp. Genl. of Police, Punjab, 1914-1922. Inspector General of Police, Punjab, 1922-26; Retired April 1926. *Address*: National Bank of India, Lahore.

TONK, H. H. AMIN-UD-DAULA WAZIRUL MULK NAWAB HAFIZ SIR MOHAMMAD IBRAHIM ALI KHAN BAHADUR SAULAT JANG, G.C.I.E. G.C.S.I. *b.* 1848. *s.* 1867. State has area of 2,553 sq. miles and population of over 287,898. *Address*: Tonk, Rajputana.

TRAVANCORE AND COCHIN, SOUTH INDIA, BISHOP in. RT. REV. E. A. L. MOORE, M.A. *b.* Nov. 13, 1870. *Educ.*: Marlborough Coll. and at Oriel Coll., Oxford. Curate at Aston Birmingham, 1894-96, Missionary of the C.M.S. in S. India from November 1896; C.M.S. Divinity School, Madras, 1898-1914; C.M.S. College, Kottayam, 1902-1903; Chairman C.M.S., District Council, Tinnevely, 1915-1924. Consecrated Bishop on 24 Feb. 1925. *Address*: Kottayam.

TRAVERS, WALTER LANCOLOT, C.I.E. (1925), O.B.E. (1918), M.L.C. Chairman, Decars Planters' Association, 1914-23; Vice-Chairman 1921-1924; Member, Bengal Legislative Council 1920 and of Reformed Council 1921-23 and 1924 to date. Leader, British Group Member, Jalpaiguri District Board, 1914-24. Captain (ret'd) North Bengal Mounted Rifles. *Address*: Baradighi Tea Estate, Baradighi P.O., Jalpaiguri, and Bengal Club, Calcutta.

TRENCH, WILLIAM LANCOLOT CROSSIT, B.A. I. M. Inst. C.E., F.U.B. Principal, Engineering College, Poona. *b.* 22 July 1881. *m.* Margaret Zephania Huddleston. *Educ.*: at Leys School and Dublin University. Indian Service of Engineers. *Address*: Engineering College Poona.

TURNER, ALFRED JOHN, J.P., B.Sc. (London) 1901, F.I.C. 1905; Principal and Professor of Chemistry, Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Matunga. *b.* 1874. *m.* Nita Aspdene *d.* John Lyndel Aspdene. *Educ.*: Finsbury Technical College and London University. Analyst in various firms and London County Council; Demonstrator and Lecturer at East London College (London Univ.) Science Master at Giggleswick, Yorkshire. *Publications*: Papers to the Berichte, Chemical Society and Monograph on Bitterns. *Address*: King's Circle, Matunga, Bombay.

TURNER, CHARLES ALDO, B.A., C.I.E. (1928) I.C.S., Secretary to Government, General Dept., Bombay. *b.* July 30, 1879. *m.* Eileen Dorothy Kirkpatrick. *Educ.*: King Edward VI School, Norwich and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. Appointed Asst. Collector, Bombay Presidency in 1903; Settlement Officer, Dharwar Dist. 1919-10; Under-Secretary, Revenue and Finance Departments, Bombay, 1912-15; Cantonment Magte., Ahmednagar, 1916-1919. Collector Ahmednagar, 1919-21; Personal Asst. to Lord Lee Chairman. Public Services. *Address*: 923-24 Ag. Secretary Office Depart. med. & Secretary mcn 924. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

FYABJI, RUSAIN BADRUDDIN, M.A. (Honour).
LL.M. (Honour), Certab 1896: Bar-at-Law, Second Judge, Ag. Chief Judge Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay b. 11 October 1873 m. Miss Nazim Mohammad Fatmally. *Educ.*: Anglikan-e-Islam, Bombay, St. Xavier's School and College; Downing College, Cambridge. Practised in the Bombay High Court. *Address*: Almazul, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

UDAIPUR, H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJ MAHARANA
SIR FATEH SINGHJI BAHADUR OF, O.C.S.I.,
G.C.I.E. & C.V.O., Maharana of Udaipur,
Mewar. b. 1818. *Address*: Udaipur.

UDAIPUR, H. H. THE RAJA OF, CHANDRASHE-
KAR PRASAD SINGH DEO, CHIEF OF. *Address*:
Udaipur.

ULLAH, REV ISHAN, Archdeacon of Delhi,
Archdeacon in Lahore Diocese from 1910-1913;
Canon of the Lahore Cathedral 1915-1923;
retired 1924, and sagdg. Missionary of Tobia
Tek Singh Mission, b. 1857. *Educ.*: Baring H S.
Batala, Lahore Div. Coll. *Address*: C/o Q.
Thoran Ullah, M.A., B.T., Lecturer, Multan
College, Multan

UMAR HAYAT KHAN TIWANA, The Hon.
Colonel Nawab Malik Sah. K.C.I.E. C.B.E.,
M.V.O., Member, Council of State, Landlord,
b. 1874. *Educ.*: Aitchison College, Lahore.
was given Hon. Commission in 18th
K.G.C. attended King Edward's Coronation
Durbah at Delhi, served in Somaliland
joined Tibet Expedition was attached
to the late Amir of Afghanistan attended
King George's Coronation Durbah at Delhi;
saw active service in the world war in France
and Mesopotamia; Mons Star 1914; Member,
Provincial Recruiting Board, represented
Punjab, Delhi War Conference in 1918,
served in the 3rd Kabul War (mentioned in
despatches), made Colonel, Member, Esher
Committee 1920. is President of the National
Horse Breeding and Show Society of India.
Address: Kalra, Dist. Sahapur, Punjab

WAKIL, SIRDAR SIR RUSTOM JIRANGIR, K.L.
(1924); Khan Bahadur (1907): First Class
Sirdar of Gujarat (1911); Millowner and
Merchant. b. Sept. 1878. m. Tehmina, e. d.
of Dr. D. E. Kothawala, Civil Surgeon ret'd.,
Bombay Medical Service. *Educ.*: at Gujarat
College, Ahmedabad. Since 1901 Managing
Partner in Nowroji Pestonji & Co., Govt Salt
Agents; Pioneer of Magnesium Chloride
industry in India; Presid., Dist. Local Board;
for many years member of Ahmedabad
Municipality, Dist. Scout Commissioner. Late
Officer Commanding "D" Coy., 12-2 Bombay
Pioneers; and Divisional Supdt., St. John
Ambulance Brigade, Ahmedabad Division;
was member of Imperial Legis. Council from
1913-16; has extensively travelled in European
countries; Chairman and Director of several
industrial concerns and Railway Boards;
helped Government during the War in
recruitment of combatants and non-combatants
and was awarded medal and also
certificate by H. E. Lord Willingdon. First
Class Magistrate independently in charge
of a whole of Alon since 911. *Address*:
The Shahi Bag Ahmedabad

VAUX, MAJOR HENRY GEORGE, C.S.I. (1925)
C.B.E. (1921), M.V.O. (1922) Military Secre-
tary to the Governor of Bombay b. 1182 m.
The Baroness Edna von Stockhausen
(American), 1915. *Educ.*: St. Lawrence School
Joined the Army 1909. A.D.C. to Governor of
Victoria, 1904-11; A.D.C. to Governor of Mad-
ras, 1911. A.D.C. to Governor of Bengal 1912-
14, Military Secretary to Lord Curzon 1914-17;
Mil. Secretary to Earl of Ronaldshay
1917-22; Mil. Secretary to Earl of Lytton
1922; Mil. Secretary to Sir George Lloyd
1922-23; Mil. Secretary to Sir Leslie Wilson
1923. *Address*: Government House, Bombay

VELINKER, SHRIKRISHNA GUNAJ, B.A.
J.L.B. (Bombay), J.P. (1903): Holder of
Certificate of Honour, Council of Legal
Education, Trinity (1909); of the Honourable
Society of Lincoln's Inn; Bar-at-Law,
Trinity, (1909) b. 12 April, 1868, m. to
Prabhavatibai, d. of Rao Bahadur, Mahend
Ramchander, Executive Engr., Bombay
Educ.: St. Xavier's College, Bombay
Enrolled as pleader, High Court, Bombay, in
1893; called to the Bar in July 1909. In pro-
minent practice in the High Court at Bombay
and criminal courts of the Presidency
One of the Commissioners appointed under
the Defence of India Act to try culprits in
Ahmedabad and Viramgam arson and murder
cases, 1919; President, Tribunal of Appeal
under City of Bombay Improvement Act
Sept. 1922 to April 1924; Secy., P. J. Hind
Gymkhana, 1897-1903. *Publications*: Law
of Gaming and Wagering and the Law of
Compulsory Land Acquisition and Compensa-
tion. *Address*: Ratan House, 1-4, Kington
Road (South), Bombay.

VENKATASUBBA RAO, THE HON. MR.
JUSTICE M. P. A. B.L. Judge, High Court
Madras, b. 19 July 1878. *Educ.*: Free
Church Mission Institution, Madras Chris-
tian College and Madras Law College. Was
enrolled High Court Kallik in 1903; Practised
from 1903-1921 in partnership with Mr.
V. Radhakrishnaia under the firm name of
Messrs. Venkatasubba Rao and Radhakri-
shnaia. Had a large and leading practice on
the Original Side of the High Court. Election
Commissioner, 1921-22; apptd. to the High
Court Bench, 17 Nov. 1921; President
Annadana Samajam, Depressed Classes Mis-
sion Society and Madras Dist. Scout Council
Vice-President, Provincial Scout Council
Address: "Piravasy" Nungambakam
Cathedral P. O., Madras.

VENKATASWETA CHALAPATI RUNGA
RAO BAHADUR, MAHARAJAH SIE RAO,
MAHARAJAH OF BOBBILI, (C.I.E.), C.B.E.
Maharajah, 1900; Ancient Zamindar of
Bobbili, b. 28 Aug. 1862. *Educ.*: Bobbili
privately. Assisted Gadh in 1881; Lieut
Mem., Royal Asiatic Soc.; Mem. of Madras
Council, 1896, 1898, 1900, and 1902; First
Native Mem. of Madras Exec. Council, 1910-11
Publications: Advice to the Indians Axioma-
cracy, Hindu religion, Diaries in Europe.
Criticism on the Remyam and the Maha-
harata. *Address*: Bobbili, Madras Presidency

VERNON, HAROLD ANSELM BELLAMY,
Membr. Board of Revenue Madras b.
12th Sept 18 4 m. a Rhona Watt

Slade. *Educ.* at Clifton College, and at Oxford. Secretary to Board of Revenue, Income, Secretary, R. I. M. Commission. Private Secretary to Sir A. Lawley, M.L.A. 1926; Agent to G. G. Madras States, Trivandrum. *Publications* : Notes on Italian Salt (a translation). *Address* : Adyar, Madras.

CARRIERS, ALBERT CLAUDE, C.I.E.; Joint Chief Engineer (1920). P. W. D. m. 1899, Mabel Blanche, d. of the late Francis Moors. *Educ.* : St. Peter's Coll. Agra; Thompson Civil Engineering Coll., Roorkee. Bnt. P. W. D., 1893. Under-Secy. to Govt., P. W. D., Naini Tal, 1911-14; Exe. Eng., Dehra Dun, 1915-18; Supdt. Eng., 1918-19; Sanitary Eng., 1918-19. Offg. Chief Engineer, United Provinces, 1920-21. *Address* : "Dar-ul-Shafa", Lucknow.

LEIRA DE CASTRO, Rt. Rev. THEOTONIUS MANOEL RIBEIRO, D.D., D.O.L.; R. O. Bishop of San Thomé de Mylapore, since 1899. b. Oporto, 1859. *Educ.* : Gregorian Uni., Rome. *Address* : Tomar, Portugal.

ITAYARAGHAVA CHARYA, DIWAN BAHADUR SR., M.B.E. (1919); Commissioner for India British Empire Exhibition. b. August 1875. *Educ.* : Presidency College, Madras. Joined Provincial service, 1898, Revenue Officer. Madras Corp., 1912-17; Secretary to Board of Revenue, 1917-18; Dewan of Cochin, 1919-22, Collector and Magistrate, 1920. *Address* : 42 Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W.1.

IRA VALA, DURGABHAI SHRI. b. 31 Jan. 1888. *Educ.* : at Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Wing Master, Rajkumar College, Adviser to the Thakore Sahib, Chuda, Deputy Political Agent, Panchpur; Manager, Lathi State. Dewan, Porbandar State, Dewan, Junagadh State. District Deputy Political Agent, Rewa Kantha up to 1st April 1927. *Address* : Rewa Kantha.

ISHNU DIGAMBER PALUSKAR, PANDIT. GAYANACHARYA, b. 1872. m. Mrs. Ramabai Paluskar. *Educ.* : Minto State. *Publications* : 34 Musico books or notations. *Address* : Shri Ram Nam Adhar Ashram, Panchavati, Nasik.

ISVESVARAYA, SRI MORSHAGUNDUM, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., M.I.C.E., late Dewan of Mysore. b. 16 Sept. 1861. *Educ.* : Central Coll., Bangalore, and Coll. of Science, Poona. Asst. Engineer, P.W.D., Bombay, 1884; Supdt. Eng., 1904; retired 1908. Appd. So Consulting Eng. to Nizam's Govt., 1908; Ch. Eng. and Sec., P.W. and Ry. Depts., Govt. of Mysore, 1909; Dewan of Mysore, 1912-1918. Chairman, Bombay Technical and Industrial Education Committee (appointed by the Government of Bombay) 1921-22; Member, New Capital Enquiry Committee, Delhi, 1922; Retrenchment Adviser to the Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1924. Chairman, Indian Economic Enquiry Committee (appointed by the Government of India) 1925; Member, Bombay Back Bay Enquiry Committee (appointed by the Government of India) 1926. Traveled round the world in 1919-20 and has also otherwise travelled & covered *Publication* : Reasons for India (P. B. King & Son, Ltd. London. *Address* : Upanda, High Ground

VOLKERS, ROBERT CHARLES FRANCIS, C.I.E. Sec., Railway Board, 1907-13; Accountant P. W. D., since 1878; Examiner, 1894. *Address* : Calcutta.

WACHA, SIR DINSHA EDUEYL Kt. J.P. & Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920). Member, Bombay Leg. Council (1915-16) and of Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20. Member, Council of State (1920); Member of the firm of Messrs. Morarji Gokuldas & Co. Agents, Morarji Gokuldas S. & W. Co. Ltd. and Sholapur S. & W. Co., Ltd.; Director The Central Bank of India and the Scindia Navigation Company & 2 Aug. 1844. m. 1860. but widower since August 1888. *Educ.* : Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; in Cotton Industry, since 1874; for 30 years Bombay Mun. Corp., (President, 1901-02); for 38 years, Mem., Bombay Millowners' Association Committee since 1889 and President in 1917 and Member, Bombay Imp. Trust since its formation in 1898 up to 1919; Pres. of 17th National Congress, Calcutta, 1901; and of Belgium Prov. Conference, 1894; gave evidence before Royal Commission on Indian expenditure in 1907; Trustee of Elphinstone Coll.; also Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau; was Gen. Sec. Indian National Congress for 18 years from 1894; Trustee of Vic. Jubilee Technical Institute from 1902 and Hon. Sec. from 1909 to 1923. Member, Bombay Legislative Council (1915-16); President, Western India Liberal Association since 1919. Was Secretary, Bombay Presidency Association from 1885 to 1915 and President from 1915 to 1918. Was President of the First Bombay Provincial Liberal Conference in 1922. *Publications* : Pamphlets on Indian Finance, Currency and Economics, Agricultural Condition of India, Railways, Currency, Temperance, Military Expenditure, etc.; large contributor to leading Indian newspapers and journals for more than 45 years, also had published History of Share Speculation 1883-84; Life of Premchand Roychand; Life of J. N. Tata; the Rise and Growth of the Bombay Municipal Government, four papers on Indian Commerce and Statistics and My Recollections of Bombay (1880-75). *Address* : Jiji House, Ravelin Street, Fort, Bombay.

WADIA, BOMANJI JAHSENI, M.A., LL.B. (Univ. of Bombay), Bar-at-Law. b. 4 Aug. 1881. m. Rattanbai Hormusji Wadia and subsequently to Perin Nowroji Chinoy of Secunderabad. *Educ.* : St. Xavier's College, Bombay, and at the Inner Temple, London for the Bar, 1904-6. was Principal, Govt. Law College, Bombay, 1919-1925. *Address* : Quetta Terrace, Chowpatty, Bombay.

WADIA, C. N., C.I.E. (1919); Millowner. b. 1869. *Educ.* : King's Coll., London. Joined his father's firm, 1888. Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association (1918). *Address* : Pedder House, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

WADIA, JAMESJI ARDASER, J. P., 1900 Merchant. b. 31 Oct. 1857. *Educ.* : Elphinstone Sch. and Coll. and served Apprenticeship in Dickinson & Co. of London and Director of Outage and other industries concerns. Member of Bombay

Mun Corpn., from 1901-1921. *Publications*: Writer on Industrial and Economic subjects; published two pamphlets against closing of the Mints. *Address*: Wilderness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

AD: 7-11, NISSERWANTER NAWROSTER, K.B. E., 30 May 18 St. Xavier's Mill-

owners' Association, 1911 and 1925. *Address*: Strachey House, Pedder Road, Bombay.

ADIA, PESTONJI ARDESHER, M. A., Professor of Philosophy and History, Wilson College, Bombay. *b.* 16 Dec. 1878. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay. *Publications*: The Philosophers and the French Revolution; Zoroastrianism and our Spiritual Heritage; Inquiry into the Principles of Theosophy; The Wealth of India; Money and the Money Market in India, An Introduction to Ivanhoe and History of India. *Address*: Hormazd Valla, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

ADYA, SIR HORMASJI ARDESAR, Kt. (1918), Bar-at-Law. *b.* 2 January, 1849. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay, and University College, London. *m.* Alma, *d.* of the late Mr Ardesar Hormasji of Lowji Castle, Parel. Called to the Bar, 1871. Personal Assistant to Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji, Dewan of Baroda, February 1874 to January 1875. Practised in Kathiawar since 1875. Trustee, Parsi Panchayat, 1912. Trustee of the late Mr. N. M. Wadia under his will, 1909; Recd. Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1918. *Address*: 87, Marine Lines, Bombay.

WALI MAHOMED HUSSANALLY, KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., son of the late Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Hussanally Bey Effendi, Turkish Consul and Founder of the Sind Madrasah-tul-Islam, Karachi; was Member, Legislative Assembly; Retired Dpty. Collector and Special First Class Magistrate and Landed Proprietor, is General Secretary, Sind Mahomedan Association and Chairman, District School Board, Karachi. *b.* 5 Dec. 1860. Widower. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Served Govt. in various departments for 33 years; retired in 1915. *Address*: Devon Vella, McNeil Road, Frere Town, Karachi.

WALKER, GEORGE LOUIS, Solicitor and Notary Public; Off. Solicitor to Govt. of Bombay and Public Prosecutor, Registrar of the Diocese of Bombay, *b.* 25 Sept. 1879. *m.* to Agnes Muriel Porter, *d.* of Col R. S. Porter, Dy. Lieutenant of the County of Lancaster. *Educ.*: Liverpool College. Articled to Messrs. Hill Dickinson & Co., Liverpool, 1896; practised as Solicitor in Liverpool 1902-1914; War service, France and Belgium, 4th Aug. 1914 to Nov. 1919; Commanded brigade of artillery; promoted Lieut.-Col., R.F.A., Retired 1921. *Address*: Byculla Club.

WALLACE, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE EDWARD HAMILTON, M.A. (Glas.) B.A. (Oxon.), Judge, High Court, Madras. *b.* 14 May 1873. *m.* Anna Richmond Miller London. *Educ.*: High School, Glasgow; Glasgow Univ.: B.A. Coll. Oxford. Passed I.C.S., 1895. Served Presidency since 1896, Judge

of Chief Court, Mysore State, 1912-14. *Address*: Cathedral Gardens, Madras.

WALMSLEY, SIR HUGH, Kt. (1923), MA Judge, Calcutta High Court since 1915; I.C.S., *Educ.*: Merton Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1898. *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.

WANKANER, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI SIR AMARSINGJI, RAJ SAHEB OF K.C.L.E. *b.* 4 Jan. 1879; *s.* 1881. *Educ.* Rajkumar Coll. State has area of 425 sq miles, and population of 36,824. Salute, 11 guns. *Address*: Wankaner, Kathiawar.

WARD, COLONEL HENRY CHARLES SWINBURNE C.I.E. (1920), O.B.E. (1919) and Serban Order of White Eagle (1917); Director of Pay and Pensions. *b.* 12 June 1879. *Educ.* Winchester and Sandhurst. 1st Commission 1898; Joined 2nd Bengal Lancers, 1901; Staff College, 1911-12; War service, 1914-1917 various staff appointments; Afghan operations, 1919; G.S.O. 1 2nd Division; commanded 2nd Lancers, 1921-22; A.A.G., Army Headquarters, 1922-23. *Address*: United Service Club, Simla.

WARNE, RE. REV. FRANCIS WESLEY, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church since 1900 *b.* 30 Dec. 1854. *Publications*: The Sinless Incarnation; A Tribute to the Triumphant The Lord's Supper; A Covenant-Keeping God; The Biblical Sabbath, and "The Story of Lizzie Johnson." *Address*: Bangalore.

WATSON, ALFRED HENRY, Editor, *Statesman* Calcutta. *b.* 1874. *m.* Isabella Morland Beck. *Educ.*: Rutherford College, London. Editor *Newcastle Leader*, 1895-1902, News Editor *Westminster Gazette*, 1903-8, Manager, 1909-1921, Managing Editor, 1921, Editor the *Statesman*, 1925. *Publications*: Papers on Tariff Questions and the Meat Trust. *Address*: 9, Roy Mansions, Calcutta.

WATSON, CHARLES CUNNINGHAM, C.S.I. (1923) C.I.E., 1913, Agent to the Governor-General the states of Western India since 1924. *b.* 1874 *m.* 1912 Phyllis Marion, *d.* of A. Field, Hove Sussex. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Univ.; Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1897. Asstt. Coll., Poona, 1898-1901; Political Agent in Kathiawar, 1901-3; First Asstt. to the Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana, 1904-8; Private Secretary to H. E. the Governor of Bombay, 1908-12; Secretary the Government of Bombay, Political and Judicial Departments, 1912-14; Commissioner, Ajmer, 1915-18; Deputy Secretary Government of India Political Department 1918-17; Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States, 1917-21; Political A.D.C. to Secretary of State for India, 1921; Ag. Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana, 1923. Ag. Resident, Mysore, 1924. *Address*: The Residency, Rajkot.

WATSON, HERBERT EDMONSTON, D.Sc. (Lond) A.I.C., M.I. Chem. E. Fellow of University Coll., London, Professor of General Chemistry Indian Institute of Science. *b.* 1886. *m.* 1917 Mrs M. K. Rowson. *Educ.*: Marlborough Coll., Wiltshire, Berlin, Göttingen and Cambridge. Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. Numerous papers on physical chemistry and allied subjects. *Address*: Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

TT, REV. JOHN, M.A., D.D., F.C.S.; Prin., cottish Churches Coll., Calcutta, since 1910. 1862. *Educ.*: Parish Sch., Methlick; Gram. sch., Old Aberdeen; Aberdeen Univ.; New Coll., Edinburgh. Joined Duff Coll., Calcutta, 1888. *Address*: 4, Cornwallis Square, Calcutta.

IBB, CHARLES MORGAN, M.A. (Cambridge). I.L.E. (1921); Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust. b. 30th June 1872 m. to Lilian Elizabeth Griffiths. *Educ.*: Masons College, Birmingham, St. John's, Cambridge. Entered C.S., 1894; Deputy Commissioner, 1901; settlement Officer, 1903; Supdt., Census operations, Burma, 1909; Secy., Govt. of Burma, 1914; Chief Secy., Govt. of Burma, 1918; First Vice-Chancellor, Rangoon University, 1920, Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust, 1921. *Publications*: Census Reports, Burma, 1911. *Address*: Lorretto Villa, Prome Road, Rangoon.

IBSTER, JOHN EDWARD, C.S.I., C.I.E., C.S., Commr., Burma Valley, Assam, since 1912 b. Ranchi, 3 Sept. 1871. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Trinity Hall, Cam. Ent. I.C.S., 1891. *Address*: Sliehar.

IR MAJOR-GENERAL G.A., C.B., C.M.G. b. O., General Officer Commanding Bombay District. b. 1st Dec. 1876 m. 1917, Margaret remc d. of Robert More, Woodsgate Place, Exchill. *Educ.*: Harrow; Trinity College Cambridge; Capt. (1902), Major (1912); served South Africa, 1899-1901 (despatches twice); Queen's Medal & Clasps. European War 1914-18 (wounded), despatches D. S. O. 3rd Lt.-Col. and Col. Officer of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus Croix de Guerre avec palmes; Commandant, Equestrian School and Inspector of Cavalry, 1922-26. *Address*: Bombay District Headquarters, Colaba.

STOOTT, Rt. REV. F., see Calcutta, Bishop of.

HEELER, SIR HENRY, K.C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E., I.C.S.; Governor of Bihar and Orissa (1923). *Educ.*: Christ's Coll., Cam. Ent. C.S., 1891; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Fin. Dept., 1907-08; Sec., Royal Commission on Decentralisation, 1903-09; Fin. Sec., Govt. of Bengal, 1909-12; Home Sec., Govt. of India, 1912-16; Member, Executive Council, Bengal, 1917-22. *Address*: Government House, Patna.

HEELER, THE VENERABLE HUGH TREVOR, I.A. (Dublin), Archdeacon of Lahore, 1919, b. 17 September 1874. m. Kathleen Gunning *Educ.*: Trinity College, Dublin. Chaplain of the Forces, M.B.E., 1915. *Address*: Ashleigh, Murree.

HITE, MAJOR FREDERICK NORMAN, C.I.E., I.D., Asst. Dir.-Gen., I.M.S. (Sanitary), 1914, Sanitary Commr., Govt. of India, India. *Address*: c/o Grimlay & Co., Bombay.

ITTFY, JOHN TARBON, C.I.E., Commissioner, Muzaffarpur. *Educ.*: Clifton Coll. New Coll., Oxford; Univ. Coll. London. Ent. C.S., 1898. *Address*: Muzaffarpur.

ITWORTH, CHARLES STANLEY, C.I.E. 1927 Chief Mining to the Govt. of India Railway Dept. b. 4 June 1880 to Mining Dept. North-Western

Railway, 1909-12; Asst. Coal Supdt., Indian State Railways, 1913-14; lent to C.I.P. Bly. 1914-17. Officiated as Mining Engineer and Technical Adviser to Coal Controller, 1918-20. Appntd Chief Mining Engineer, Railway Board 1921, Member, Indian Coal Committee 1925; Presdt., Indian Coal Grading Board 1926-27. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

WILKINSON, HECTOR RUSSELL, B.A., C.I.E. (1927), I.C.S., Private Secretary to H. E. the the Governor of Bengal. b. March 11, 1888 m. Theodora Daintree. *Educ.*: Clifton and Queen's College, Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service in 1912 and posted to Bengal. *Address*: United Service Club, Calcutta.

WILLIAMS, GEORGE BRANSHY, M. INST. C.E. M.I. MECH. E., F.R. SAN. I., F.R.G.S. M.I.E. (Ind.), late Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal; Consulting Engineer. b. 7 April 1872; m. Dorothy Maud d. of E. Thorp of Cheadle Hulme, Cheshire. *Educ.*: Clifton Coll. Articled to Mr. James Mansergh, F.R.S., P. Pres. Inst. C.E., 1891; Asst. on York Main Drainage Works, Birmingham Waterworks. Resident Engineer-in-Charge, Whitby Water works; Served S. Africa, 1900-01, Railway Staff Officer; Asst. District Engineer, Imperial Military Railways; Pers. Asst. to Mr. G. R. Strachan, M. Inst. C.E., 1902-06 (Troydon Waterworks, Shrewsbury Water works; Consulting Engineer to Colonial Office, 1903-08; Nairobi Drainage and Water works, Naivasha, Nakuru and Zanzibar sanitation; designed Sketty Sewerage Works, &c., Sanitary Engineer, Bengal (1909); designed nearly 200 schemes of water supply, drainage and sewerage of which about 80 have been carried out including Jheria, Gaya, Hoochly, Chinsurah, Kalimpong, Serampore, Morghyr Comilla, Raueengung, Midnapore, Suri and Cooch-Bihar waterworks, Gaya, Burdwan Dacca, Kurseong and Tittaghur main drainage schemes. *Publications*: Sewage disposal in India and the East; Elementary Sanitary Engineering (three editions); Practical Sanitary Engineering; Modern Sewage Disposal, R. A. Journal, 1909, "Rainfall or Wales," Geographical Journal, 1909; Flood discharge and Spillways in India, "Engineer" 1922; Recent Progress in Sanitary Engineering in Bengal, &c. *Address*: 251 Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W. and United Service Club, Calcutta.

WILLIAMS, CAPT. HERBERT ARMSTRONG, D.S.O., I.M.S.; Resident Medical Officer, Rangoon General Hospital, since 1907. b. 11 Feb 1875. *Address*: General Hospital, Rangoon.

WILLIS MAJOR-GENERAL EDWARD HENRY, C.B. (1918), C.M.G. (1917); Technical Adviser R.A., India. b. 5th Sept. 1870. *Educ.*: at Bath. Commissioned Royal Military Academy, 1890; Commanded 94th Battery, R.F.A. (Lahore Division), 1914; Commanded 78th Brigade R.F.A. (17th Division), 1915; C.R.A. 12th Division, 1916-17; 17th Corps, 1917-18. *Address*: Army Headquarters, Simla.

WILLIS, GEORGE HENRY, C.I.B., 1918; M.V.O. 4th 1911, I.A. Col. R.E. M.I. Mech R. M. R. and Printing India b. 5 Oct. 85. *Educ.*: St. Paul's

Sch., London; R. M. A., Woolwich. B. E., 1895; Major, 1914. Arrived India, 1900; Deputy Mint Master, 1907; Master of the Mint, October 1915 to February 1923. Past President of Council, Institution of Engineers (Ind.). Address: Security Printing, India, Nasik Road.

WILSON, His EXCELLENCY THE RT. HON. SIR LESLIE ORME, P.C. 1922; O. C. I. E. (1923), C. M. G. (1916); D. S. O. (1900). Grand Croix de l'Ordre de la Couronne, 1922. Governor of Bombay. b. 1 Aug. 1876, s. s. of late H. Wilson. m. 1909. Winifred, e. d. of late Captain Charles Smith of Goderich, Sydney. Educ. St. Michael's, Westgate; St. Paul's School. Appntd 2nd Lt. R.M.L.I., 1896; Lieut. 1897; Captain 1901. Served South Africa, 1899-1901 (severely wounded, despatches Queen's Medal, 5 Clasp, D.S.O.); A.D.C. to Governor of N.S.W. Capt. in Berkshire Royal Horse Artillery (Territorials); promoted Temp. Lt.-Col. R. M. and appointed to command Hawke Batt. R.N.D.; served through operations in Gallipoli, 1914-15 (despatches, C.M.G.); served in France, 1915-16 (severely wounded). Parliamentary Asst. Secy. to the War Cabinet, 1918; Chairman, National Maritime Board, 1919; Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Shipping, 1919. Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury and Chief Unionist Whip, 1921-1923; M.P. (C) Reading, 1918-22. South Portsmouth 1922-23 Address: Government House, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WILSON-JOHNSTON, JOSEPH, B.A., O.I.E. (1926), Kaiser-Jhind Gold Medal (1911), C.B. E. (1918), I.C.S., Administrator, Nabha. b. 12 June 1876. m. Helen J. M. Campbell. Educ.: Rugby and Balliol College, Oxford. Address: Nabha, Punjab.

WINTERBOTHAM, GEOFFREY LEONARD B.A. (Cantab.), Merchant, Partner, Messrs. Wallace & Co., b. 7 Oct. 1889. m. Hilda, youngest d. of D. Norton, C.S.I. Educ.: Malvern Coll. and Magdalen Coll., Cambridge. Business in India since 1912; appnt. Consul for Nam at Bombay, 1923. Member, Legislative Council, Bombay, 1926-27; Vice-President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1927 Address:

Sakina Mansion, Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay

WOOD, SIR JOHN BARRY, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., C.S.I., Resident in Kashmir, b. 1870. m. 1896 Ada Elizabeth, d. of G.A. Stack, I.E.S. Educ.: Marlborough, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Enr. I.C.S., 1894. Under-Sec to Govt. of India Foreign Dept., 1899-1903; 1st. Asst. in Baluchistan, 1903; Dy. Sec., Foreign Dept. 1906-10; Resident, Indore, 1912; Pol. Sec., Government of India, 1914-22. Address: Srinagar, Kashmir.

WYNNDHAM, PERCY, C.I.E., C.B.E., R.G.S., Commsr., Kunzong, since 1913. b. 12 Dec 1867. Educ.: Oglethorpe Sch., Queen's Coll. Oxford, M.A., joined I.C.S., 1889, Magte and Collector, Mirzapur, 1900-1913. Commsioner, Naini Tal, from 1913. Address: Naini Tal.

YAIN, LEE AH, K.-I.-H. (Gold), Bar-at-Law, M.L.C. President, Rangoon Corporation; Fellow of Rangoon University. b. April 1874, Educ.: Rangoon College and Cambridge. Address: 67, Merchant Street, Rangoon.

YULE, SIR DAVID, Bart. (1922), Managing Director, Messrs. Andrew Yule & Co., Ltd. b. 4 Aug. 1858. m. Annie Henrietta Yule, d. of late Andrew Yule. Educ.: R. High School, Edinburgh. Joined firm of Andrew Yule & Co., Calcutta, 1875; Director of London Joint City and Midland Bank, Ltd., Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd., Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation. Address: 8, Olive Row, Calcutta.

ZIMMERMAN, THE REV. ROBERT, S.J., Ph.D. Professor of Sanskrit and Indian Philosophy St. Xavier's College b. 24 Oct. 1871. Member of the Society of Jesus, Educ.: Stans and Schwyz (Switzerland), Valkenburg (Holland), St. Ronno's (England), Berlin. Prof. of Sanskrit Literature and Indian Philosophy, St. Xavier's College, Bombay; University Lecturer. Publications: Die Quellen der Mahabharata-Vpanisad und das Verhältniss der verschiedenen Rezensionen zu einander (Diss.) Leipzig, 1912. Edr. of A Second Selection of Hymns from the Rigveda. R.S.P.S., V. 11, 2nd ed. Bombay, 1922. Contributions to philological and philosophical journals. Address: St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay.

The Calendars.

A full Calendar will be found at the beginning of this book. Below are given details of the other Calendars in use in India.

The *Jewish* Calendar is in accordance with the system arranged A.D. 358. The Calendar dates from the Creation, which is fixed as 3,760 years and 3 months before the beginning of the Christian Era; the year is Luni-solar.

The *Mohammedan*, or era of the Hejira, dates from the day after Mahomet's flight from Mecca, which occurred on the night of July 12, 622 A.D. The months are Lunar.

The *Fashi* year was derived from a combination of the Hejira and Samvat years by the order of Akbar; it is Luni-solar. The *Bengali* year seems also to have been related at one time to the Hejira, but the fact of its being Solar made it lose 11 days each year.

The *Samvat* era dates from 57 B.C., and is Luni-solar. The months are divided into two fortnights—*sudi*, or bright, and *badi*, or dark. Each fortnight contains 15 tithis, which furnish the dates of the civil days given in our calendars.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS IN 1928.

Parsee (Behenshahf).

Jamshedi Naoroz	March	21
Avan Jashan	April	15
Adar Jashan	May	14
Zarthost-no-Diso	June	15
Gatha Gambhars	September	5
Parsi New Year	"	7 & 8
Khordad Sal	"	13

Parsee (Kadmi).

Avan Jashan	March	16
Jamshedi Naoroz	"	21
Adar Jashan	April	14
Zarthost-no-Diso	May	16
Gatha Gambhars	August	6 & 7
New Year	"	8 & 9
Khordad Sal	"	14

Mahomedan (Sunni).

Shab-e-Barat	February	7
Ramzan-Id	March	24
Bakri-Id	May	30
Muharram	June	28
Ashura	"	29
Barawafat	August	29
Misim Fair (Bombay City only)	December	27

Mahomedan (Shiah).

Shahadat-e-Hazrat Ali	March	14
Ramzan-Id	"	24
Bakri-Id	May	30
Muharram	June	28
Ashura	"	29
Shahadat-e-Imam Hasan	August	15
Barawafat	"	29
Id-e-Maulud	September	3

Hindu.

Makar Shankranti	January	14
Holi (2nd day)	March	6
Rama Navami	"	29
Cocosnut Day	August	30
Gokul Ashtami	September	6
Ganesh Chaturthi and Samvat-sari	"	17
Dussehra	October	23
Diwali	Nov.	12 & 13

Jewish.

Pesach (2nd day)	April	5 & 11
Shabnoth	May	23
Tishabeb	July	26
Rosh Hoshana (1st day)	September	15
Kippur (2nd day)	"	24
Sukkoth (1st day)	"	30

Jain.

Chaitra Sud 15	April	5
Shravan Vad 13, 15 and Bhadarva Sud 1	Sept. 12, 14 & 15	
Samvatsari	"	19
Pajushan Bhadarva Sud 5	"	1
Kartik Sud 15	November	27

Christian.

Day following New Year	January	2
Good Friday	April	6
Easter	"	7 & 9
Christmas	December	24 to 29
New Year's Eve	"	31

NOTE.—If any of the Mahomedan holidays notified above does not fall on the day notified, the Mahomedan holiday may be granted on the day on which the holiday is notified in addition to the day notified.

THE INDIAN CALENDARS.

Mahomedan.

1928	1346.
January 1	.. Rajab 7
January 23	.. Shaban .. . 1
February 23	.. Ramzan .. . 1
March 24	.. Shuwal .. . 1
April 22	.. Zil-kal-deh .. 1
May 21	.. Til-hijeb .. . 1

1928.	1347.
June 20	.. Mohurrum .. 1
July 19	.. Safar .. . 1
August 18	.. Rubbi-ul-Awwal .. 1
September 16	.. Rubbis-us-Sanee .. 1
October 16	.. Jamadi-ul-Awwal .. 1
November 15	.. Jamadi-ul-Sanee .. 1
December 14	.. Rajab .. . 1
December 31	.. Rajab .. . 18

Bengalee.

1928.	1354.
January 1	.. Pous .. . 18
January 17	.. Magh .. . 1
February 14	.. Falgoon .. . 1
March 14	.. Choitro .. . 1

1928.	1355.
April 14	.. Boysack .. . 1
May 15	.. Joistro .. . 1
June 17	.. Srabun .. . 1
August 17	.. Bhadro .. . 1
September 17	.. Assin .. . 1
October 18	.. Kartick .. . 1
November 17	.. Aghraam .. . 1
December 16	.. Pous .. . 1
December 31	.. Pous .. . 16

Samvat.

(S=Sudee, B=Budee.)

1928.	1984.
January 1	.. Pous .. . S 9
January 8	.. Magh .. . B 1
January 23	.. Magh .. . S 1
February 6	.. Falgoon .. . B 1
February 22	.. Falgoon .. . S
March	.. Chyt .. . B 1

1928

1935.

March 22	.. Chyt .. . S 1
April 6	.. Bysack .. . B 1
April 21	.. Bysack .. . S 1
May 5	.. Jhyt .. . B 1
May 20	.. Jhyt .. . S 1
June 4	.. Assar .. . B 1
June 18	.. Assar .. . S 1
July 4	.. Sawun .. . B 1
July 18	.. Malwan .. . S 1
August 2	.. Malwan .. . B 1
August 16	.. Sudhya .. . S 1
September 1	.. Bhadoon .. . B 1
September 15	.. Bhadoon .. . S 1
September 30	.. Assin or Kuar .. B 1
October 14	.. Assin or Kuar .. S 1
October 29	.. Kartick .. . B 1
November 13	.. Kartick .. . S 1
November 28	.. Aghan .. . B 1
December 13	.. Aghan .. . S 1
December 27	.. Pous .. . B 1
December 31	.. Pous .. . S 5

Faslee.

1928	1355.
January 1	.. Pous .. . 24
January 8	.. Magh .. . 1
February 6	.. Falgoon .. . 1
March 7	.. Chyt .. . 1
April 6	.. Bysack .. . 1
May 5	.. Jeth .. . 1
June 4	.. Assar .. . 1
July 4	.. Sawun .. . 1
August 2	.. Mal Lawun .. . 1
September 1	.. Bhadoon .. . 1

1928.

1935.

September 30	.. Assin or Kuar .. 1
October 29	.. Kartick .. . 1
November 28	.. Aghan .. . 1
December 27	.. Pous .. . 1
be 3	.. Pous .. . 5

Telegu & Canarese.

(S=Sudee, B=Budee.)

1928.		1477.	
January 1	..	Pushyam	.. S 9
January 8	..	Pushyam	.. B 1
January 23	..	Magham	.. S 1
February 6	..	Magham	.. B 1
February 22	..	Paigunam	.. S 1
March 7	..	Paigunam	.. B 1
March 22	..	Chitram	.. S 1
April 8	..	Chitram	.. B 1
April 21	..	Vaishakam	.. S 1
May 5	..	Vaishakam	.. B 1
May 20	..	Jyosthom	.. S 1
June 4	..	Jyosthom	.. S 1
1928.		1477.	
June 18	..	Ashadain	.. S 1
July 4	..	Ashadain	.. B 1
August 2	..	Adhika-Stravanam	.. B 1
August 16	..	Nija-Stravanam	.. S 1
September 1	..	Nija-Stravanam	.. B 1

1928.		1478.	
September 25	..	Bhadrapadam	.. S 1
September 30	..	Bhadrapadam	.. B 1
October 14	..	Ashwiyam	.. S 1
October 29	..	Ashwiyam	.. B 1

1928.

1478.

November 13	..	Kartikam	.. S 1
November 28	..	Kartikam	.. B 1
December 13	..	Margasiram	.. S 1
December 21	..	Margasiram	.. B 1
December 31	..	Margasiram	.. B 5

Tamil & Malayalam.

1928.

1103.

January 1	..	Margali Dhanusu.	17
January 14	..	Fai-Makaram	1
February 13	..	Marsai-Kumbam	1
March 13	..	Pangub-Meenam	1
April 13	..	Chitral-Mecham	1
May 14	..	Valayi-Vrishabam	1
June 14	..	Ami-Mithunam	1
July 16	..	Adi-Karkazam	1

1928.

1104.

August 16	..	Avani-Sutham	1
September 16	..	Poorashi-Kanya	1
October 17	..	Aippasi-Thulam	1
November 16	..	Kartikai-Brishikam	1
December 15	..	Margali Dhanusu.	1
December 31	..	Margali Dhanusu	17



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INDEX

Index to Imperial Trade Guide and advertised businesses, see pages iv to vi.

	PAGE		PAGE
Abor Expedition	255	Act Indian Succession (Amendment) ..	483
Absorption of gold	722	— Tariff (Amendment)	393
Accidents, mining	673	— Tariff (Cotton Yarn Amendment) ..	493
— Railway	645	— Natal Township	438
— Agriculturists Loans and Land Improvement Loans	412	— Newspapers Incitements to Offences ..	606
Act Aden Civil and Criminal Justice High Court Jurisdiction (Amendment)	494	— Oudh Tenancy	244
— Assam Labour and Emigration (Amendment)	494	— Presidency Banks (1878)	619
— Bamboo Paper Industry (Protection) ..	493	— Press and Registration of Books (1867) ..	606
— Burma Laws	216	— Prevention of Seditious Meetings ..	61
— Cantonments (Amendment)	493	— Prisons (of 1894)	489
— Central Provinces Village Panchayat	159	— Presidency Towns Insolvency (Amendment)	493
— Criminal Law (Amendment)	493	— Provident Funds (Amendment)	491
— Currency	491	— Punjab Land Alienation	61
— Commonwealth Electoral	433	— Repealing and Amending	481, 492
— Co-operative Credit Societies	412, 413	— Sea Customs	727
— Cotton Goss	692	— Sea Customs (Amendment)	491
— Duties	689	— Societies Registration (Amendment) ..	493
— Ginning and Pressing Factories	693	— Steel Industry (Protection)	491
— Transport	693	— Universities	382
— Criminal Law (Amendment)	61	— Vernacular Press	60, 606
— Declaratory	176	— Village Self-Government	361
— Finance	491	— Workmen's Compensation	504
— Government of India	66	Adam's Bridge	661
— Imperial Bank of India (of 1920) ..	619	Aden administration	178
— Income-Tax (Amendment)	494	— Area	177
— Indian Bar Councils (Amendment) ..	492	— British Policy in	177
— Coinage	390	— Climate	178
— Copyright	725	— Physical features	176
— Cotton Duties	689	— Population	177
— Councils	61	— Strategic Importance	177
— Currency, 1927	300	Administration, Aden	178
— Divorce (Amendment)	492, 491	— Army	264
— Emigration (Amendment)	494	— Assam	178
— Forests	492	— Baluchistan	176
— High Courts	477	— Agency	187
— Insolvency (Amendment)	492	— Baroda	186
— Lighthouse	492	— Bengal Presidency	144
— Limitation (Amendment)	491	— Bihar and Orissa	151
— Limitation Second (Amendment)	491	— Civil and Criminal Justice High Court Jurisdiction (Amendment) Act ..	494
— Madras Salt (Amendment)	491	— Bombay Presidency	95
— Merchant Shipping (Amendment)	492	— Burma	142
— Merchandise Marks	720, 726	— Central Provinces and Berar	158
— Mines	497	— of French India	237
— Indian Patents and Designs	720	— Hyderabad	182
— Press (1910)	606	— Kashmir	218, 219
— Registration (Amendment)	491	— Madras Presidency	101
— Securities (Amendment)	493	— Mysore	184
		— N. W. Frontier Provinces	169
		— of Justice	476
		— Police	484

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	Page		Page
Administration, of Portuguese India ..	234	Agriculture, Live-stock	326
— Punjab	134	— Madras Presidency	304
— United Provinces	134	— Manures	322
Administrative Divisions	91	— Mysore	125
Adventists, Seventh Day Mission ..	470	— N. W. Frontier Provinces ..	109
Advisory Committees (Local), Railway	646	— People engaged in	26
Afghanistan	229, 249	— Punjab	134
— Consul for	258	— Statistics	320, 337
— Relations with India	250	— United Provinces	123
Alghan Wars .. 239, 230, 231, 249, 251.	263	Agricultural Capital	320
— Mission to India, 1920	251	— Commission	412, 421
— Peace Treaty	282	— Committee	421
Age and Sex	22	— Co-operative Societies	413, 414
Agency, Political, Baluchistan ..	187	— Department, Work of	328
— — Bijapur	204	— Holdings, nature of	294
— — Central India	193	— Implements	320
— — Cutch	203	— Irrigation	322
— — Dharwar	205	— Machinery	320
— — Kara	205	— Produce	321
— — Kathiawar	201	— Progress	328
— — Kolaba	205	— Research Institute and College ..	328
— — Kolhapur	205	— Societies	414, 416
— — Mahi Kantha	205	— and Horticultural Society of India	
— — Nasik	206	(Calcutta)	440
— — Palanpur	203	Agri-Horticultural Society of Burma ..	443
— — Rajputana	187	— — Madras	443
— — Rewa Kantha	206	Ahmedabad, yarn at	697
— — Sholapur	207	Air currents	344
— — Sukkur	208	— Forec. Royal	208
— — Surat	208	Ajmer-Merwara	179
— — Thana	208	Akalkot	207
Agra and Delhi Architecture	33	Akali movement	63
Agreement, Anglo-Russian	231	Akbar, Emperor	53
— Anglo-Persian	244	Alexander the Great	51
— Opium, with China	715	Aligarh University	396
Agriculture	320	Allahabad University	392
— area (tables) .. 321, 323, 325, 327, 331, 336		All-India Congress	776, 777, 778
— — under irrigation	330	— — Missions	489
— Assam	171	Alwar State	193
— Baluchistan	176	Amb State	199
— Baroda	180	Amb	199
— Bengal	113	Amber	671
— Bihar and Orissa	150	Ambernath Scheme	369
— Board of	328	Ambulance Association, St. John ..	540
— Bombay Presidency	94	American Arcot Mission	468
— Burma	141	— Baptist Foreign Mission	468
— C. F. and Berar	157	— Board of Commissioners for Foreign	
— Chief Crops	322	Missions	468
— Crop forecasts	337	— Consul	261
— Dairying	527	— Evangelical Lutheran Mission ..	472
— Hyderabad	183	— Friends' Mission	472
— Improvements	329	— — Mission	470
— Imperial Depa. of	328	— Presbyterian Mission	46

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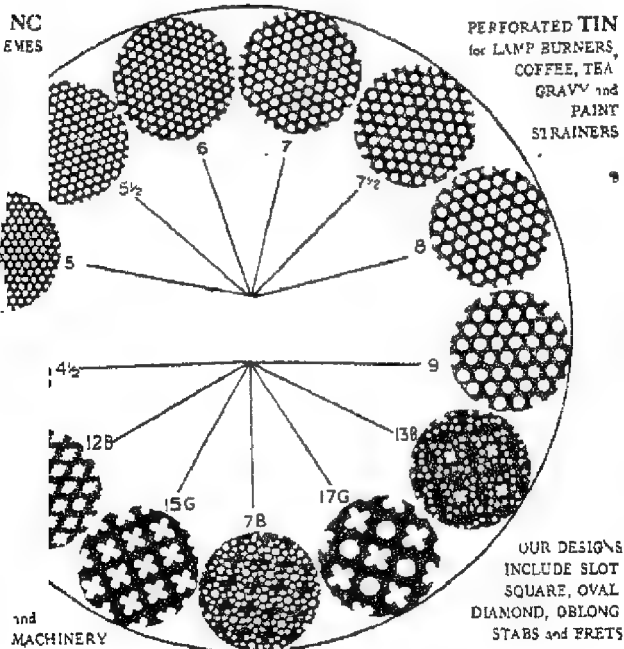
The Bank is to enter into partnerships and execute

	PAGE		PAGE
Amir Habibullah	250	Army, Cavalry, British	267
— and the War	250	— Command, Chain of	266
Anatolian Railway Company	256	— Commander-in-Chief	264
Anchor Line	511	— Fighting Races	278
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	178	— French Wars	262
Andhra Valley Project	358	— Frontier Militia	270
Andhras	52	— Headquarters	265
Anglican bishops	457	— Health of	283, 385
— Missionary Societies	459	— Hyderabad	163
Anglo-Indian League	443	— Indian Forces	269
Anglo-Indians	21	— Mutiny	263
Anglo-Persian Agreement	244	— State Forces	274
Anglo-Russian Agreement	231, 244, 259	— Territorial Force	272
Animals destroyed	537	— Troops	280
Annexation of Oudh	58	— Infantry, British	267
— Pegu	58	— Kashmir	218
— Punjab	58	— King's Commission	274
— Upper Burma	58	— Kitchener's (Lord) Scheme	264
Anthropological Society of Bombay	442	— Levy Corps	273
Appointments, India Office	180	— Military Council	265
— Miscellaneous	84	— Farms Department	272
Arbitration of industrial disputes	500	— Military Territorial Areas	288
Archæology	43	— Mysore	184
— Caves	44	— National Defence, Expenditure on 277, 278, 279	
— Department	46	— Officers	274, 275
— Gandhara monuments	44	— Overseas Expeditions	282
— Inscriptions	45	— Remount Department	272
— Monumental pillars	42	— Reorganisation of 1798	262
— Saracenic Architecture	45	— Reserve of Officers, Indian	275
— Structural Temples	46	— Salvation, in India	274
— Topes	44	— Service Corps, Indian	271
Archæological Survey	84	— Educational	273
Architecture	37	— Engineer	268
— Indian	37	— Mechanical Transport	272
— Modern	39	— Medical	271
Arco Mission	468	— Ordnance	272
Area, cultivated and uncultivated	327	— Remount	272
— of India	13, 181	— Signal	270
— of Indian States	13, 181	— Terms of	273
— under crops	331, 332, 333	— Veterinary	272
— Irrigation	330, 331	— Sikh Wars	263
Argentine Consul	268	— Squadrons	249
Army	262	— Staff	265
— and war	276	— State Forces	274
— Administration, present system	264	— Strength	271
— Afghan Wars	263	— Tank Corps, Royal	270
— Aircraft Depot	269	— Territorial Force	273
— Park	269	— Training Institutions	275
— Air Force, Royal	266	— Vellore Mutiny	262
— Artillery, Royal	267	— Viceroy's	274
— Auxiliary Force	273	Art, Bombay School of	35
— Baroda	86		
British Forces in India, Regular	267		

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Art, History of	33	Association, Share and Stock Brokers'	674
—Indian	33	—St. John Ambulance	340
—Painting, modern	24	—Women's Indian	451
—mural	36	—Young Men's Christian	451
—Schools of	35	—Young Women's Christian	46
—sculptures	33	—Hospitals and Dispensaries	537
—Society, Bombay	443	—Lepor	58
Artillery, Royal	267	—Lunatic	537
Arts, Industrial	40	—and Lunacy in India	537
—metal-work	41	Athletics	75
—modern conditions	42	Auckland, Lord	57
—stone-work	40	Aundh	207
—textiles	42	Aurangzebe	53
—wood-work	42	Australian Baptist Mission	488
Aryans, history of	51	Austria-Hungary Consul	253
Aryo-Dravidian people	12	Auxiliary and Territorial Force	279
Asoka, King of India	51	—Training of Indian Officers	275
Assam administration	173	—University Corps	274
—agriculture	171		
—border tribes	255		
—communications	171	Babar, Emperor	53
—Ecclesiastical Department	461	Back Bay Reclamation Inquiry	370
—Finances of	171	badges, Distinctive	578
—Judicial Department	480	Baldurston	815
—Labour and Emigration (Amend-	404	Baghdad Railway	131
ment) Act	171	—Map of	257
—Legislative Council	171	Bahawalpur	213
—manufactures, trade	171	Bahrain Islands	287
—minerals, mines	171	—communications	287
—Native States under	217	—customs duties	287
—Officials	173	—pearls	28
—population	171	—trade	287
—rainfall	171	Balance of Trade	781 770
—States under the Government of	217	Balsamor	206
Assembly, Legislative	87	Baluchistan administrations	175
Assistant Superintendents of Police	485	—Agency	187
Association, Bombay Millowners'	679	—Agriculture	175
—Mutual Insurance	680	—area	175
—British Empire Leprosy Relief	587	—education	175
(of) British University Women	453	—foundation of province	175
—Calcutta Jute Dealers'	704	—fishing	175
—Stock Exchange	674	—minerals	175
Cotton, East India	638	—officials	173
—Research	693	—physical features	173
—Grain Merchants'	682	—police	175
—Indian Research Fund	525	Bamboo and Paper Making	602
Jute Mills	702	—Paper Industry (Protection) Act	493
—Millowners', Bombay	679	Bangalore Races	789
—Mutual Insurance	680	Bangaopalle	200
—Native Piece-Goods	682	Bank branches	620
—Nursing	546	—at Bengal	620
—Press, of India	665	—of Bombay	621
Press Agents	448		

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	PAGE		PAGE
Bank of Madras	624	Banarès Hindu University	393
—Imperial, of India	619	Bengal administration	114
—Rate	623, 761	—Anarchy in	60
—Reserve	618	—and N. W. Railway	646
Bangers and Shroffs, Private	623	—area	113
Barkers' Clearing Houses	629	—Bank	623
—Indian private	623	—Chamber of Commerce	676
Banking business, classes of	620	—coal production	113
—in India	619	—Collectors	114
—progress	622	—Colleges	116
Banks at Baroda	130	—Commissioners	114
—Bengal, Bombay and Madras	623, 624	—Council	116
—Co-operative Central	417	—Courts of Justice	114
—Deposits in	623, 625	—Eastern Railway	647
—Exchange	624	—Ecclesiastical Department	460
—Joint Stock	626	—Education	115, 394
—Presidency	619	—Department	115
Barada	208	—exports	113
Barawara State	188	—factories	113
Baptist-Australian Foreign Mission	465	—finances	116
—Missions, American	466	—fisheries	591
—Canadian	465	—Governors of	118
—English	465	—Governor's staff	118
—Societies	465	—hospitals	115
—Strict Mission	466	—imports	113
—Telugu Mission	466	—Irrigation	115
Barakar Iron Works	666	—Judicial Department	479
Baria State	206	—languages	113
Bariya	206	—Legislative Council	119
Baroda administration	180	—Lieut.-Governors of	118
—agriculture	186	—Local Boards	114
—area	186	—Manufactures	113
—army	186	—Marine Department	115
—banks	186	—Medical Department	115
—Co-operative Credit Societies	186	—Municipalities	114
—education	186	—Nagpur Railway	643
—history	186	—natural productions	118
—Improvement Trust	187	—officials	113
—minerals	186	—opium	715
—population	186	—people of	113
—railways	186	—police	715
—revenue	186	—population	113
Basra	238	—Public Works	113
Bassein, Treaty of	56	—reunion of	62
Bastar State	213	—rising in	61
Battle of Buxar	55	—schools	115
—Chikankhwa	57	—sedition in	61
—Hydaspes	2	—soil	113
—Malwand	60	—States under	208
—Plassy	55	—trade	113
—Wandiwash	553		
Best Stations, Wireless	663	Lord & Illam	57
Belgian Consuls	253		
Benares	211		

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	PAGE		PAGE
Berar, <i>see</i> Central Provinces.		Birth Black Hole of Calcutta	55
—lease of districts	61	Blanket Weaving	705
Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute.	445	Board of Scientific Advice	224
Bharatpur State	191	Board Railway	83
Bhavnagar State	201	Boards, Local	362
Bhopal State	105	Bolivian Consul	258
Bhor	207	Bombay	94
Bhutan State	197	—Anthropological Society of	443
Bibby Line	511	—Art Society	443
Bible and Medical Mission	471	—Bank	624
Bibliography Forest	602	—Baroda and C. I. Railway	847
—Glass and Glassware	717	—Chamber of Commerce	678
—Mines and Minerals	673	—Indian Merchants	680
—Wool Industry	705	—Development Scheme	367
—Irrigation	343	—Ecclesiastical Department	430
Bihar, ancient kingdom of	51	—Fisheries	591
—and Orissa administration	111	—Govt., Native States under	204
—agriculture	150	—Grain Merchants' Association	852
—area	150	—Housing	388
—Council	154	—Hydro-Electric Works	757
—Courts of Justice	151	—Improvement Trust	362, 366
—Ecclesiastical Dept.	451	—Piece-Goods Merchants' Association	680
—education	152	—Judicial Department	479
—famine	352	—Legislative Council	101
—fisheries	593	—Medical Association	441
—hospitals	152	—Medical Union	444
—Industries	150	—Military Lands	370
—Irrigation Department	151	—Millowners' Association	679
—Judicial Department	451	—Mutual Insurance Association	680
—land tenures	151	—Native Piece-Goods Association	682
—Legislative Council	151	—Natural History Society	443
—Manufactures	150	—Nursing Association	548
—Medical Department	152	—Police	98
—minerals	151	—Port Trust	367, 376
—Native States under	151	—Presidency administration	99
—officials	153	—area	94
—opium	150	—Banks	619, 620
—people	150	—collectorates	95
—police	151	—colleges	96
—rainfall	150	—Courts of Justice	95
—revenue	152	—District Police	96
—Roads and Buildings Dept.	151	—education	96, 390
—States under	209	—Finance	97
—tobacco	150	—fisheries	594
Bijapur Agency	204	—Governors	100
—architecture of	38	—hospitals	97
Bikaner State	192	—industries	94
Bilaspur	242	—Judicial Department	49
Billiards	313	—Legislative Council	101
Bills of exchange	625	—Manufactures	9
Birds' Plumage, Wild		—ed ca Dept.	9
Birth and Death	533		

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	PAGE		PAGE
Bombay Presidency Medical Union	444	Broadcasting	604
— Municipalities	95	Broadcast Receiver Licenses	604
— natural productions	94	Bronze Coinage	300
— officials	49	Buddhism	21
— people	94	Budge-Budge riot	92
— Political Agents	95	Budget, Indian	289, 290, 733
— population	94	Bondi State	190
— Port Trust	376	Bureau of Information, Indian Students'	442
— provincial finance	97	Burma administration	142
— schools	96	— agriculture	141
— sea trade	95	— annexation of Upper	60
— soil	94	— area	141
— staff of Governor	99	— borders	235
— States under Govt. of	204	— Chamber of Commerce	636
— talukas	95	— Chief Commissioners	146
— textile industry	94, 694	— Commissioners	142
— Races	786	— Courts of Justice	142
— Reclamation	370	— Ecclesiastical Dept	461
— Sanitary Association	414	— education in	143
— Stock Exchange Committee	674	— Finance	143
— riots in	62	— fisheries	583
— Royal Asiatic Society, Branch	443	— forests	141
— Sanitary Association	144	— Governors	146
— School of Art	36	— Industries	141
— Spinners	694	— Irrawaddy Flotilla Co.	141
— Stamp Duties	772	— irrigation	142
— Stock Exchange	674	— Judicial Dept	481
— University	392	— Justice in	142
— Woman Suffrage Debate	560	— Laws Act	216
Botanical Survey	84, 523	— Legislative Council	147
— Board of Scientific Advice	524	— Lieutenant-Governors	146
Boxing	806	— Medical Department	143
Boy Scouts	356	— minerals	141
Boys' Christian Home Mission	471	— Native States under	215
Brass-work	41	— natural productions	141
Brazilian Consuls	255	— officials	141, 146
Britain, Indians in	441	— people	141
British and Foreign Bible Society	444	— petroleum in	141, 670
— Leprosy Relief Association	537	— police	142
— Guiana and Fiji	433	— Railway	847
— India Law	476	— railways	141
— Steam Navigation Co.	511	— revenue	143
— Indian Peoples' Association	444	— States under Government of	215
— Infantry	267	— Un-iversity	142
— Medical Assocn. (Bombay)	444	Barren War	58 60
— officers in Native States	182	Batra new Bata	
— policy in Aden	177		
— in Persia	244		
Trade Commissioner Service in India	683		
University Women in India	483		

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	PAGE		PAGE
C		Central Provinces Chief Commissioners ..	164
Cairo to Koweit railway scheme ..	256	— — — — — and Colleges ..	159
Calcutta, Black Hole of ..	55	— — — — — Courts of Justice ..	168
— Chess Society ..	145	— — — — — development of ..	15
— Improvement Trust ..	365	— — — — — Ecclesiastical Dept. ..	461
— Jute Dealers' Association ..	691	— — — — — education ..	159
— Nursing Association ..	540	— — — — — hospitals ..	160
— Port Trust ..	375	— — — — — industries ..	157
— Races ..	785	— — — — — irrigation ..	158
— Stock Exchange ..	674	— — — — — Judicial Dept. ..	481
— University ..	302	— — — — — land system ..	157
— — — — — Commission ..	400	— — — — — languages ..	157
Calendars ..	905	— — — — — Legislative Council ..	165
— Indian ..	906	— — — — — District Local Boards ..	158
Cambay ..	204	— — — — — Medical Service ..	160
Campbell, Sir Colin (Colonel) ..	57	— — — — — Municipalities ..	158
Canadian Baptist Mission ..	465	— — — — — Officials ..	164
— Presbyterian Mission ..	467	— — — — — police ..	159
Canal, Suez ..	512	— — — — — revenue ..	161
Canals, see Irrigation.		— — — — — soil ..	157
Canning, Lord ..	58	— — — — — States under ..	218
Cantonments (Amendment) Act ..	493	— — — — — University ..	160
Capital, agricultural ..	320	— — — — — Village Panchayat Act ..	159
— the New ..	517	Ceylon Chamber of Commerce ..	687
Carpet weaving ..	705	— — — — — and India railway ..	631
Caste ..	24, 25	— — — — — General Mission ..	471
— Marks ..	30	— — — — — Races ..	797
Catholic Churches, Roman ..	463	Chamba State ..	212
Cauvery Reservoir Project ..	105, 312	Chamber, Indian Merchants' ..	680
Cavalry, British ..	247	— — — — — Princes' ..	220
Caves ..	41	Chamberlain Committee ..	302
Cawnpore, massacre at ..	58	Chambers of Commerce ..	675
Censorship, Press ..	605	— — — — — Associated Indian ..	675
Census ..	18	— — — — — Bengal ..	676
Central Agricultural Research Institute ..	693	— — — — — Bombay ..	678
— — — — — Asian Mission ..	472	— — — — — Burma ..	686
— — — — — railways ..	250	— — — — — Ceylon ..	687
— — — — — Board of Revenue ..	83	— — — — — Cocanada ..	696
— — — — — Co-operative Banks ..	417	— — — — — Indian ..	677
— — — — — Constitution of ..	417	— — — — — Indian Merchants' ..	680
— — — — — Functions of ..	417	— — — — — Karachi ..	683
— — — — — Madras ..	417	— — — — — Madras ..	683
— — — — — Working of ..	417	— — — — — Maharashtra ..	682
— — — — — Cotton Committee ..	692	— — — — — Northern India ..	684
— — — — — Government ..	57	— — — — — Punjab ..	686
— — — — — India Agency ..	193	— — — — — Southern India ..	684
— — — — — Legislature ..	782	— — — — — United Provinces ..	685
— — — — — Provinces and District administration ..	155	— — — — — Upper India ..	684
— — — — — Agriculture ..	157	Chandernagar ..	228
	167	Chandragupta, Emperor ..	51
		Chank Fisheries ..	591
		Chaplains, Wesleyan ..	402
		Charter Act now ..	67

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How

	PAGE		PAGE
Chainsford Frontier Policy	246	Clive, Lord, Policy of	53
—Reform Scheme	66	Clubs	455
Chemical Society, Indian	445	Coal	662
Chemicals	766	—Committee	663
Chhota Udaipur	206	—Industry	669
Chiefs' Colleges	401	—prices	662
Child Welfare Centres	538	—production (table)	663
—Movement	638	Cocaine importation	714
Children, Employment of	497	—penalties	714
Chillian Consuls	258	—smuggling	714
China Opium Agreement	714	—use of	714
Chinese Consul	258	Cocanada Chamber of Commerce	636
—in Tibet	253	Cochin State	200
Chitral	190	—grants sex equality	550
—campaign	60	Code, Indian Penal	478
Chittagong Port	378	Codes, famine	363
Chota Nagpur	209	Coffee	719
Christian education, effects of	458	Coinage, weights and measures	40
—Home Mission, Boys	471	—Committee of In- quiry	50
—and Missionary Alliance Mission	463	—Government action	50
—Missions, indirect effects of	458	—Proposed reforms	49
—students	458	Coins, bronze	300
Christians in India	21	—copper	300
Christianity	21	—nickel	300
—Portuguese Empire and	468	—silver	300
Church in India	457	Collectorates, Bombay Presidency	0n
—Anglican Missionary Societies	459	Collectors, Bengal Presidency	114
—of the Brethren Mission	469	—Bombay Presidency	85
—and Education	458	—Burma	142
—of England, appt. of chaplains	457	—Madras Presidency	104
—Government	458	—Punjab	134
—Measure, Indian	457	—United Provinces	124
—of Ireland Presbyterian Mission	467	Colleges	389
—of Nazareth Mission	460	Collieries	39,644
—of Scotland	464	Colombo, railway to	651
—Sweden Mission	472	Colonies contribution to Navy	231
—United Free	463	Commerce and Industry	53 84
—Reunion	459	Commerce, Chambers of	63
—Roman Catholic	463	—Bengal	670
—Society for the Propagation of the Gospel	459	—Bombay	678
—Syrian	458	—Burma	686
—Wesleyan Chaplains	462	—Ceylon	687
Churches, Scottish	464	—Cocanada	696
City and Hall Lines	511	—Indian	677
Civil Suits	477, 493	—Indian Merchants'	680
Clearing accounts office, railway	635	—Karachi	683
—houses, bankers'	629	—Madras	683
Climate, North-West Frontier	168	—Maharashtra	682
—of India	220	—Northern India	684
Clive, Lord	53	—Punjab	685
		—S. India	684
		U P	685
		Upper India	684

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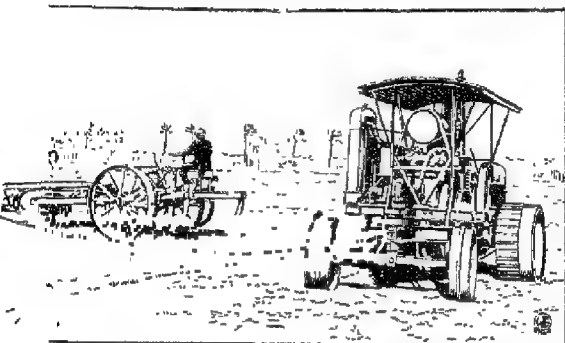
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	PAGE		PAGE
Commercial Intelligence System	687	Congregational Mission	468
Commission Agricultural	412	— Societies	368
— Calcutta University	400	Congress, Indian Science	528
— Co-operative (1901)	112	— National	775
— Education	392	— Trade Union	495
— Agricultural	421	Conspiracy case, Lahore	62
— Famine	353	Constants, tidal	45
— Finance and Currency	308	Constitution of India Office	179
— Hunter	62	Consuls, Foreign, in India	258
— Industrial (Indian)	357	Consumptives' Home Society	450
— Irrigation	420	Contracts, Railway	639
— Jail	488, 489	Contributions, famine	259
— Simon (Sir John)	65, 777	— Provincial	28
— University	392, 400	— to Navy (table)	281
Commissioner, (British Trade) Service in India	638	Convict employment	456
Commissioners, Bengal Presidency	114	Cooch-Bihar State	209
— Bombay Presidency	95	Co-operation Commission, 1901	419
— Burma	141	— and Central Banks	418
— Central Provinces	158	— recent Government action	41
— Punjab	134	Co-operative Agricultural Societies 413, 414, 490	
— United Provinces	124	— Apex Banks	41
Committee, Agricultural	421, 422	— Baroda Societies	186
— Chamberlain	302	— Cattle Insurance Societies	420
— Coal	668	— Central Banks	417
— Cotton Contracts	693	— Bombay	418
— Cotton, Indian	692	— Madras	417
— Currency	304	— Commission of 1901	4
— Exchange	304	— Credit Societies Act	413
— Exchange, Indian (of 1919)	304	— Financing of Agricultural Societies	414
— Excise	296	— Genesis of	415
— Fowler	301	— Housing Societies	42
— Herschel	301	— Loans advanced	410
— Inchaape	288	— Movement	412
— Industrial Disputes	301	— Non-agricultural Societies	419
— Jails	488	— Organisation and propaganda	418
— Khilafat	720	— Producers' and Consumers' Societies	490
— Lytton	442	— Provincial Banks	418
— New Capital Enquiry	517	— Rural Societies	420
— Retrenchment	288	— Seed Societies	490
— Southborough Franchise	549	— Statistics	424, 429
— Weights and Measures	49	— Tagavi loans	422
Committees, Railway Advisory (Local)	646	— Weavers' Societies	419
Commonwealth Electoral Act	431	— Workers' Societies	419
Communications, Assam	171	Coorg	176
— Baroda	186	— education	409
— Hyderabad	183	Copper	671
— Kashmir	219	— coinage	300
— Rajputana Agency	187	Copyright	725
Company, East India	54	Corwallis, Ford	36
— Administration transferred	59		
— first formed	54		
Conciliation and Arbitration of industrial disputes	500		
Confederation, Indian Railway	635		
— National Labour	495		

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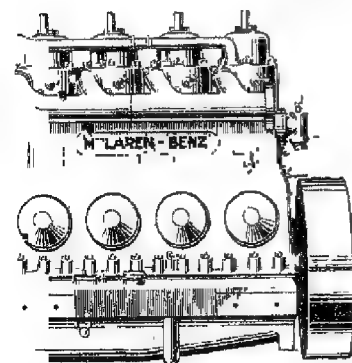
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PAGE

Cotton Association, East India	692	Crown, transfer to the	
—Central Committee	692	Cruciferous oilseeds	
—Cess Act	692	Cuba, Consul for	
—Committee, Indian	692	Cultivation, methods of	
—Contracts Committee	693	—of cotton	
—cultivation of	324	—jute	
—Duties Act, Indian	689	—linseed	
—East India Association	693	—millets	
—exports of	767	—oilseeds	
—Ginning and Pressing Factories Act..	693	—pulses	
—Manufactures, progress of	693	—rice	
—Piece-goods	762, 767	—sesamum	
—Transport Act.. ..	693	—sugarcane	
—Twist and Yarn	762, 767	—of tobacco	
Council, Assam	174	—wheat	
—Bengal Presidency	119	Cultivator, Govt. and the..	
—Bihar and Orissa	154	Currency	
—Bombay Presidency	101	—Act	
—Burma	147	—Chamberlain Committee	
—Central Provinces and Berar ..	165	—Commission of 1925—26	
—Imperial Legislatures	86	—Committee of 1919	
—elected members	87, 91	—Exchange Committee..	
—nominated members	90, 92	—Failure of Government p	
—Madras Presidency	109	—Fowler Committee	
—Military	265	—Gold Bullion Standard	
—Mysore	184	—Gold Exchange Standar	
—Punjab	138	—Gold Standard Reserve	
—of State	91	—Herschell Committee	
—United Provinces	130	—History of	
Countess of Dufferin's Fund	545	—Note issue	
Courts, High	477	—Paper, reserve.. ..	
—of Justice, Bengal Presidency ..	114	—Rate of Exchange	
—Bihar and Orissa	151	—Ratio	
—Bombay Presidency	95	—Reserve Bank.. ..	
—Burma	142	—Reserves	
—Central Provinces	168	—Rice in Exchange	
—Madras Presidency	166	—Scheme for Gold	
—Magistrates'	477	—Silver Standard	
—Punjab	133	—Sterling Remittances	
Court of Justice, Session	477	—System	
—Small Causes	477	—two shilling rupee	
—United Provinces	124	—and the War	
Cricket	802	—weights and measures	
Criminal Investigation Department ..	485	Curzon, Lord	
—Law (Amendment) Act	493	Curzon's (Lord) Frontier P	
—Tribes	489	Customs	
Criminals transported	489	—Manners and	
Crop forecasts	347	—Revenue	
Crops	322	—Traffic	
Cross, Red	559	Dutch State	
—Victoria	586	Outlery	
Crown of India, Order of	575	Oyalonic storms	
		Czechoslovak Republic (

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PAGE

D

Dacca University	333	Departments. Telegraph ..	
Dairying	327	Designs and Inventions ..	
Dalhousie, Lord	57, 58	Development Bombay, Scheme	
Daman Settlement	226	—Housing (Industrial)..	
Danish Evangelical Lutheran Mission ..	473	—Hydro-Electric ..	
Daphlapur State	204, 207	—Improvement Trust ..	
Darjeling Races	797	—Industrial Town ..	
Datia State	197	—Military Lands ..	
Death and birth rates	534	—Personnel	
—of Habibullah Khan	250	—Port Trust	
—rate in mines	673	—Reclamation, Back Bay	
—Redemption Committee	416	—Salsote	
Declaratory Act, 1780	476	—Scope of work	
Deities, Hindu	30	—of Burma	
Delhi, architectural style of	517	—Central Provs. ..	
—Chief Commissioner appointed ..	517	—N.-W. Frontier Prov.	
—cost of building	518	Dhar State	
—Durbar	63	Dharampur	
—Educational Institutions	519	Dharwar Agency	
—expenditure on	517	—Riots	
—Mutiny at	58	Dholpur State	
—Progress of work	518	Dhrangadhira State ..	
—site of new capital	517	Dit State	
—Town Planning Report	517	Disciple Societies	
—University	395	Disciples of Christ Missions	
—War Memorial (All-India) at ..	519	Dispensaries, Hospitals and As	
Denmark, Consul for	250	Distinguished Service Medal in	
Denominational schools	458	Distribution of population	
Department, Archaeological	84	District and Local Boards	
—Army	83	—Boards, Punjab ..	
—Botanical	84	—United Provinces	
—Commerce	84	—Judges	
—Commercial Intelligence and Statistics	687	—Magistrates, Bengal Pres	
—Education	82	—Monopoly Excise System	
—Finance	82	—Officers, Bihar and Orissa	
—Foreign	83	—Police, Bombay Pres.	
—Geological Survey	84	Districts, N.-W. Frontier Prov	
—Health	82	Diu, Island of	
—Home	83	Divisions, Administrative	
—Indian Stores	770	Domestic servants	
—Industries and Labour	83	—Ordinance No. 28 of 187	
—Lands	82	—No. 17 of 1914..	
—Legislative	84	—Penalties imposed on..	
—Military Finance	83	Dominion, beginnings of Briti	
—of Overseas Trade	686	—French	
—Political	83	Dongarpur State	
—Post Office	83	Dravidians, history of ..	
—Public Health	683	Dress, Indian	
Departments, Publicity	83	Drugs, excise system ..	
—Railway Board	83	Dufferin, Lord	
—Revenue, Central Board	83	—Fund. Countess of	
—Salt Revenue	84	Dupleix	

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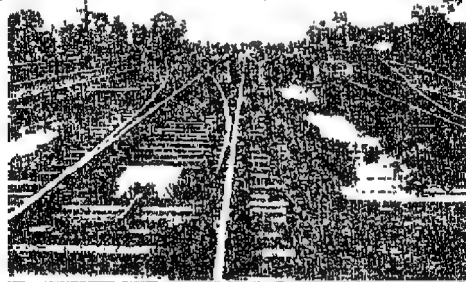
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	PAGE		PAGE
Durban Land Alienation Ordinance	430	Education, Madras Pres.	104 388
Durbar at Delhi	82	— Mysore	184
Duties, import	297	— North-West Provs.	407
Dyeing and Tanning substances	719	— Primary	337
		— Professional	389
		— Punjab	185, 399
		— Reforms Act	401
		— Secondary and High School	389
		— Students (Indian) in United Kingdom	401
		— Technical	389
		— United Provinces	125, 398
		— University reform	392
		— Universities	391
		— Women	398
		— Universities Commission	392
		— University Training Corps	398
		— Western Learning, Introduction of	389
		Educational enquiries, recent	381
		— progress	381
		— Service, Indian	400
		— Provincial	400
		— Subordinate	400
		— work, Baptist	400
		Electorate	68
		Electrification of Railways	650
		Elevators, grain	714
		Elgin, Lord	66
		Ellenborough, Lord	57
		Ellerman ("City" & "Hall") Line	511
		Emigration	431
		— Act	431
		— Fiji and British Guiana	438
		— statistics (table)	430
		Emperors of India, see Rulers	
		Empire, Portuguese	54
		— Order of Indian	564
		Employment of Convicts	488
		Empress of India proclaimed	59
		Engineers, Institution of	446
		English Dominion, beginning of	54
		— Education in India	339
		Episcopal (American) Methodist Mission	475
		Established Church of Scotland	484
		Establishment of Territorial Force	278
		Europe, routes to India from	511
		European Association	445
		— Jute Dealers' Association	704
		— and Native Magistrates	476
		— Settlements	54
		— War and India	62
		En opera, occupations of	59
		— ten Nations Missionary Society	473
		— of Stockholm	
Early marriages	23		
East India Company	51		
— Cotton Association	643		
— Indian Railway	647		
— Indies Squadron	230		
Eastern Bengal Railway	647		
Ecclesiastical Dept., Assam	461		
— Bengal Pres.	460		
— Bihar and Orissa	461		
— Bombay Pres.	460		
— Burma	461		
— Central Provs.	461		
— Madras Pres.	461		
— N.-W. Frontier	462		
— Punjab	462		
— United Provinces	462		
— Establishments	457		
Education	380		
— Ajmer-Merwar	409		
— Assam	405		
— Baluchistan	410		
— Bangalore	411		
— Baroda	186		
— Bengal Pres.	115, 294		
— Bihar and Orissa	152, 407		
— Bombay Pres.	96, 390		
— Burma	143, 402		
— Calcutta University Commission	400		
— Central Provs. and Bern	159, 404		
— Chiefs' Colleges	401		
— Colleges	389		
— Commission	382		
— Coorg	406		
— Delhi	408		
— Dept.	32, 400		
— Expansion of	382		
— Expenditure on	383		
— Female	398		
— girls' schools	398		
— History of	380		
— Hyderabad	182		
— Intermediate Colleges	389		
— Inter University Board	41		
— Indigenes	40		
— in the Army	398		

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	PAGE		PAGE
Events of 1927	62	Fa-hien, Chinese traveller	52
Exchange Banks	624	Families, Houses and	15
—Bills of	625	Family Names	32
—Business (table)	626	Famine, Bihar, 1873-4	352
—Committee, Indian	304	—codes	353
—deposits (table)	625	—commissions	353, 354
—history of	624	—cost of	354
—investments	625	—History of	352
—rise in	303	—Insurance Grant	353
—Stock	674	—Madras, 1866	352
Excise	295	—of 1899-1900	354
—Committee, Indian	296	—Orissa, 1865-7	352
—district monopoly system	295	—protection	354
—duty on cotton manufactures	700	—S. India, 1876-8	352
—Free supply system	295	—Trust, Indian	354
—on woven goods	700	—under native rule	352
—Out-still system	295	—Western India, 1868-70	352
—Right of Vend	295	Faridkot State	213
Expedition, Abor	255	Federation, National Liberal	778
—Tibet	253	—of Indian University women	458
Expenditure on new capital	518	Female education	396
—education	383	Feudatory States, Orissa	209
—Indian	292, 293	Fighting Races	274
—irrigation	338	Fiji and British Guiana	463
—marine	281	Finance	286
—on Delhi	518	—Act	401
—railway	641	—and Currency, Royal Commission on	393
—capital	641	—Baroda	188
—revenue and	292	—Budget, 1925-27	290
—Royal Indian Marine	281	—Department	82
Exports	761, 766	—Hyderabad	183
—Coffee	712	—Inchcape Committee	258
—Cotton	694	—Kashmir	218
—Indigo	708	—Mysore	183
—principal	767	—Post Office Cash Certificates	291
—silk	707	—Provincial Contributions	287, 290
—tea	709	—Railway	288
—textile	695	—Reconhement	288
—tobacco	713	—Revenue and Expenditure	290
—wool	705	—Salt Tax	286
		—Ways and Means	220
		Fines and short sentences	489
		Finland, Consul for	259
		Fish-curing	581
		Fisheries	581
		—Bengal and Bihar and Orissa	593
		—Bengal Department of	593
		—Bombay	594
		—Burma	596
		—Madras	594, 592
Factories, Bengal	113		
—Bombay	94		
—Madras	104		
	713		
United Provinces	496	of	596
Acts	496	Pearl and chank	591

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	PAGE		PAGE
Fisheries, Punjab	598	Friends' Missionary Assocn.	472
—Sind	598	Frontiers of India	229
—Travancore	596	—Afghanistan	229, 249
—Welfare work among fisherfolk	593	—Afghan War	216, 250, 251
Fishing in Baluchistan	175	—Anglo-Russian Agreement	281, 245
—rights	592	—Baghdad Railway, significance of	232
Flotilla Company, Irrawaddy	141	—Bahrein	237
Football in India	801	—Basra, its future	238
Force, Indian Auxiliary	273	—Bolshevik Penetration	251
Forecasts, Crop	337	—Campaigns	60
Foreign Consuls in India	258	—Chelmsford policy	246
—Dept.	83	—Curzon (Lord) policy	230, 231, 245
—possessions in India	225	—French Claim on Maskat	233
—Chandernagar	228	—Gates to India	246
—Daman	226	—German Menace	251
—Diu	226	—Habibullah Khan assassinated	230, 250
—Goa	222	—Iraq	238
—Karikal	228	—Koweit	237
—Marmugao, Port of	224	—Map	243
—Pondicherry	223	—Maskat	237
—postage rates	528	—Middle East (Map of)	241
Forests, Indian	597	—Militia	275
—Government Policy	597	—Muhammarah	237
—industries	599	—North-Eastern	255
—main types	597	—North-West	16
—products	589	—Persia	244
—research	590	—Persian Gulf	235
—service	598	—Persian Shore	242
—state	597	—Pirate Coast	237
—statistics	601	—Policies	236
—Burma	141	—Problems	245
—distribution of State	597	—Province	671
Fort St. George, Presidency of	104	—Relations with India	250
—Presidents of	108	—Selstan	241
—William, Governors of	118	—Treaty with Iraq	240
Foundation of Baluchistan Province	175	—Two policies	236
Fowler Committee	301	—Tibet	252
France, Consul for	259	—Tribes	246
Freemasonry	520	—Turkey	233
Free Methodist Mission of N. America	474	—Waziristan	234, 248
—supply system, Excise	295	Fund, Countess of Dufferin's	549
French claims on Maskat	233		
—Consul	259		
—fringings of	51, 55		
—India	227	Gandharv monuments	44
—in Syria	256	Ganges Canal	58
—with the	54	Gates	246
—with Maskat	237	Gates to India	249
Wars	54, 24		

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	PAGE		PAGE
Gauges, railway	635	Government Central election	68, 73
Guatemalan Consul	259	—franchise	68, 73
Gem stones	672	—Powers	78
Geological Dept.	34, 523	—changes made in	75
German Consul	259	—Deposits with Banks	623, 624, 625
—Menace	231	—division of functions	80
—railways in Turkey	231	—dyarchy	66
Germany, India and war with	62	—electorates	63
— and Indian frontiers	231	—Executive and Legislature	76
Girls' schools	398	—Finance	67
Glass and Glassware	716	—functions of	65
—Bibliography	717	—Governors-General	95
—Manufacture in India	716	—India Office	79
—Causes of failure	717	—Irrigation Works	340, 341
Glossary, Indian	2	—machinery of	76
Goa	522	—Paper	761
Gold, absorption of	722	—personnel and procedure	80
—Coinage	500	—powers of Provincial Legislative Councils	74
—Exchange Standard	501	—provincial administration	66
—production of	670	—provision of funds	77
—Standard Reserve	301, 302, 303	—reforms of 1910	66
Golf in India	505	—Stores	770
Gondal State	202	—transfer of control	78
Gough, Lord	58	—Viceroys of India	85
Government and Banking	619	—Voters' qualifications	68
—and cultivator	264	Governor-General's Council	82
—and district boards	362	—Secretarial Depts.	82
—Assam	173	—staff	82
—Baluchistan	175	Governors-General of Fort William	85
—Bengal	114	—of India	85
—Bihar and Orissa	151	—Assam	173
—Bombay	95	—Central Provinces	164
—Burma	142	—of Bengal	113
—business procedure	80	—of Bombay	100
—Central Provs and Berar	158	—Burma	146
—control of railways	693	—Bihar and Orissa	154
—deposits (tables)	622, 625	—of Madras	100
—functions	80	—of Punjab	135
—Home	179	—of United Provinces	129
—local self	300	Grain elevators	710
—of India	65	—Merchants' Assocn.	682
—Madras	104	Graphite	671
—personnel	80	Great Indian Peninsula Railway	647
—Punjab	134	Greek Consul	259
—revenue	293	Guarantee, Govt., on railways	623
—United Provinces	181	Guatemala, Consul, for	259
—of India	65	Gwana British and Fiji	428
—Act	66	Gupta Dynasty	62
—appointments	82	—State	144
—Central Government	77		

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H

Habibullah Amir	229, 250
Hall Line	511
Hardinge, Lord	762
Hastings, Marquis of (Lord Moun- —Warren	56 55
Health of Army	280, 531
—public	15
Hebrew Christian Mission	472
Hemp	704
Henderson Line	511
Hephzibah Faith Missionary Association	463
Herschell Committee	301
Hersha, Emperor	62
Hides, exports of	718
—skins and leather	718, 767
—workers in	718
High Commissioner for India	791
High Court Acts, Indian	477
Hill Missions, Kurku and Central India	471
Hindu deities	30
—Mahomedan riots	62
—University	343
Hinduism	21
History of India	51
—Afghan Wars	57, 60
—Akali movement	63
—Alexander's invasion	51
—Andhras	52
—Baroda	186
—Burmese Wars	56
—Chelmsford's (Lord) Viceroyalty	62
—Clive's administration	55
—Coinage	210
—Currency and Exchange	308
—Curzon's Viceroyalty	61
—Dharwar riots	62
—Education	380
—European settlements	51
—Events of 1927	64
—Famine	352
—French Wars	54
—Frontier campaigns	60
—Gupta dynasty	52
—Hastings, Warren	55
—Hindu-Mahomedan riots	62, 61
—Hunter Commission	62
—Kashmir	216
—Malagaon riots	62
—Mahomedan invasion	53
at Cawnpore	58

History, Maratha Wars	56
—Montagu-Chelmsford Reforma- —Montagu's visit to India	62 80
—Mopla Rebellion	62
—Mughal Empire	63
—Mutiny, sepoy	58
—Mysore	184
—Wars	56
—Nepal War	56
—Non-Co-operation movement	63
—Origins of Indian	51
—Pindaris	59
—Plassey, battle of	55
—Prince of Wales' visit	61
—Rajputs	50
—Reading's (Lord) Viceroyalty	62
—Religious Agitations	63
—Royal Indian Marine	281
—Russian menace	61
—Salt Tax	65
—Sangathan	62
—Sikh Wars	57
—Social reform	57
—Suddhi	63
—Treaty of Sugauli	56
—Visit of King and Queen	62
—Welllesley's (Lord) Policy	60
Hockey	211
Holdings, nature of agricultural	204
—peasant	204
—private improvements on	204
—Ryotwari	204
—Zemindari	204
Home Department	81
—Government	178
—Appointments	150
—High Commissionerhip	179
—History of	179
—India Council	179
—Secretary of State	179
Hospitals, Bengal Presidency	115
—Bihar and Orissa	162
—Bombay Presidency	97
—Burma	143
—Central Provinces	160
—class of	37
—dispensaries and asylums	337
—numbers of	337
—patients in	135
—Punjab	135
—United Provinces	135
Hotels in India	516

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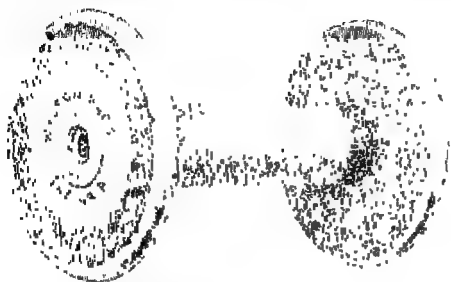
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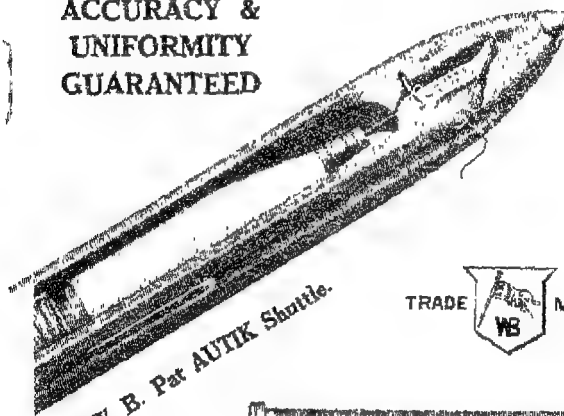
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	PAGE		PAGE
Indian Chemical Society ..	415	Indian Limitation (Amendment) Act ..	491
—Christian Mission ..	460	—Manners and Customs ..	23
—Clubs, Principal ..	455	—Marine, Royal ..	281
—Coal Committee ..	663	—Mathematical Society ..	448
—Coinage ..	290	—Merchandise Marks Act ..	720, 726
—Contribution to Navy ..	281	—Merchants' Chamber of Commerce ..	630
—Copyright Act ..	725	—Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Act, 1922	492
—cotton ..	324	—Meritorious Service Medal ..	577
—Committee (Central) ..	694	—Mines Act ..	497
—Duties Act ..	680	—Mints ..	268
—Councils Act ..	61	—Missionary Society of Tinnevely ..	462
—Currency Act, 1927 ..	306	—Municipalities ..	361
—Committee ..	301	—Moliny ..	203
—system ..	576	—Names ..	31
—Distinguished Service Medal ..	492, 494	—National Congress ..	775
—Divorce (Amendment) Act ..	283	—Navy, Royal ..	284
—Dockyards ..	23	—Newspapers ..	608
—Dress ..	457	—Order of Merit ..	573
—Ecclesiastical Establishments ..	380	—Orders ..	585
—Education ..	400	—Paintings ..	34
—Educational Service ..	494	—Patents and Designs Act ..	720
—Emigration (Amendment) Act ..	431	—peoples, occupations of ..	26
—emigration ..	26	—Police ..	454
—Occupations of peoples ..	564	—Ports ..	375
—Empire, Order of the ..	13, 181	—Press Act (1910) ..	606
—People ..	13, 181	—Press ..	806
—Population ..	304	—Law ..	806
—Exchange Committee ..	536	—Racing ..	786
—Excise Committee ..	354	—Railways ..	631
—Famine Trust ..	286	—Gauges ..	634
—Finance ..	481	—(Statistics) ..	652, 660
—Finance Act ..	598	—Red Cross Society ..	559
—Forest Engineering Service ..	761	—Registration (Amendment) Act ..	491
—Foreign Trade ..	492	—Religions ..	20
—Forests Act ..	557	—Research Fund ..	525
—Forests ..	220	—Association ..	539
—Frontiers ..	230, 245	—Securities (Amendment) Act ..	493
—Frontier Problem ..	523	—Succession (Amendment) Act ..	493
—Geological Survey ..	718	—Tariff (Amendment) Act ..	493
—Glass Manufacture ..	2	—(Cotton Yarn) Amendment Act ..	493
—Glossary ..	477	—Salutes ..	555
—High Courts Act ..	298	—Science Congress ..	523
—Income-tax ..	357	—Scientific Research Fund ..	525
—Industrial Commission ..	445	—Sculpture ..	38
—Institute of Political and Social Science ..	446	—social life ..	23
—Institution of Engineers ..	721	—Society of Oriental Art (Calcutta) ..	446
—Inventions and Designs ..	394	—Soil ..	320
—Labour ..	479	—Sport ..	786
—Law, Europeans and ..	491	—Stamp Duties ..	772
—Legislation, 1927 ..	781	—State Forces ..	274
—Legislature ..	492	—Railways ..	648
—Lighthouse Act ..	49		
—Limitation Second (Amendment) Act ..			

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	E		Q
Indian States annexation through lapse	181	Indians present position	432
—Area of	12, 181	—Fiji and British Guiana	438
—British Officers in	182	—Kenya Colony	437
—education of ruling Chiefs	182	—Natal Rural Dealers' Licensing Ordinance	436
—extent of	181	—Legislation	431
—jurisdiction	181	—Rights and Disabilities of Indians	434
—obligations	181	—Simla-Gandhi Agreement	435
—policy towards	182	—South Africa	434 138
—political officers	182	India's Marine Expenditure	281
—population	13, 181	Indigo	707
—railways	648	Indo-Aryan people	12
—relations with	181	—Ceylon railway connections	651
—rights of	181	Indore State	138
—supervision of	182	Industrial apprenticeship	48
—tribute	221	—art	40
—under Assam	217	—Commission, Indian	307
—Bengal Presidency	208	—Court of en-quiry	501
—Bihar and Orissa	209	—Disputes	408
—Bombay Presidency	201	—Settlement of	408
—Burma	216	—Housing	364
—Central Provinces	218	—Safety and Inspection	430
—Government of India	201	—Towns	360
—Madras Presidency	190	Industry, Assam	171
—Punjab	211	—Baroda	186
—United Provinces	210	—Baluchistan	176
—Stores Department	770	—Bengal	113
—Students in Great Britain	401, 441	—Bihar and Orissa	100
—Sunday School Union	446	—Bombay	94
—Tariff Board	723	—Burma	141
—tea	709	—Central Provinces	137
—Telegraph Department	520	—Hyderabad	183
—Territorial Force	273	—Kashmir	219
—textile industry	694	—Madras	104
—Time	47	—Mysore	185
—tobacco	713	—Punjab	184
—trade	760	—United Provinces	120
—Statistics	763, 764, 766, 768	Industries Department	84
—train service	512	Industry and Labour Dept.	83
—travel	514	—Coal-mining	608
—Troops	280	—Coffee	712
—Universities	301	—indigo	707
—University Women	453	—Jute	701
—Women's Medical Service	544	—paper	608
Indians abroad	430	—Silk	71
—in Great Britain	441	—tea	707
—Overseas	430	—Textile	69
—Deputation to South Africa, 1925	436	—Wool	70
—Durban Land Alienation Ordinance	436	Infant marriage	2
—Emigration Act of 1922	432	Infantry, British	26
—factories	43	In	2
—of	43	Ip	1
—origin of	43	Infantry	26

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	PAGE		PAGE
Inscriptions	45	Jails, juvenile prisoners	490
Insolvency (Amendment) Act	493	—Prisoners, employment	498
Inspectors of Police	485	—Reformatory schools	499
Institutes, Pasteur	537	—Statistics	499
Institutions, Medical	527	—Transportation	499
—of Engineers	446	—Variation of total population	499
Intelligence Department, Commercial	687	Jains	21 31
Interest Table	454	Jaintia Hills chiefship	217
Invasions, N. W. Frontier Prov	163	Jaipur State	169
Inventions and Designs	720	Jaisalmer State	169
Iraq	238	Jalwar (Jhalawar) State	192
Ireland Mission, Presbyterian Church of	476	Jambhughoda	218
Iron Ore production	666	Jamkhundi State	206
—Tata, and Steel Co.	667	Jammu (Kashmir)	218
Irrigation	333	Junjra State	214
—Acreage under	339, 341	Juara State	194
—Area under	338, 340	Japanese Consul	220
—Bengal Pres.	116	Jashpur	218
—Bibliography	343	Jath State	207
—Bombay Pres.	96	Jews	1
—Burma	142	Jhalawar State	194
—Capital and Revenue	341	Jind State	214
—Cauvery Reservoir Project	342	Jodhpur State	199
—Central Provinces	159	Joint Stock Banks	426
—Classes of	338	Judges, District	477
—Damodar Canal	342	Judicial Dept., Assam	490
—Dept., Bihar and Orissa	151	—Bengal Pres.	479
—Government works	338	—Bihar and Orissa	481
—Growth of	338	—Bombay Pres.	479
—projects	542	—Burma	481
—Punjab	131	—Central Provs.	481
—Sukkur Barrage	342	—Madras	480
—Sutlej Valley Project	342	—N. W. Frontier Prov.	481
—Tanks	342	—Punjab	482
—United Provinces	123	—United Provs.	482
—Water Charges	339	Junagadh State	202
—wells	342	Jurisdiction in Native States	156
Italian Consul	259	Justice, administration of	47
Ivory work	41	—Law and	476
		Jute	701
		Jute, cultivation of	326, 701
		—Crops, 1927	702
		—Dealers' Assocn., Calcutta	704
		—History of industry	701
		—Industry	701
		—looms	701
		—Manufactures	701
		—Mills Association	701
		—King and	701
		—Trade and the war	701
		—Taxes	701
Jagirs, Satara	207		
Jails	488		
—Andamans	436		
—Commission of Inquiry, 1919	488, 489		
—Committee	488		
	489		
	489		
	489		

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	PAGE		PAGE
Faira Agency	205	Labour	491
Kaiser-i-Hind medal]	577	—Conference, International	494, 495
Kalat	187	—Conciliation and Arbitration	500
Kanarese Evangelical Mission	172	—Employment of children	497
Kankar State	218	—Factory Acts	496, 497
Kaporthala State	213	—Indian Mines Act	497
Karachi Chamber of Commerce	683	—Industrial disputes	498
—fishing at	595	—Committee	501
—Port Trust	377	—Housing	498
Karauli State	191	—Safety and Inspection	495
Karnal State	217	—Official Organisation	509
Karikal	228	—Payment of wages	506
Kashmir (Jammu) administration	219	—Social Consciousness	494
—agriculture	219	—Strikes	500
—area	218	—Trade Disputes Legislation	501
—army	219	—Unions	502
—electric power	220	—Union Congress	495
—history	219	—Legislation	501
—hydir scheme	359	—Wages in Agriculture	506
—industries	219	—In Mill Industry	507
—minerals	219	—Welfare Work	495
—revenue	219	—Workmen's Compensation Act	504
—roads	219	Ladies' Missions	471
—schools	220	Lady Fardinge Medical College	545
—State	181	—Minto Nursing Service	547
Kathiawar Agency	201	Lahore Conspiracy Case	62
Kenya Colony	437	—Races	793
—Government despatch	437	Land Alienation Act, Punjab	294
Kerosene	070	—Ordnance Tenancy Act	294
Khairagarh State	218	—Protection of Tenants	294
Kharan	187	—Revenue, incidence of	294
Kharasawan	209	—policy	294
Khasi Chiefship	217	—system	293
Khasadars	243	—route to India	511
Khilafat Committee	780	—Settlement Officer	293
King and Queen, visit of (1911)	62	—settlement, permanent	293
—Edward proclaimed	61	—temporary	293
King's Commission	274	—survey	296
Kings of India, see Rulers.		—literature on	296
Kishangarh State	190	—tenure	294
Kitchener Army Scheme	264	—Bihar and Orissa	161
Kolaba Agency	205	—United Provinces	124
Kolhapur Agency	206	Landlords, policy towards	294
—Races	793	Lands Scheme, Military	370
Kotah State	192	Languages, Bengal Pres.	113
Kowait	237	—Bombay Presidency	90
—railways scheme	256	—Central Provs.	150
Kuria Muria Islands	177	—India	20
Kuruk and Central India Hill Mission	447	—Madras Pres.	104
Kurundwad State	206	—N W F Province	68
		Punjab	84
		United Provs	123

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PAGE

PAGE

Maharaja Ecclesiastical Dept.	461	Manners and Customs	29
— Education	104	— Caste marks	30
— Famine, 1866	352	— Domestic life	31
— Fine Arts Society	410	— Dress	32
— Fisheries	591	— Fashion Variations	33
— Government	104	— Images	31
— Governors of	103	— Jains	31
— Judicial Dept.	480	— Women's Costumes	29
— Justice	106	— Worship	31
— Legislative Council	109	Manufactures, Assam	171
— Literary Society	446	— Bengal Presidency	113
— Nursing Association	510	Manufactures, Bihar and Orissa	150
— Officials	108	— Bombay Presidency	94
— Population	108	— Burma	142
— Police	108	— Central Provinces	167
— Port Trust	377	— Glass	716
— Presidency	104	— Madras Presidency	104
— Presidents of Fort St. George	108	— Punjab	134
— Races	793	— United Provinces	123
— Railways	647	Manures	342
— Railfall	104	Maps, Baghdad Railway	267
— Revenue	106	— Mesopotamia	229
— Salt Amendment Act	491	— of the Middle East	241
— Social Legislation	106	— North-West Frontiers	248
— States in	190	— Persian Gulf	230
— University	392	— Survey (topographical)	525
— Vizagapatam Harbour Project	105	— Waziristan	247
Madura Mission	463	Marathas, see Mahrattas.	
Mayadha, Ancient kingdom of	51	Marine, Royal Indian	281
Magistrates, Courts of	477	— — — appointments	283
— District	477	— — — dockyards	283
— Native and Europeans	477	— — — expenditure	281
Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce	682	— — — history	281
Mahl Kantha	206	— — — personnel	282
Mahomedan kingdoms	53	— — — war service	282
— Soldiers	276	Marka, Merchandise	720, 726
— University	395	— Trade	720
Mahomedanism	21	Marriage	22, 23
Mahratta Country States	206	Maskat	237
— Anns	56	Massacre of Cawnpore	68
Mahrattas	276	Mayo, Lord	50
Mahsuds	248	Measures, Weights and	49
Malegaon Riots	62	Medal, Indian Distinguished Service	576
Maler Kotla State	214	— — — Meritorious	577
Malwa opium	715	— — — Order of Merit	576
Malwand, Battle of	60	— — — of British India	576
— Outbreak in	62	— — — Rains, Hind	577
Mammal Survey	524	Medieval dynasties	52
Mandal, Narendra	220	Medical Colleges	537
Mandi State	214	— — — — — —	577
Manganese Industry	668	Me	57
— Ore Production	668	Me	57
Manipur	217	Me	57

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	PAGE		PAGE
Mercurt Races	792	Minto Nursing Service, Lady	547
Mennonite Mission	471	Mints	299
Merchandise Marks Act	726, 726	Miraj State	206
Merchants' Chamber, Indian	680	Miscellaneous appointments	77
Meritorious Service Medal, Indian	577	Mission Schools	455
Merwara, Ajmer	176	—-to Lepers	470
Messageries Maritimes Line	511	Missionary Settlement for University women	471
Metals	41, 765	Missions, All-India	409
Metal working	41	—-and Enemy Trading Act	473
—workers	41	—Baptist Societies	465
Metcalfe, Sir Charles	57	—Christian	453
Meteorology	343	—Church of England	457
Meteorology Monsoon of 1927	350	—Congregational Societies	408
—Monsoons	343	—Disciple Societies	471
—Rainfall, total	345	—Ladies' Societies	471
—Spring months	344	—Lutheran Societies	472
—Statistics	346-349	—Methodist Societies	473
Metre-gauge railways	635	—Presbyterian Societies	467
Methodist Episcopal (American) Mission	474	—Roman Catholic	463
—(Free) Mission	474	—Scottish Church	464
Mica	671	—Un denominational	472
Middle East, Railway position in	241	Mofussil Municipalities	361
Migration	20	Morira, Lord (Marquis of Hastings)	50
Mileage, railway	651	Money order rates	523, 529
—(tables)	652-660	Mongolo-Dravidians (Bengalis)	12
Military Council	265	Mongoloids	12
—Lands, Bombay	370	Monsoon, 1927	350
—Lands Scheme	270	—(tables)	346-349
—Territorial Areas	265	Monsoons	343
Millet, cultivation of	324	Montagu-Chelmsford reform	62, 65
Milowners' Association, Bombay	679	Montagu's visit to India	62
—Mutual Insurance Association	680	Monumental Pillars	34
Mineral production (tables)	681	Mopla Rebellion	62
Mineral Oils	765	Mormugao, Port of	225
Minerals, Assam	171	Mortality from wild animals	537
—Bihar and Orissa	150	Muslim League	77
—Burma	141	Most Eminent Order of Indian Empire	564
—Hyderabad	183	Motor Cars and Motor Cycles	765
—Kashmir	219	—Vehicles	765
—Punjab	134	Movement, Co-operative	412
—radio-active	672	—Non-Co-operation	776
—United Provinces	123	—of population	14
Mines Act, 1923, (Indian)	497	—Woman Suffrage	543
—and Minerals of India	681	Mudhol State	206
—Bibliography	673	Mughal Dynasty	53
—Death rate in	673	—painting	34
—Labour in	673	Muhammedah	237
—people employed in	673	Municipalities, Bengal Presidency	114
Mining accidents	673	—Bombay Presidency	95
	473		262
Mint,	300	—expenditure	863
	473		36

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Municipalities, income	362	National Defence, Expenditure on 277, 278, 279	446
—Punjab	135	—Horse Breeding and Show Society ..	446
—rates and taxes	361	—Indian Association	446
—United Provinces	125	—Liberal Federation	778
Mural Painting	36	—Missionary Society of India	470
Murder statistics	487	Native magistrates and Europeans ..	478
Mutiny, Indian	263	—Piece-goods Association	682
—at Barackpore	263	—private bankers	628
—at Delhi	68	—Share and Stock Brokers' Association	674
—Meerut	263	Natural productions, Assam	171
—political causes of	63	—Bengal Presidency	113
—racial causes of	263	—Burma	141
—religious causes of	263	—Madras Presidency	114
—Sepoy	58	—United Provinces	123
—Siege of Delhi	58	Navanagar State	503
—Vellore	262	Navy, contribution to (table)	251
Mysore	184	—Colonies' contribution to	241
—Administration	184	—East Indies Squadron	280
—agriculture	185	—Royal Indian	28
—area	184	Navy, Royal, Annual Cost	288
—army	184	—Commissions for Indians	288
—education	185	—Establishment	288
Mysore, history	184	—Pay and pension	288
—Hydro-Electric Scheme	350	—Technical Training	288
—Industries	185	—Terms of Reference	288
—population	184	Nepal	108
—Races	792	—War	58
—revenues	185	Netherlands Consul	230
—schools	185	New Capital	618
—University	185, 293	—Enquiry Committee	505
—wars	56	—Zealand Presbyterian Mission	487
		Newspapers in India	606
		—Act, 1910	606
		—Incitements to Offences Act	606
		—Indian	606
		Nicaragua, Consul for	290
		Nickel coinage	290
		Nicobar Islands	176
		Nila-Mula Scheme	568
		Nizam's Gold Mine, Hatti	666
		Non-Co-operation Movement	775
		Northbrook, Lord	59
		North-Eastern Frontier	255
		North India Chamber of Commerce ..	684
		North-West Frontier Province, administrative districts ..	167
		—agriculture	168
		—area	167
		—development	167
		—Ecclesiastical Department	463
			100

IN

Nabha State	214
Nagpur University	397
Names, Indian	31
Nandgaon State	218
Napier, Sir Charles	57
Narendra Mandal	220
Narukot	206
Nasik Agency	206
Natal Borough Ordinance	436
—Line	511
—Rural Dealers' Licensing Ordinance ..	436
—Township Act	436
National Association for supplying Medical Aid by women	546
—Congress Indian	77

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	PAGE		PAGE
North-West Frontier flora and fauna ..	167	Opium, Bihar and Orissa ..	150
— — — — — formed ..	61, 167	— — — — — excise systems ..	293
— — — — — irrigation ..	169	— — — — — Malwa ..	715
— — — — — Judicial Dept. ..	481	— — — — — receipts ..	296
— — — — — map of ..	243	— — — — — revenue ..	715
— — — — — municipalities ..	170	Orchha State ..	197
— — — — — police ..	170	Orders, Crown of India ..	575
— — — — — population ..	167, 168	— — — — — Indian ..	580
— — — — — Province officials ..	170	— — — — — Distinguished Service Medal ..	576
— — — — — races ..	168	— — — — — Empire ..	384
— — — — — rainfall ..	168	— — — — — Meritorious Service Medal ..	577
— — — — — states ..	199	— — — — — of Merit ..	578
— — — — — trade ..	169	— — — — — Khar-i-Band Medal ..	577
— — — — — Western Railway ..	348	— — — — — of British India ..	578
Norwegian Consul ..	260	— — — — — Star of India ..	580
Notes, currency ..	301	Ordinance, Durbar Land Alienation ..	436
Nova Goa ..	252	— — — — — Natal Borough ..	430
Nurses' Organisation ..	548	— — — — — Rural Dealers' Licensing ..	436
Nursing Associations ..	548	Ore, iron ..	666
— — — — — in India ..	546	— — — — — manganese ..	666
— — — — — Service, Lady Minto ..	547	Orient Line ..	318
		Oriental Studies, School of ..	530
		Origins of Indian History ..	51
		Orissa, see Bihar ..	150
		— — — — — Famine, 1856-7 ..	352
		— — — — — Federated States ..	209
Obligations of Indian States ..	181	Osmania University ..	183, 392, 393
Occupations ..	26, 28	Oudh annexed ..	69
Office, India ..	179, 180	— — — — — and Rohilkhand Railways ..	648
Officers, Army ..	274	— — — — — Tenancy Act ..	294
— — — — — Consular, in India ..	268	Out-still excise system ..	295
— — — — — Reserve of ..	275	Overland train service ..	341
Officials, Assam ..	179	Overseas contribution to Navy ..	230
— — — — — Baluchistan ..	173	— — — — — Expeditions ..	262
— — — — — Bengal Presidency ..	118	— — — — — Trade ..	701, 768
— — — — — Bihar and Orissa ..	153		
— — — — — Bombay Presidency ..	99		
— — — — — Burma ..	147		
— — — — — Central Provinces ..	164		
— — — — — Law ..	481		
— — — — — Madras Presidency ..	108		
— — — — — North-West Frontier Province ..	170		
— — — — — Punjab ..	188		
— — — — — United Provinces ..	120		
Oil, kerosene ..	670	Painting, India ..	34
Oils and oilcakes ..	708	— — — — — Modern ..	34
Oilseeds ..	326	— — — — — Mughal ..	34
— — — — — cultivation of ..	326	— — — — — Muzal ..	34
Old Church Hebrew Mission ..	471	Panapur Agency ..	203
Ootacamund Races ..	790	Parana, Consul for ..	260
Open Brethren Mission ..	473	Panjab States ..	211
Opium Agreement with China ..	715	Paper and Stateboards ..	766
— — — — — opacres ..	715	Paper Currency Reserve ..	302

BIOGRAPHY.

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	PAGE		PAGE
Paper making	603	Persia	244
Parcels postage rates	528	—Agreement with	244
Parsis, <i>see</i> Zoroastrianism	20	—British policy in	244
Partabgarh State	189	—and present position	244
Passenger and Traffic Relief Association	447	Persian Consuls	260
Passport regulations	537	—Gulf	235
Pasteur Institutes	537	—and France	245
Patents	720	—and Germany	235
Pathan Soldiers	276	—and Russia	235
Patana State	215	—and Turkey	235
Patna University	398	—map of	238
Pearl fishery, Bahrain	237	—(Pirate Coast)	237
—fishing	591	—railway lines	256
Pegu annexe	58	—shore	242
Penal Code	476	Personnel of Government	80
Peninsular & Oriental S. N. Co.	511	Peruvian Consuls	260
—Railway, Great Indian	647	Petroleum, output of	670
People of Bihar and Orissa	150	—production of	671
—of Bengal	113	Phaltan	207
—Bombay Presidency	94	Philatelic Socy. of India	447
—Burma	141	Photographic Socy. of India (Calcutta)	447
People, Central Provinces	157	Pieco-goods Assocn., Bombay Native	682
—N.-W. F.	168	Pigsticking	809
—Punjab	133	Pillars, Monumental	48
—United Provinces	123	Pindaris	58
Peoples of India	12	Pirate Coast	237
—Caste	24, 25	Plassey, Battle of	55
—Census	18	Plumage, Wild Birds	717
—Christians	21	Police	484
—Ckies	19	—administration	485
—Economic Condition	14	—Baluchistan	175
—Education	23	—Bengal Presidency	116
—famine and disease	24	—Bihar and Orissa	131
—health	14	—Bombay Presidency	98
—houses and families	15	—Burma	142
—infirmities	24	—Central Provinces	159
—influenza mortality	15	—constables	485
—languages	23	—distribution of	484
—literacy	23	—inspectors	485
—marriage	22, 23	—Madras Presidency	106
—migration	20	—N.-W. Frontier Province	170
—occupations	26, 28	—offences	487
—population	14	—organisation	431
—religions	20	—Punjab Prov.	135
—sex	25	—Recruitment	485
—social life	23	—statistics	484, 485, 487
—statistics	18, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27	—trainingschools	485
—town and villages	18	—United Provinces	125
	22	Policy, New Frontier	246
	17	—towards Indian States	181
		Political Agents, Bombay Presidency	95
		Departments	83
		Officers	128
Perpo Island			

PAGE

PAGE

Polo in India	800	Presbyterian Mission	467
Pondicherry	228	— Societies	467
Poona and Indian Village Mission	469	Presidency Banks	619
— races	788	— — Act of 1876	619
— Seva Sadan Society	447	— Bengal	113
Population, Aden	177	— Corporations	361
— Assam	171	— of Bombay	94
— Baluchistan	175	— Madras	104
— Agency	187	— towns	361
— Baroda	186	— — Insolvency (Amendment) Act	493
— Bengal Presidency	113	Presidents of Fort St. George	108
— Bihar and Orissa	150	Press Act, 1910	606
— Bombay Presidency	94	— and Registration of Books Act	608
— Burma	141	— Association of India	607
— Central India Agency	193	— censorship	605
— Provinces	157	— in India	605
— density of	14	— law, Indian	606
— India	13, 161	— Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act	606
— Indian states	13, 181	— Owners' Association	448
— Jail	490	— Repeal of Acts	606
— Madras Presidency	104	— Statistics	607
— Movement of	14	— Vernacula	605
— Mysore	186	Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act	61
— Native States	13, 181	Primary schools	387
— N.-W. Frontier Province	163	Prince of Wales' tour	62
— Principal cities	19	Princes, Chamber of	220
— Punjab	133	— Conferences held	220
— Rajputana Agency	185	— Functions described	220
— United Provinces	123	— transfer of important States	220
Port of Mormugao	225	Principal Clubs in India	453
— Trust, Bombay	367, 376	Printing Presses	607
— Calcutta	375	Prisoners' employment	488
— Chittagong	378	Prisoners, juvenile	489
— Machi	377	Prisons Act of 1894	488
— Madras	377	Procedure of Government business	80
— Rangoon	378	Proclamation of Empress of India	59
Ports, Indian	373	— King Edward	61
Portuguese Consuls	261	Produce, agricultural	321
— Empire	54	Production of coal (table)	662
— foreign possessions in India	222	— — in Bengal	113
Post Office circles	527	— gold	669
— Dept.	83	— iron ore	666
— growth of	529	— Manganese	668
— tariff	527	— minerals (tables)	661
— and Telegraph	527	— petroleum	570
Postage rates, foreign	528	— tea	709
— letter	527	— timber	599
— parcels	528	— woven goods (tables)	693
Posts and Telegraphs	527	— yarn	696
Precedence, Table of	562	Professional names	32
Presbyterian	U	Professions	26
— of Ireland Mission	U	Pr jet, Vengapattam Harbour	57
— N American	467	— Andhra Valley	338

PAGE

PAGE

Projects, Irrigation	342
Protection of Children Society	450
—from Famine	354
Provident Funds (Amendment) Act	497
Provinces, United	123
Provincial Councils, working of	75
Provisions	765
Proving of Wills	551
Publicity Department	85
Pudukottai	200
Pulse, cultivation of	324
Punchayats	261
Punjab administration	134
—agriculture	134
—annexed	55
—area	13
—canal system	123
—castes	123
—Chamber of Commerce	635
—climate	132
—colleges	135
—Commissioners	134
—Council	138
—Courts of Justice	135
—District Boards	135
—Ecclesiastical Department	462
—Education Department	135
—educational progress	399
—fisheries	596
—forests	135
—irrigation	134
—Department	135
—Judicial Department	482
—Land Alienation Act	80, 294
—languages	134
—Legislative Council	138
—Lieut. Governors	138
—Medical Dept.	135
—minerals	134
—Municipalities	135
—Officials	138
—police	135
—population	133
—provincial police	135
—rainfall	133
—religions	138
—revenue	126
—schools	135
—states under	123, 211

Index

54
392

Que'ta Races	701
Races, the fighting	276
Racing in India	701
Rackets	800
Radhanpur State	204
Radio-active minerals	672
Radio-telegrams	521
Rajmuri State	218
Railway Accidents	645
—Adam's Bridge	651
—Anatolian Co.	256
—Assam	171
—Assam-Bengal	171, 646
—Baghdad	232
—Map of	25
—Baroda	186
—Bengal and N.-W.	646
—Bengal-Nagpur	646
—Board	83
—Bombay, Baroda & Central India	64
—broad-gauge	633
—Budget	280, 637
—Burma	647
—and India	651
—capital expenditure	647
—Central Asian	256
—Chief Railways of India	646
—clearing accounts office	635
—College for Training Officers	646
—Collieries	644
—Compensation for damages	648
—Conference	635
—connections with Ceylon	651
—Construction programme	645, 649
—contracts	632
—Control	638
—Earnings	639
—Eastern Bengal State	647
—East Indian	647
—Electrification	646
—Equipment	642
—Famine and Frontiers	643

-GE

PAGE

Railway fatalities and injuries	645	Railway Trade Review	641
—Finance, Separation of	637	—Trans-Asian	256
—Financial Results of Working	643	—Turkish guarantee	259
—Future construction programme	648	—two feet six inch gauge	635
—gauges	635	Railways	631
—German in Turkey	256	Rainfall	248, 249
—Government Control	633	Raisins, New Capital	517
—guarantee	632	Rajpiper State	207
—Great Indian Peninsula	647	Rajputana, Lawa State of	190
—History of Indian	631	—agency	187
—Hyderabad	182, 643	Rajputs	52
—Indian States	645	Ramabai Mukti Mission	471
—to India	256	Ramdrug State	206
—Indian Conference Association	635	Rampur State	210
—Indianisation	645	Rangoon Literary Society	448
—gauges	635	—Port Trust	373
—Indo-Burma	651	—University	295
—Khyber	643	Ranjit Singh	57
—Local Advisory Committees	646	Rate, Bank	628
—Madras and S. M.	647	Rates and taxes, municipal	382
—management	635	—Births and Deaths	533, 534
—Materials purchased	644	—of interest, money-lenders	412
—meter-gauge	635	Rawalpindi Races	791
—mileage	642	Rebate Railway contract system	632
—Mysore	643	Reclamation, Bombay	370
—Native States	643	Recreation Club Institute	448
—North-Western	643	Red Cross Society	539
—Open mileage	632	Reform Act, 1919	66
—Oudh and Rohilkhand	643	—Viceroy's Emergency Powers	86
—Persian Gulf lines	256	—of weights and measures	40
—survey	232	—Indian army	262
—Plant and Rolling Stock	644, 765	—social	57
—profits commences	632	Reformatory schools	489
—Publicity	644	Regions beyond Missionary Union	470
—Rajput Advisory Committee	640	Regulations, Passport	587
—Rebate system contracts	631	Religion, native students and	458
—Recruitment Schemes	645	Religions of India	20
—Remodelling of Workshops (State)	641	Remittances, Sterling	302
—Reorganisation problems	633, 638	Repeal of Press Legislation	606
—revenue	640	Repealing and Amending Act	491, 492
—Revision of Statistics	638	Reports, Law	473
—Russian to Lake Uruma	256	Research Fund, Scientific	525
—Taran	256	Reserve Bank	318
—Sales to Trombay	369	—Gold Standard	301, 303
—scheme, Cairo to Koweit	256	—Indian Army	275
—South Indian	648	—Paper Currency	301
—Staff	644	Reserves, Currency	316, 317
—State versus Company Management	636	Responsalists	776
—Statistics	652-660	Retrenchment Committee	233
—revision of	638	Revenue, Assam	171
—Stores	644	Baroda	186
—	642		

PAGE

PAGE

Revenue, Bengal	116
—Bihar and Orissa	152
—Bombay Presidency	97
—Burma	143
—Central Board of	82
—Central Provinces	161
—Department	83
—Forest	600
—Government	292
—Hyderabad	183
—Incidence of Land	294
—Irrigation	339
—Kashmir	219
—Land	293
—Madras Presidency	106
—Mysore	135
—Opium	290
—Post Office	529
—Punjab	136
—Railways	640
—Salt	297
—System, Land	293
—Tables of	292
—Telegraph	532
—United Provinces	126
—Rewa	196
—Kantha Agency	206
—Balasinoor	206
—Baria	200
—Chhota Udaipur	206
—Lunawada	200
—Narukot (Jambhughoda)	206
—Rajpippa	206
—Sunth	206
—State	196
Rice, cultivation of	322
Ride Shooting	814
Right of Vend, Excise	295
—of Indian States	181
Ripon, Lord	60
Riselnexchange	303
Rising in Bengal	55
Roberts, Lord	60
Rolling Stock (Railway). Purchase of	844
Roman Catholic Churches	463
Routes to India from Europe	511
Rowing	812
Royal Asiatic Society (Bombay)	443
—Marine	443
—Indian Navy	443
—Society of Arts	443

Rugby	813
Rulers of India, Akbar	58
—Asoka	51
—Aurangzeb	53
—Babar	58
—Chandragupta	51, 52
—Gupta dynasty	52
—Harsha	52
—Humayun	53
—Mahomedan	58
—Medieval dynasties	52
—Mongolian kings	52
—Mughal dynasty	58
—Shahjahan	58
—Southern dynasties	52
Rules, Exchange	761
Running	800
Rupia Ratio Bill	784
Russia and Tibet	233
Russian menace	60
—railway to Lake Urumia	236
—Tehran	236
Russo-Afghan Treaty	232
Rundam State	196
Ryotwari holdings	204
Sachin	203
St. John Ambulance Assocn.	540
Salsette Development	368
—Trombay Railway	369
Salt	297
—Range mines	207
—revenue	297
—Department	54
—Tax	283, 784
—Certification by Viceroy	283
Salutes, table of	755
Salvation Army in India	474
Sandur	201
Sangathan	63
Sangli State	206
Sanitation	532
—Birth and death rates	533
—chief diseases	534
—child welfare movement	538
—health of the army	536
—history of	532
—Lepet Asylums	537
—Leprosy in India	537
Lunatic Asyl	537
—Institutions	537

	PAGE		PAGE
Sanitation mortality	531	Self-Government, local	300
— Pasteur Institutes	537	Sentences, indeterminate	489
Santhal Mission	473	— short	489
Saracenic Architecture	45	Separation of Railway Finances ..	637
Satara Agency, Akalkot	207	Sepoy mutiny	263
— Aurah	207	Servants of India Society	448
— Bhor	207	— Domestic	510
— Daphlapur	207	Service, Lady Minto Nursing	547
— Jagirs	207	Services, Educational	400
— Jath	207	— Indian Police	484
— Phaltan	207	Sesamum, cultivation of	326
Savantwadi State	207	Sessions, Courts of	477
Savanur	205	Settlement Officers' duties	293
Scandinavian Alliance Mission ..	463	Settlements, Dutch	54
Scheme, Ambernath	369	— European	54
— Bombay Development	367	Seva Sadan	450
— Housing	368	Seventh Day Adventists Mission ..	470
— Kashmir Hydro	359	Sea	23
— Military Lands	370	Shahjahan	58
— Mysore Hydro-electric	359	Shahpura chiefship	191
— Nilga-Mula	360	Shan States	215
— Port Trust	367	Share and Stock Brokers' Association ..	674
School of Oriental Studies	589	Shatt-el-Arab	287
Schools of Art	35, 36	Shawl weaving	41
Schools, see Education and Colleges.		Sholapur Agency	207
Science Congress, Indian	525	Shooting	314
Scientific Research Fund	525	Shore, Sir John (Lord Teignmouth) ..	50
— Societies	413	Shroffs, banking by	628
— Surveys	523	Siamese Consuls	261
— — Board of Scientific Advice	524	Siege of Delhi	268
— — Botanical	523	Sikh wars	57, 263
— — Geological	523	Sikhs, origin of	276
— — Mammal	524	Sikkin State	197
— — Research Fund Association, Indian ..	526	Silk	706
— — — Indian	525	Silver	671
— — Science Congress, Indian	525	— coinage	300
— — Survey of India	525, 526	— coins	300
— — Topographical Survey Maps	525	— standard	301
— — Zoological	523	Simon (Sir John) Commission	65, 777
Scotland, Established Church of ..	464	Sind, fisheries	691
— United Free Church of	465	— Irrigation	342
Scouts, Boy	366	Surguja State	218
Seytho-Dravidian people	12	Sirmur (Nahan) State	215
Sea Customs Act	727	Sirohi State	189
— (Amendment) Act	491	Skins, hides and leather	713, 767
— trade of Bombay	378	Small-cause Courts	477
Secondary schools	389	Smuggling of Cocaine	715
Secretariat Depts., Governor-Generals' ..	82-85	Snouts-Gandhi Agreement	435
Secretary of State for India	179	Snake bites	537
Secunderabad Races	791	Social reforms	57
Sedition in Bengal	64	— societies	443
Selatan (Pondia)	2	Society for the Protection of Children in Western India	450
		Red Cross	439
		of the Gospel	479

PAGE

PAGE

Societies, Agricultural	413, 414, 416	Sports in India, walking	800
—Baptist	465	—wrestling	800
—Congregational	463	—yachting	805
—Disciple	471	Squadron, East Indies	280
—Ladies	471	Staff, Governor-General's	82
—Literary, Scientific and Social	448	—Governor's, Bengal Pres.	118
—Lutheran	472	—Bombay Pres.	100
—Methodist	472	—Madras Pres.	100
—Presbyterian	467	—Railway	844
—Registration (Amendment) Act	493	Stamp Duties, Indian	772
Soil, Bengal Pres.	113	Star of India	569
—Bombay Pres.	94	State, Council of	91
—Central Prov.	157	—forest distribution	597
—India	320	—irrigation works	586
—Madras Presidency	164	—versus Company Management (Railways)	636
—Punjab	193	States, Indian	151
—United Provinces	123	—Akalkot, see Sholapur Agency	207
Sokotra Island	177	—Alwar	194
South Africa, Indians in	434	—Amb	194
—Indian Famine, 1876-8	352	—Aundh	207
—Railway	648	—Bahawalpur	212
Southborough Franchise Committee	459	—Balasoor	207
Southern dynasties	52	—Beluchistan Agency	186
—India Chamber of Commerce	634	—Banganapalce	200
—Maratha Country States	206	—Bansda	208
—Jamkhandi	206	—Banswara	188
—Kurundwad (Senior)	206	—Baria	204
—Kurundwad (Junior)	206	—Bariya	206
—Miraj (Senior)	206	—Baroda	186
—Miraj (Junior)	206	—Bastar	212
—Mudhol	206	—Benares	211
—Ramdurg	206	—Bengal Presidency	205
—Sangli	206	—Bharatpur	181
Spanish Consuls	201	—Bhavnagar	201
Specimen tours	514	—Bhopal	190
Sports in India	785	—Bhor (Satara Jagirs)	207
—athletics	707	—Bhutan	197
—badminton	813	—Bijapur Agency	204
—billiards	813	—Bikaner	192
—boxing	806	—Bilaspur	214
—cricket	802	—Bombay Presidency	202
—football	801	—Bundi	190
—golf	803	—Camboy (Kaira Agency)	204
—hockey	811	—Central India Agency	187
—pigsticking	809	—Chamba	212
—pole	800	—Chhota Udaipur	200
—racing	785	—Chitral	199
—rackets	800	—Cochin	200
—rifle shooting	814	—Cooh Behar	208
—rowing	812		
—rugby	812		
—run of	800		
—swimming	83		
—snails	808		

PAGE

PAGE

States, Indian, Patia	197	States, Indian, Maser Kotla	214
—Dhar	196	—Mandi	214
—Dharampur	208	—Manipur	217
—Dharwar Agency	205	—Miraj	206
—Dholpur	191	—Mudhot	206
—Dhrengadhra	202	—Mysore	193
—Dir	189	—Nabha	214
—Dongarpur	189	—Nandgaon	212
—Faridkot	213	—Narnkot (Jambhughoda)	206
—Gondal	202	—Nasik Agency	206
—Gwalior	194	—Navanagar	203
—Hyderabad	182	—Nepal	198
—Idar (Mahi Kantha Agency)	206	—North-West Frontier	198
—Indore	194	—Obligations of	181
—Jaintia Hills	217	—Orchha	197
—Jaipur	189	—Orissa Feudatory	209
—Jaisalmer	199	—Palanpur	203
—Jamkhandi	206	—Partabgarh	189
—Jammu	218	—Patana	216
—Janjira (Kolaba Agency)	205	—Phatkan	207
—Jaora	190	—Policy forwards	182
—Jashpur	218	—Political Officers	182
—Jath	207	—Pudukotta	206
—Jawhar (Thana Agency)	208	—Punjab	211
—Jhalawar	192	—Radhanpur	204
—Jind	218	—Raigarh	218
—Jodhpur	189	—Rajpipla	207
—Junagadh	202	—Rajputana Agency	187
—Kaira Agency	205	—Ramdurg	206
—Kalet (Baluchistan Agency)	187	—Rampur	210
—Kankar	218	—Rewah	186
—Kapurthala	218	—Rewah Kantha Agency	206
—Karauli	191	—relations with	181
—Karnal District	217	—rights of	181
—Kashmir	218	—Rutlam	196
—Kathliwar Agency	201	—Saahin	203
—Khatagaria	218	—Sander	201
—Khairpur	204	—Sangli	206
—Kharan Agency	187	—Satara Jagirs	207
—Kharaswan	209	—Savantwadi	207
—Khebi (Jaintia Hills)	217	—Savanur (Dharwar Agency)	205
—Kisanganagar	190	—Shahpura	191
—Kolaba Agency	205	—Shun	215
—Kolhapur	205	—Sholapur Agency	207
—Kotali	192	—Sikkim	197
—Kurundwad	206	—Sirguja	218
—Las Bela (Baluchistan Agency)	187	—Sirmur (Nahan)	215
—Lawa	189	—Sirohi	189
—Lunavada	206	—Southern Mahratta Country	206
—Madras Presidency	199	—Suket	212
—Mad Kanha	205		

	PAGE		PAGE
States, Indian, Surat Agency	208	Statistics, Lunacy	541, 542, 543
—Surgana (Nasik Agency)	208	—Meteorological	346, 347, 348, 349
—Surguja	218	—Mines and Minerals	661
—Sunth	206	—Municipalities	382
—Tehri	211	—murder	45
—Thana Agency	208	—of religions	20, 21
—Tonk	190	—opium	715
—Travancore	199	—police	484, 486, 487
—Tripura	209	—Population	18, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22
—Udaipur	188	—press	607
—Western India	201	—railway	636, 639, 640
—under Assam Govt.	217	—reserves, currency	816, 81
—Bihar and Orissa Govt.	209	—revenue and expenditure	292, 293
—Bengal Govt.	208	—sanitary	533, 534, 535
—Bombay Govt.	204	—Tea	709, 710, 711
—Burma Govt.	215	—telegraph and telephone	534
—Central India Agency Govt.	193	—theft	48
—Central Provinces Govt.	218	—Trade	703, 704, 706, 706
—Government of India	201	—wages, income, &c.	630
—Madras Govt.	199	Statutory	40
—North-West Frontier	199	Steamship Co., Anchor Line	511
—Punjab	211	—Bibby Line	511
—Railway	643	—D. I. S. N.	511
—United Provinces Govt.	210	—City and Hall Line	511
—Tribute	221	—Henderson	511
Station, Khapoli Power	358	—Lloyd Triestino	511
Stations, Wireless telegraph	632	—Marittima Italiana	511
Statistics, Agricultural	331, 333, 335, 337, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337	—Messageries Maritimes	511
—Area	17	—Natal Line	511
—bank	622, 623, 624, 625, 625, 629	—Orient Line	511
—birth and death rate	532	—P & O	511
—Bombay Port Trust	377	Steel Industry	67
—Co-operation	424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429	—(Protection) Act	491
—cotton industry 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700		Sterling Remittances	302
—dacoity	487	Stock Exchanges	374
—death and birth rates	533	—Bombay	374
—education	331, 333, 334, 335, 336, 338, 390, 394, 396, 399, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 107, 408, 409, 410, 411	—Calcutta	374
—Famine Trust, Income and Expenditure	355	—Committee of Inquiry (Bombay)	374
—forest	601	—Madras	374
—Indian Empire	13	Stones, Gem	675
—Indians, Overseas	430	Stores Department, Indian	770
—Irrigation	310, 341	—railway	666
—Jail	490	Storms	343
—Judicial	483	Strategic importance of Aden	177
—Jute	702, 703	Strength of the Army	730
—Local Govt	362	Structural Temples	40
		Students' Bureau of Information	442
		—In Great Britain, Indian	441
		Sub-district board	366
		Sub-Inspector of Police	484, 485
		Suez Canal	312

	PAGE		PAGE
Suffrage Movement, Woman	548	Tea	709
Sugar-cane, cultivation of	324	—prices (table)	709, 710, 711
Suits, civil	433	Technical education	359
Suket	213	Tehri State	211
Sakkr Agency	208	Tezgamouth, Lord (Sir John Shore)	56
—Barrage	342	Telegram Rates	530
Sunth	204	Telegraph Department	529
Superintendents of Police, Assistant	485	—and Post Office	527
Super-tax	209	—tariff	580
Supervision of Native States	182	Telegraphy, Wireless	603
Surat Agency	208	Telegu Mission, American Baptist	466
—Bansda	208	Telephone statistics	532
—Dharampur	208	Telephony	608
—Sachin	205	Temperature	346, 347
Surguja	218	Tennis, lawn, in India	809
Surguna State	206	Territorial Force (Indian)	273
Survey, Archaeological	84	Textile industry, Bombay	694, 723
—Botanical	84, 523	—United Provinces	123
—Department	84	Textiles	23
—Geological	84, 523	—excise duty on	41, 694
—of India	525	—export trade	695
—Mammal	524, 526	—Progress	699
—Zoological	523	—Punjab	134
Survey, Forest	597	—Yarn	697
—Scientific	523	Thana Agency	203
Sutlej Valley Project	360	Theft Statistics	487
Swarajist	776	Tibet	252
Swedish Consuls	261	—British intervention in	253, 254
Swimming	818	—Chinese in	253, 254
Swiss Consul	261	—expedition to	253
Syrian Church	458	Tibet political importance of	254
		—Rusala and	258
		Tibetan Mission	469
		Tidal Constants	49
		Time, Indian	47
		Times of India	606
		Tin	671
		Tirah Campaign	60
		Tobacco, Bihar and Orissa	130
		—Cultivation of	326
		—Indian	713
		Tonk State	190
		Tonnage, railway	642
		Topea	44
		Topographical Survey Maps	525
		Towns and country	18
		—Presidency	361
		Trade	760
		—Aden	178
		—Balance of	761, 770
		Bank etc	761
Table, interest	454		
—of wages	620		
Taigavi loans	416		
Talukas, Bombay	95		
Tanakpur and Lohaghat Bible and Medical Mission	469		
Tank Corps, Royal	270		
Tanks	342		
Tanned Hides, exports of	718		
Tanning	718		
—materials	718		
Tariff Board, Indian	723		
—Textile Industry	223		
—Changes	761		
—Customs	726		
Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co.	358		
Tax Income	229		
Taxation, of	294		
		open British Se vice in India	688

PAGE

PAGE

Trade exports of the year	761, 766	United Provinces Districts	124
—Foreign	761	—Ecclesiastical Department	462
—French India	227	—educational progress	125, 386
—Imports of the year	760, 762	—factories	123
—Marks	720	—Finance	126
—N.-W. Frontier Province	169	—hospitals	123
—Overseas	760, 770	—Judicial Department	48
—Punjab	134	—land tenure	123
—Tariff Changes	761	—languages	128
—Union Congress	493	—Legislative Council	130
—Legislation	501	—Lieutenant-Governors	129
—Unions	501, 502, 503	—Medical Dept.	125
—Unions Act	501	—Minerals	128
Traffic, cocaine	714	—Municipalities	125
—telegraph	532	—natural products	128
Train service, Indian	512	—officials	129
—overland	514	—police	125
Trained Nurses' Association	543	—population	123
Training Institutions, Army	275	—religions	123
—schools, police	485	—revenue	126
Trans-Persian Railway	256	—roads and buildings	125
Transported criminals	489	—schools	125
Travancore	199	—soil	123
—Fisheries	596	—States under	210
Travel in India	514	—Textile industry	123
Treaty of Basle	56	—States, Consul for	261
—of Sagauli	56	Universities	391
Tribes, Frontier	61	—Act	393
Tribute, Indian States	221	University, Aligarh	395
Tripura State	209	—Allahabad	392
Trombay Salsette Railway	360	—Andhra	397
Turkey	233	—Benares Hindu	393
Turko-Iranian people	12	—Bombay	394
		—Calcutta	399
		—Commission	392, 400
		—Corps	274
Udampur State	188	—Dacca	393
Unions, Trade	501, 502	—Delhi	395
United Free Church of Scotland	465	—Lucknow	399
—Presbyterian Church of North America Mission	467	—Madras	392
United Provinces administration	124	—Mysore	393
—agriculture	123	—Nagpur	397
—area	123	—Osmania	182, 393
—Chamber of Commerce	685	—Patna	398
—Collectors	124	—Punjab	392
—Colleges	135	—Rangoon	395
—Council	130	—Women, Indian Federation of	453
—Courts of Justice	124	—Missionary Settlement for	471
—Deputy Commissioners	124	Upper India Chamber of Commerce	684
boards	125	U. S. A. Consuls	231

	PAGE		PAGE
Vellore, mutiny at	262	Waziristan, People in	248
Vend, right of (excise system)	293	—Policy in	243
Venezuela, Consul for	261	—Suggested Programme in	248
Vernacular Press	606	—The Compromise	249
—Act	606	Weaving, carpet	705
Viceroyalty, Instituted	59	—Mills	699
—of Lord Chelmsford	32	—Shawls	705
—of Lord Curzon	61	Weights and Measures Committee	50
—of Lord Hardinge	52	— — — — — currency	49
—of Lord Minto	61	— — — — — reform of	49
—Lord Reading	62	— — — — — variety of	50
Viceroy of India	85	Welfare centres, child	538
Viceroy's Commission	274	—movement, child	528
Viceroy's Emergency Powers	86	—Work	495
Victoria Cross	586	Wellesley's (Lord) policy	56
—Memorial Scholarships Fund	580	Wells	342
Village autonomy	361	Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Mission	467
—Self-Government Act	362	—Presbyterian Mission	467
Villages, occupations in	26	Wesleyan Chaplains	462
—type	360	—Methodist Mission	473
Visit of King and Queen	62	Western India Famine, 1868-70	352
Vizagapatam Harbour Project	378	—National Liberal Association	451
		—States	201
		Wheat, cultivation of	324
		Who's who in India	815
		Widowhood	22
		Widow remarriage	23
		Wild Animals, mortality from	587
		—birds' plumage	717
		Wills, Proving of	551
		Winds	343
		Wireless stations	532
		—telegraphy	603
		—Telephony	603
		Wolftram	672
		Woman Suffrage Movement	548
		Women, Association of British University,	458
		Women's Christian Medical College	471
		—costumes	29
		—Employment Bureaux	493
		—Indian Association	451
		—Medical Service	544
		—Bombay Nursing Association	546
		—Calcutta Nursing Association	546
		—Countess of Dufferin's Fund	545
		—Hardinge Medical Coll ge	545
Wages and Income (table)	630		
—in Agriculture	506		
—in mill industry	507		
Wales, Prince of, tour	62		
Walking	800		
War and Afghanistan	245, 250, 251		
—Burmese	56, 60		
—European, and India	62		
—Gurkha	56		
—India and the	62		
—Maratha	56		
—Mysore	56		
—Nepal	56		
—Royal Indian Marine	281		
—Sikh	57		
Warrant of Precedence	552		
Wars, Afghan	27, 60, 250, 251		
Waziristan	246, 248		
Map of	237		

	PAGE		PAGE
Women's Medical Service, Lady Minto's Association	547	Worship, Hindu	31
—Leave Rules	544	Woven goods, excise on	799
—Madras Nursing Association	546	—(table)	398
—National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the Women of India	546	Wrestling	800
—Nurses' Organisation	548		
—Nursing	546		
—Pay	544		
—Qualifications	544	Yachting	805
—State registration of nurses	546	Yarn production tables	690, 697
—Trained Nurses' Association	548	Yonghusband's expedition to Lhasa	253
—Deputation, All-India	549	Young Men's Christian Association	401
—Municipal franchise for	548	—Women's Christian Association	402
—Workers	28		
Wood-carving	41		
—workers	41		
Wool Industry	705		
—Bibliography	705		
—Blanket Weaving	705		
—Carpet	705	Zamindari holdings	284
—Manufacture	705	Zenana Mission, Ladies'	471
—trade	705	Zinc	672
Working statistics of railways (tables)	652, 653	Zoological Survey	523
Workmen's Compensation Act	504	Zoroastrianism	20

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